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**NON-NATIVE ENGLISH-SPEAKING TEACHERS AND PROFESSIONAL  
LEGITIMACY:  
A SOCIOCULTURAL THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE ON IDENTITY  
REALIZATION**

A Dissertation in  
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by

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## ABSTRACT

Despite nonnative English-speaking teachers' (NNESTs) professional qualifications and increasing contributions to research in TESOL, the native speaker (NS) myth (Phillipson, 1992) continues to undermine these teachers' sense of professional legitimacy and pedagogical efficacy. Thus, due in great part to the notion of an idealized NS teacher of ESL (Leung, Harris, & Rampton, 1997) that circulates within various professional discourses, many skilled NNESTs struggle to form a professional identity as legitimate TESOL professionals in the contexts where they teach (Canagarajah, 1999), since NS status permanently eludes them. In light of this challenge, making sure that NNESTs are supported in developing and asserting a professional identity is a key concern in second language teacher education. The present, ethnographically-oriented study argues that participation in *dialogic narrative inquiry* as a form of professional development can support NNESTs in their efforts to claim professional authority vis-à-vis the NS myth and ideology. Specifically, it explores how a focus on NNEST-related issues provided useful resources to participants (teaching assistants in the ESL program of a large American university) as they challenged the NS myth, while conceiving of, articulating, and internalizing alternative ESL teacher identities with which to (re)position themselves as legitimate language professionals. This interventional focus, implemented through participation in online group discussions and via a dialogic blog with the researcher, as well as through engagement with an instructional curriculum addressing NNEST issues, served as mediational means for the teachers to reconceptualize their instructional practices, and influenced the way in which their very

students (undergraduate-level ESL learners) came to think of themselves as English speakers and users. Data excerpts from a variety of sources, including online discussions, dialogic blogs, classroom observations, stimulated recall sessions, teacher interviews, and students' writing, are used to illustrate the findings. The overall theoretical framework for this project is Vygotskian sociocultural theory, complemented by a grounded content analysis based on the principles of ethnographic semantics (Spradley, 1979; Spradley & McCurdy, 1972) and on the constant comparative method (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998; Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Goetz & LeCompte, 1981). An additional key concept for the analysis is the *indexicality principle* (Bucholtz & Hall, 2005), which stresses the discursive nature of identity negotiation and realization. The final themes that emerged from the data analysis reflect evidence of the participants' emerging understanding of: a) the NS/NNS dichotomy, b) the NS myth, c) their self-concept and identity(-ies), d) their self-confidence as ESL teachers, e) their perceived English skills/expertise, and f) their perceptions of (critical) pedagogy. The study concludes by offering implications for the professional development of pre- and in-service NNESTs in the field of TESOL teacher education.

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## CHAPTER 1

### INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1 Background: NNESTs and Professional Legitimacy

With the spread of English as a global language (Crystal, 1997; Phillipson, 1992), its native speakers (NSs) from inner-circle countries (Kachru, 1986) have been imbued with privilege over non-native speakers (NNSs), as the former group is viewed as a highly marketable commodity used to attract more customers (i.e., students) and supposedly to provide better service (i.e., instruction). Indeed, when looking for employment opportunities, non-native English-speaking teachers' (NNESTs) chances of getting a job are likely to be influenced more by their (non)-native speaker status than by their professional qualifications (Clark & Paran, 2007; Mahboob, Uhrig, Newman, & Hartford, 2004). Job advertisements targeting TESOL professionals routinely position NSs as a commodity (by listing native speaker status as a pre-requisite for applying) and, in doing so, continue to “reinscribe white and English-speaking privilege” by discursively constructing and perpetuating native-speakerism (Motha, 2006, p. 78). Although NNESTs comprise the vast majority of teachers of English to speakers of other languages (TESOL) worldwide (an estimated 80% according to Canagarajah, 1999), this ideology and discourse results in palpable material implications (both positive and negative) for many individuals and institutions, both in the US and abroad (*see* Govardhan, Nayar, & Sheorey, 1999).

In addition, given that one's appearance and accent influence how one is perceived by students (Rubin, 1992; Lindemann, 2005), and that speakers of outer-circle varieties (Kachru, 1986) are perceived as 'non-standard' and possibly 'inferior' to NSs, many qualified NNESTs struggle to assert and negotiate an identity<sup>1</sup> as legitimate TESOL professionals in the contexts where they teach (Canagarajah, 1999). Such perceptions remain pervasive in the English language teaching profession due in large part to the pervasive 'native speaker myth' (Phillipson, 1992) and an idealized notion of what constitutes a native speaker (Leung et al, 1997). Underlying these myths is the assumption that NSs are inherently better language teachers than NNSs. Although this assumption has been challenged by applied linguists who have proposed alternatives to the NS/NNS dichotomy (*e.g.*, Cook, 1999; Rampton, 1990), the NS myth and ideology continue to marginalize NNESTs and thus work to undermine their professionalism and the TESOL profession as a whole. As expressed by Canagarajah (1999), the NS myth "prevents the critical development of the TESOL professional community and its discourses as it denies the participation of Periphery teachers on equal terms" (p. 87). Simply stated, the NS myth and discourse excludes NNESTs from employment and influence in the field regardless of their professional qualifications.

Movements such as English as an International Language (McKay 2002; Holliday, 2005), English as a Lingua Franca (Jenkins, 2007), and World Englishes (Kirkpatrick, 2007), as well as expanding research and pressure from TESOL Inc's

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<sup>1</sup> I use the terms 'identity(-ies)', 'subjectivity(-ies)', 'self-concept', and 'subject position(-ings)' somewhat interchangeably and assume that 'identity' "is not an inherent quality of a person but that it arises in interaction with others", being "fragmented, full of contradictions and ambiguities" (Sarup, 1996, p. 14).

NNEST Interest Section (Braine, 1999b, 2010, Kamhi-Stein, 2004, Llurda, 2005, Mahboob, 2010), have all made a very positive contribution to eroding the NS myth. In fact, to help in combating the NS myth and ideology, TESOL, Inc. has issued position statements against discrimination of NNSs of English in TESOL. In these documents, TESOL states that although “[a]ll English language educators should be proficient in English regardless of their native languages, (...) [t]eaching skills, teaching experience, and professional preparation should be given as much weight as language proficiency” (TESOL, 2006). In addition, they argue that

English language learners (...) have the right to be taught by qualified and trained teachers. Native speaker proficiency in the target language alone is not a sufficient qualification for such teaching positions; the field of teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL) is a professional discipline that requires specialized training (TESOL, 2003).

However, despite all these efforts to dispel the NS myth in TESOL and Applied Linguistics, the fact remains that due to economic dominance and imperialism (*see* Phillipson, 1992, 2008), a “standard” English accent and a Caucasian appearance are still seen as commodities. Teachers who do not ‘possess’ them are at a serious disadvantage both in terms of securing employment and in terms of asserting themselves as legitimate TESOL professionals. Thus, the NS myth continues to harm the professional lives and sense of self-efficacy of many qualified NNESTs (Brutt-Griffler & Samimy, 1999; Golombek & Jordan, 2005; Pavlenko, 2003). At best, the NS myth propels what has been referred to as the NNEST “anxiety” (*see* Llurda, 2005), the nagging sense of professional inadequacy that prevents many qualified NNESTs from becoming adequately confident instructors.

Within this highly charged sociopolitical context, it is necessary to understand the process(es) through which NNESTs can achieve a sense of professional legitimacy and work to contest ideological discourses. As argued by Kamhi-Stein (2005),

given that most English teachers in the world are non-native English speakers, there is a need to understand how factors such as NNES educators' perceptions of themselves as well as others' attitudes toward them (including those of language learners and administrators) may affect their instructional practices and contribute to their success (or failure) as educators (p. 72).

To that end, this dissertation examines the influences of the NS myth and how professional development (PD) can support NNESTs. The study draws on previous research from the disciplinary subfields of critical pedagogy, narrative inquiry, and teacher identity to craft a theoretical stance that is most appropriate for examining the everyday world of NNESTs' professional identities. In addition, it draws on a Vygotskian sociocultural theoretical perspective on identity realization in order to trace how participation in a series of PD experiences supports NNEST's attempts to explore identities with which to (re)position themselves as legitimate English teaching professionals.

The present dissertation study focuses on the connection between teachers' identities, their classroom practice, and on how second language teacher education (SLTE) can empower NNESTs to strive for professional legitimacy while potentially reshaping their instruction in response to more empowering conceptualizations of self. The main goal of this study is to understand the process(es) through which NNESTs (and their students) can be empowered to recognize, acknowledge, and contest dominant,

ideological discourses that position them as less than ideal, second-rate, or altogether undesirable or incapable professionals.

## **1.2 Chapter Overview**

The next chapter (Chapter 2: Literature Review) starts with a short introduction to critical pedagogy, its goal, and what is meant by the term ‘empower’. A succinct overview of research relevant to this investigation then follows. Specifically, it discusses the epistemological assumptions made by this study as originating from the study of narratives and narrative inquiry; an understanding of identities as embedded in relations of power, yet as socially-constructed and therefore somewhat negotiable; a brief overview of how a Vygotskian sociocultural theoretical perspective can inform the process of identity negotiation; and finally, how NNESTs’ professional subjectivities can be understood from a sociocultural perspective.

The third chapter (Chapter 3: Methodology) lays out the research questions that motivated and guided this study and describes the methodological procedures used in answering them. More specifically, it provides an overview of the research setting, a brief profile of each of the participants, and the details of the data collection procedures undertaken, as well as the data collection tools. Finally, it describes the nature of the PD experiences participants engaged in, the instructional unit used, and what kinds of student data were collected. It then includes an overview of how the data sources were transcribed, annotated, and analyzed.

The following chapter (Chapter 4: Karina) zeroes in on one of two teachers whose data were analyzed in this investigation. This chapter provides an overview of how Karina's participation in the study destabilized her beliefs about the NS myth and helped her to uncover some of the hidden ideologies that continue to propel it. It discusses in detail the twisting paths Karina's identity development has taken, showing how her prior beliefs were challenged, her professional identity destabilized, and how she started to conceive of herself, of her students, and of the English teaching profession in more empowering ways.

The second participating teacher is the focus of the fifth chapter (Chapter 5: Lee). Lee's subjectivity as a NNS played a major part in how he came to conceptualize his role as an instructor and, consequently, his teaching. This chapter thus discusses how his practical orientation to empowering NNSs and NNESTs led him to the development and implementation of an innovative instructional resource for his students. It also explains how his interactions during the PD functioned as spaces of collaborative critical inquiry through which his self-concept, as well as his thinking and beliefs about the NS/NNS dichotomy, the NS myth, and his instruction were shaken and tested.

In the sixth chapter (Chapter 6: Students), students are at the center of the analysis. The main focus of the chapter is thus to explain how engagement with an instructional curriculum addressing NNEST issues influenced the way in which the student participants came to think about themselves as NNS and their response to the NS myth. Put simply, this chapter explains how, for some of the student participants, the nature of the activities in which they engaged (as a function of the instructional unit on

the NS/NNS dichotomy) created a space for them to attempt to reposition themselves in empowering ways by thinking, writing, and talking about themselves differently.

The seventh and final chapter (Chapter 7: Discussion, Implications, and Conclusions) articulates how the results obtained from Karina's and Lee's data, as well as from their students, answer the major research questions (see Chapter 3) posed by this investigation. In particular, it explains why and how NNESTs can benefit from the types of PD experiences made possible by this study. In addition, the chapter explains some of the limitations of this study and discusses a few implications relevant to theory, practice, and future research.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

This study is intended as an exploration of the processes through which NNESTs can achieve a sense of professional identity and legitimacy (see Kamhi-Stein, 2005) by being empowered to recognize, acknowledge, and contest ideological discourses that position them as second-rate professionals. It focuses on how SLTE can help NNESTs strive for professional legitimacy while reshaping their instruction in response to more empowering conceptualizations of self. In order to understand how some of these transformative processes work, this study draws on critical pedagogy, narrative and narrative inquiry, identity, and Vygotskian sociocultural theory. What follows is a brief review of the literature from each of these areas, focusing specifically on how they are relevant to this investigation.

#### **2.1 Critical Pedagogy**

In educational research, the word ‘critical’ has been used in reference to “how dominant ideologies in society drive the construction of understandings and meanings in ways that privilege certain groups of people, while marginalizing others” (Hawkins & Norton, 2009, p. 31). Critical pedagogy, in turn, is charged with empowering<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>2</sup> I echo Brutt-Griffler and Samimy (1999) and Lather’s (*cited in* Brutt-Griffler and Samimy 1999: 419) view of empowerment as the “analyzing [of] ideas about the causes of powerlessness, recognizing systemic oppressive forces, and acting both individually and collectively to change the conditions of our lives.”

individuals, through education and critical reflection, to realize how they are situated and situate themselves in the broader context of power relations and, more importantly, with giving them the tools with which to attempt to escape and fight oppression (Freire, 2000; Hawkins & Norton, 2009). Because NNESTs, despite their professional qualifications, are often prejudiced against by prospective employers, students, administrators, and others (Braine, 1999a), it is key for their professional development and efficacy that they critically understand and learn to navigate the many power relations in the sociocultural and historical milieu in which they live and work. Before NNESTs can attempt to assert their professional legitimacy, they must first recognize which social and material conditions work against them as oppressive forces and how, both individually and collectively, they can work to mitigate such forces. In this context, critical pedagogy (Freire, 2000) provides a helpful framework for understanding how, despite very real material conditions and power relations, NNESTs can attempt to make a positive difference for themselves and for the TESOL field as a whole.

## **2.2 Narratives, Verbalization, and NNESTs' Emotions**

Narratives are a uniquely human way of making sense of otherwise random events (Polkinghorne, 1991). We understand our lives by narrating them (to others and to ourselves) and by infusing our experiences with significance and meaning (Polkinghorne, 1991). From a narrative epistemology, we all live storied lives and build “storied selves” (Bruner, 1996). We discursively construct, through the stories we tell, our understandings of our lives and of who we are in the world (Olson, 1995). Likewise, teachers live storied

lives (Carter, 1993; Elbaz, 1983; Olson, 1995). They continuously understand who they are through the stories that they choose to tell. They understand their practice and continuously weave their identity through the act of telling narratives. The themes from their narratives “are often moral and philosophical, having more to do with feelings, purposes, images, aspirations, and personal meanings than with teaching method or curriculum structures in isolation from personal experience or biography” (Carter, 1993, p. 7-8).

Thus, the stories teachers tell (as all stories) “are constructions that give a meaning to events and convey a particular sense of experience” (Carter, 1933, p. 8). But within teachers’ material constraints and sociocultural realities (and in fact *despite* their immediate ‘realities’), teachers can attempt to give particular meanings to themselves as people and to the work that they do, for better or for worse. Thus, despite the pre-existing structural parameters within which teachers operate, they nevertheless have a certain degree of agency to shape their storied selves through the narratives they tell and live by. As argued by Benwell and Stokoe, “the practice of narration involves the ‘doing’ of identity, and because we can tell different stories we can construct different versions of self” (2006, p. 138).

As narratives are fundamental to the process of making sense of oneself and to the shaping of one’s identity (Bucholtz & Hall, 2005; Pavlenko & Blackledge, 2004b; Pavlenko & Lantolf, 2000), the exploration of the meanings arising from and being created by narratives (i.e., narrative inquiry) enables teachers to explore and articulate the often tacit connections between their identity and their instructional practices (Simon-Maeda, 2004). That is, *precisely* because telling and exploring narratives entail sense-

making, SLTE can work alongside teachers to enable them to tell empowering stories of personal and professional legitimacy.

Finally, because teachers' understanding of themselves and of their practice through narratives can potentially impact both how they view themselves professionally *and* how they teach (*i.e.*, "a teaching act is a 'narrative-in-action'," Connelly & Clandinin, 1985, p. 184), narrative inquiry can become the very mediational tool and process through which NNESTs are encouraged to re-story their experiences, weave and negotiate empowering professional identity options, and seek to establish their professional legitimacy through what they say *and* do (Brutt-Griffler & Samimy, 1999; Golombek & Jordan, 2005; Pavlenko, 2003). Thus, within this project, participating teachers were asked to engage in narrative inquiry through online group discussions, dialogic journal interactions with the researcher, and through interviews and stimulated recall sessions. These communicative spaces enabled the participants to inquire into and reflect on their own thinking, life and professional experiences, and their teaching practices. These opportunities to inquire and reflect, in turn, made it possible for participants to begin to re-story their lived experiences and their personal and professional identities.

In the present study, narratives are understood as participants' understanding of themselves and of their realities in and through the process of verbalization of such understandings. They are not understood as life history accounts, but as meaningful instantiations of participants' discursive expression and sense-making of their thinking, beliefs, and emotions regarding their claimed or assigned subjectivity as NNSs or L2 users and their professional experiences as NNESTs. From a Vygotskyan sociocultural

perspective, it is in and through the act of verbalizing that teachers, as well as everybody else, can externalize their beliefs, understanding of themselves, and emotions, all intertwined in a “web of meaning” (Vygotsky, 1986, p. 182, cited in DiPardo & Potter, 2003, p. 337). As argued by DiPardo & Potter, “our emotions are intimately connected to our thoughts and actions and shaped in important ways by the institutional, cultural, and historic contexts in which we live and labor” (DiPardo & Potter, 2003, p. 337).

Indeed, because teaching involves a complex interplay between cognition and emotions (Witherell & Noddings, 1991), attempting to understand the cognitive without taking into consideration its relationship to the emotional shortchanges our ability to help teachers to develop personally and professionally. This is especially the case for NNESTs, for in addition to the emotional demands that most teachers go through on a regular basis, many NNESTs also experience feelings of self-doubt, inadequacy, and illegitimacy due to the NS fallacy (Thomas, 1999). In addition, NNESTs’ sense of professional legitimacy is delicately interwoven with their emotions, as they face the constant challenge of managing their identity and re-storying themselves through the very language that they teach. Therefore, NNESTs can benefit from the opportunity to collaboratively acknowledge these emotions in a nurturing and respectful environment, reflect on their significance to their subjectivities and professional practice, and attempt to reconcile their emotions and their practice.

Finally, the process of achieving a sense of self-confidence is crucial in enabling NNSs to ‘translate’ or ‘re-story’ themselves into a new self, one who is confident in her/his ability to function in a new language (see Hoffman, 1989; Zou, 1998). For Zou (1998), a Chinese woman who immigrated to the U.S. and is now a university professor,

“[b]ecoming consciously aware that I was competent to interact in English became my empowerment” (p. 8). In her view, “the experience of success in an immigrant’s daily life is essential to develop a sense of competence, self-confidence, and self-respect – and to ultimately become empowered” (p. 7). Possible differences between the subjectivities of ‘NNEST’ and ‘immigrant’ notwithstanding, Zou’s account exemplifies the power of emotions in the process of re-narrating oneself into confidence and agency. Similarly, for Mahn and John-Steiner (2002), acknowledging and integrating emotions in the context of cognitive development is critical in the furthering of the whole person (ibid). As pointed out in the previous discussion, they argued for an expanded understanding of the ZPD that incorporates the metalanguage to discuss emotions and which engenders ‘the gift of confidence’ (ibid, p. 58). For NNESTs, becoming confident in their skills as legitimate teachers is a major part of professional development; it enables them to “meet difficult challenges, to sustain creative endeavors and to attempt something new” (ibid, p. 58).

In this study, the participants’ emotions regarding themselves and toward their professional lives, both positive and negative, were intentionally explored as a locus of potential professional development. More specifically (see Chapter 3), my interactions with the participants through the online group discussions, dialogic journals, interviews, and stimulated recalls provided me, by design, with key opportunities to attempt to support the participating teachers as they explored and articulated pent up emotions and anxieties about claiming English as an additional language and about establishing their professional legitimacy as NNESTs working in an English-speaking country.

### 2.3 Teacher Identity

Few would disagree that teachers' instructional practices are shaped not only by the professional education they have experienced and accumulated, but also by their own experiences as students (see Lortie, 1975) and by their identities and emotions (Duff & Uchida, 1997; Johnson, 1992; Simon-Maeda, 2004; Varghese, Morgan, Johnston, & Johnson, 2005). In fact, investigations of teacher thinking and cognition (*e.g.*, Woods, 1996; Johnson, 1992) have suggested that teachers' identities are indeed *intricately* connected to their classroom practice (Varghese, Morgan, Johnston, & Johnson, 2005).

For the present study, identity is defined as multiple, dynamic, relational, situated, embedded in relations of power, and yet negotiable (Block, 2007a; Norton, 2006). This study focuses on use of linguistic resources and action as key factors involved in identity negotiation and which allow for an emphasis on the discursive nature of identity construction, its embeddedness in social and power relations, its situatedness in practical activity, its negotiability, and its intentionality. In this post-structural view of identity, language and discourse play a key role as “[w]ho we are to each other, then, is accomplished, ascribed, disputed, resisted, managed and negotiated in discourse” (Benwell & Stokoe, 2006, p. 4). Likewise, Duff & Uchida (1997) pointed out that “in educational practice, as in other facets of social life, identities and beliefs are co-constructed, negotiated, and transformed on an ongoing basis by means of language” (p. 452).

In order to trace how NNESTs attempt to articulate, claim, and assert identities as a legitimate professionals within the context where they teach, the notion of *positioning*

(Davies & Harré, 1990) is especially helpful. Because discourse is always embedded in relations of power, individuals at times choose to willingly take on certain subject positions and freely reject others but, conversely, are sometimes ascribed certain subject positions which they do not value, claim, or desire. For NNESTs, to say that identities are negotiated within power relations means that NNESTs' professional legitimacy is eroded to the extent that disempowering discourses (such as the NS myth) that position them as illegitimate professionals remain unchallenged. Thus, in many contexts, qualified NNESTs are positioned as less able professionals than native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) by the public discourse, the institutions where they work, their colleagues, their students, and even their social acquaintances. But despite the expanding body of research on NNESTs and on ways to empower them (Braine, 1999b; Kamhi-Stein, 2004; Llorca, 2005; Mahboob, 2010), it is less clear how this goal can be accomplished by means of professional development opportunities (notable exceptions are Brutt-Griffler & Samimy, 1999, Golombek & Jordan, 2005, Oxford & Jain, 2010, and Pavlenko, 2003).

In second language (L2) teaching and research, it has been argued that the value of teacher identity research lies in that

in 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: the professional, cultural, political, and individual identities which they claim or which are assigned to them (Varghese et al, 2005, p. 22).

Indeed, research on teacher identity is gaining increasing relevance in SLTE and research, as researchers attempt to understand the complex relationships between identity and practice.

In spite of the challenges in understanding, defining, characterizing, and operationalizing (teacher) identity as a theoretical construct, research on identity continues to grow in the social sciences, including applied linguistics (*see* Block, 2007a, 2007b, 2007c; Hall, 1996; Mantero, 2004, 2007a; McNamara, 1997; Norton, 1997, 2000, 2001, 2004, 2006; Norton-Peirce, 1995; Pavlenko & Blackledge, 2004b). Pavlenko and Blackledge (2004a) defined identities as “social, discursive, and narrative options offered by a particular society in a specific time and place to which individuals and groups of individuals appeal in an attempt to self-name, to self-characterize, and to claim social spaces and social prerogatives” (p. 19). Likewise, Bucholtz and Hall (2005) defined identity as “the social positioning of self and other” (p. 586). They conceptualized identity as “a relational and sociocultural phenomenon that emerges and circulates in local discourse contexts of interaction rather than as a stable structure located primarily in the individual psyche or in fixed social categories” (*ibid*, p. 585-586). Overall, conceptions of identity have evolved from essentialist views that locate a static self metaphorically within the person to social constructionist and post-structuralist understandings that take identity to be multiple, dynamic, relational, situated, embedded in relations of power, and yet negotiable (Norton, 2006). Language and discourse, therefore, play a key role in this post-structural view of identity (Mantero, 2007b). Although demographic categories such as race, gender, and language are related to identity, they do not in and of themselves constitute identity (Block, 2007a).

Moreover, expanding cross-cultural migration and travel patterns, as well as a growing number of subjectivities made available by widespread media, have contributed to the increasingly complex subjectivities that teachers, students, and all involved bring

into the classroom, some researchers have also underscored a holistic view of identity that includes the cognitive, physical, and affective aspects of the self (e.g., Alsup, 2006). In this view, teachers' construction of an identity is intricately connected to what they believe, to their perceptions of themselves, to how they are perceived by others, and to the emotions that become prominent in this process of identity construction (ibid).

Similarly, Varghese et al (2005) remind us that

teacher identity is a profoundly individual and psychological matter because it concerns the self-image and other-image of particular teachers. It is a social matter because the formation, negotiation, and growth of teacher identity is a fundamentally social process taking place in institutional settings such as teacher education programs and schools. It is a process that is inextricably intertwined with language and discourse, insofar as all identities are maintained to a significant degree through discourse; yet it is also very much a real-world phenomenon that impacts teachers' standing in their communities as well as affecting their wages and working conditions (p. 39-40).

In this study, the notion of identity echoes its post-structural and sociocultural conceptualizations largely prevalent in the social sciences today (see Block 2007a).

Drawing from the work of authors such as Weedon (1997), Butler (1999), Davies and Harré (1990), Lave and Wenger (1991), and Foucault (1981), Block (2007a) defined identities as:

socially constructed, self-conscious, ongoing narratives that individuals perform, interpret and project in (...) actions and language. Identity work occurs in the company of others (...) with whom to varying degrees individuals share beliefs, motives, values, activities and practices. Identities are about negotiating new subject positions at the crossroads of the past, present, and future. Individuals are shaped by their sociohistories but they also shape their sociohistories as life goes on. (...) There are unequal power relations to deal with, around the different capitals – economic, cultural and social – that both facilitate and constrain interactions with others in the different communities of practice with which individuals engage in their lifetimes. (p. 27)

This view allows for an emphasis on the use of linguistic resources and action as the key ingredients in identity negotiation and thus helps us to understand and support the ways through which NNESTs' can opt to take on more empowering identity options through what they think, say, and do.

### **2.3.1 Identity Negotiation**

But what does the process of negotiating an identity look like? For Pavlenko and Blackledge (2004a), it is “an interplay between reflective positioning, i.e. self-representation, and interactive positioning, whereby others attempt to position or reposition particular individuals or groups” (p. 20). It is largely constrained by the linguistic resources available to individuals at a certain time and place. As identities are either imposed, assumed, or negotiable, its negotiation is embedded in power relations and greatly influenced by dominant ideologies. Imagination, however, “plays a crucial role in the process of creation of new identity options” (ibid, p. 17). By imagining a new or alternative self, individuals can in fact engage in an active process of negotiating their current identity so as to incorporate a new set of beliefs, emotions, and understandings. Thus, narratives play an important role in identity formation and negotiation as “individuals [are] continuously involved in production of selves, positioning of others, revision of identity narratives, and creation of new ones which valorize new modes of being and belonging” (ibid, p. 19).

So how can NNESTs articulate, claim, and assert an identity as legitimate professionals in the contexts where they teach? First of all, this process requires

NNESTs, as practitioners, to critically examine their own thoughts, beliefs, and attitudes about what it means to be a NNEST. After all, negotiating professional legitimacy presupposes believing that it originates from one's qualifications and not from one's NES status. Miller's (2007) participant, Julia, is an example of the need for critical reflection. In the context of her student teaching experience, she felt "diminished" in comparison to her colleagues, as she didn't believe that she knew as much about English as her NES peers (p. 162). Miller, however, believed this was a misconception on Julia's part. She argued that many NNESTs have a tendency to assume that NESTs are better in both knowing and speaking the language. Thus, for beginning teachers, the opportunity to discuss who they believe themselves to be and what they believe in is necessary for developing a healthy professional identity (Flores, 2001; Miller, 2007). In order to assert their identity as legitimate professionals, NNESTs must first acknowledge themselves as legitimate professionals.

Being qualified and acknowledging oneself as such, however, is only part of the picture. Here, the notion of 'positioning' (Davies & Harré, 1990) helps us to understand how NNESTs can negotiate different identity options as they interact through discourse. Because discourse is always embedded in relations of power, individuals at times choose to willingly take on certain 'subject positions' and freely reject others but, conversely, are sometimes ascribed certain subject positions which they do not value or desire. For NNESTs, to say that identities are negotiated within power relations means that NNESTs' professional legitimacy is eroded to the extent that disempowering discourses that position NNESTs as illegitimate professionals (such as the NS myth) are taken for granted and remain unchallenged. Thus, in many institutional and work contexts,

NNESTs are positioned as less able professionals than NESTs, or even than NSs. They are positioned as such by the public discourse, by the institutions where they work, by their colleagues, by their students, and even by their social acquaintances.

Brutt-Griffler & Samimy (1999) found that pre-service NNESTs can be supported in challenging dominant ideologies and disempowering discourses, in particular the native speaker supremacy, and in exploring alternative identity options that give them more legitimacy and agency. Through readings, discussions, and writing assignments during a seminar on critical praxis, the authors supported students in their efforts to analyze the reasons behind their feelings of powerlessness, to establish new relationships to their context, and to gain an overall sense of agency over their professional lives. One of the course assignments, a professional autobiography, enabled a student to conceive of his professional identity as dynamic and negotiable:

... I realized that there is a complex relationship between what I have experienced and my reflection of these experiences. ... My view of myself as a nonnative professional has not been ... stable or settle... The term "identity" permits sufficient conceptual elasticity to capture [these] complicated aspects of the issue. (p. 424).

In addition, many students in the seminar reportedly chose to become agents of change in their own contexts based on new understandings of the issues surrounding non-native English speaking professionals.

In a related study, Pavlenko (2003) examined how some of her NNS, pre-service TESOL students were able to negotiate and reshape their identities by reflecting on what it means to be a speaker of English through critical readings. In this case, linguistic competence is the point of departure for imagining a new community of membership and

thus for legitimizing students' experiences both as speakers and as teachers of a second language. Her analysis showed that "the students' view of themselves, their relationship with the L2 and their own professional legitimacy differed depending on what community they decided to invest in" (*i.e.*, NSs, NNSs/L2 learners, or multilinguals/L2 users) and that the readings and discussions on the NS/NNS dichotomy allowed students to take on new discourses and identities (p. 256). Thus, "reimagining themselves as multicompetent and bilingual allowed some students not only to view themselves positively but also to transmit these views to others and to engage in active attempts to reshape the surrounding contexts" (p. 266). This study suggests that a re-imagined identity can potentially enable teachers to reshape their classroom practice in response to their new conceptualizations of self.

Finally, Golombek & Jordan (2005) also explored how NNSs can assert their identity as legitimate English as a Second Language (ESL) teachers. Based on case studies of two Taiwanese students in a TESOL master's program, the authors explored how, for these two students, accent and race were intricately implicated in the process of asserting their professional legitimacy. During a pronunciation pedagogy class over the course of a semester, the students engaged with critical readings and discussions that challenged the White, native speaker superiority and explored the construct of multi-competence. Although the students' reaction papers showed that their identity as legitimate teachers of English was ambivalent and contradictory, they were nonetheless able to conceive of other means through which to assert their professional legitimacy (*e.g.*, knowledge of their students' L1, expert knowledge of English, personal experiences). The authors concluded that teacher education programs can encourage

NNESTs to conceive of and develop other means through which to establish legitimacy and assert their identity as English teachers.

As argued by Hawkins and Norton (2009, p. 32),

[b]ecause language, culture, and identity are integrally related, language teachers are in a position to address educational inequality, both because of the particular learners they serve, many of whom are marginalized members of the wider community, and because of the subject matter they teach – language – which can itself serve to both empower and marginalize.

As educators, teachers have the opportunity to “sketch” their own identities, to highlight identity options for their students, and to help students to envision the society they can help form (Cummins, 2003, p. 55). For NNESTs, this means not only asserting an identity as a legitimate teacher, but also helping their students to think of alternative identity options that are empowering and constructive. They can, for example, present different subjectivities, such as being “proud to be a NNEST” (Matsuda, 2003) to help students to think of different alternative options for NNESTs. Through critical pedagogy (Pennycook, 2001) and praxis (i.e., the integration of theory and practice for social change), NNESTs can help erode the NS fallacy and encourage learners to situate themselves in broader relationships of power and thus attempt to resist oppression (Hawkins & Norton, 2009).

#### **2.4 A Sociocultural Theoretical Perspective on Identity(-ies)**

A sociocultural theoretical perspective on identity realization means that one’s identity arises from and within one’s social relationships and sociocultural context (van Huizen, van Oers, & Wubbels, 2005). That is, from the dialectical relationship between

the individual and the social, in unique yet constrained ways (Valsiner, 1998; Wetherell & Maybin, 1996). It draws from recognizable social types, yet infuses them with one's own idiosyncrasies as it is internalized (Holland & Lachicotte Jr., 2007). In addition, individuals construct, display, and manage their identities in the context of their social relations and activity in a process of constant becoming (Cross & Gearon, 2007; Holland & Lachicotte Jr., 2007). As members of communities of practice, individuals can potentially re-story themselves into new subjectivities through both discourse and action (Holland & Lachicotte Jr., 2007; Wertsch, Tulviste, & Hagstrom, 1993). Finally, one's emotions are at the heart of this process of re-storying oneself (DiPardo & Potter, 2003; Mahn & John-Steiner, 2002).

Despite the expanding body of research on NNESTs and on ways to empower them (Braine, 1999b; Kamhi-Stein, 2004; Llurda, 2005), it is less clear how to accomplish this goal. To this end, I believe that Vygotskian sociocultural theory can make an invaluable contribution. In broad strokes, sociocultural theory argues that human cognition (e.g., memory, planning, and higher-order thinking) is *mediated* by culturally-developed tools (Lantolf, 2000; Vygotsky, 1978, 1986; Wertsch, 1985). In the context of teacher learning, a sociocultural perspective foregrounds the socially-mediated nature of learning and the dialectical interplay between teachers' cognitions and their sociocultural contexts and practices (Au, 1990; Ball, 2000; Deppeler, 2007; Golombek & Johnson, 2004; Johnson & Golombek, 2003; Johnson, 2007; Lantolf & Johnson, 2007; Singh & Richards, 2006; Verity, 2000). It takes into account not only what teachers know and believe, but how their understandings of themselves and of their activity impact and are impacted by their relationship to the contexts in which they teach. In this view, teacher

learning is primarily a matter of helping teachers to internalize new understandings based on theory (i.e., scientific concepts), reflection, and socially-mediated interactions and, based on these new understandings, to commit to changes in their activity (i.e., instructional practices) (Ball, 2000; Golombek & Johnson, 2004; Johnson & Golombek, 2003).

Thus, I take internalization to be “the process through which developing teachers move beyond positions of cognitive internalization of theory and practices toward transformative positions of reflective commitment needed to guide them in their generative development as (...) teachers” (Ball, 2007, p. 229). But it is important to point out that internalization is not a simple process of transferring scientific concepts to teachers’ existing psychological plane. Rather, internalization starts on the social plane and through mediated interactions. As Vygotsky (1981, cited in Wertsch, 1985, p. 62) argued,

It is necessary that everything internal in higher forms was external, that is, for others it was what it now is for oneself. Any higher mental function necessarily goes through an external state in its development because it is initially a social function. (...) Any higher mental function was external because it was social at some point before becoming an internal, truly mental function.

Moreover, teachers’ discourse practices and commitment to action can potentially change as they appropriate new understandings of themselves and of their practice through narrative inquiry-based mediational processes (Ball, 2000; see also Golombek & Johnson, 2004; Sackville, 2002). In sum, sociocultural theory can help researchers trace the internal, cognitive activity that is teacher learning and development (Golombek & Johnson, 2004; Johnson & Golombek, 2003; Johnson, 2007) and thus to better

understand how to encourage and promote teachers' professional development. In the proposed study, a sociocultural theoretical perspective highlights what the processes of identity development and negotiation look like for NNESTs and how potential changes in their professional discourse and self-concept have the potential to reorient their instructional practices.

For NNESTs, internalizing scientific concepts regarding the NS/NNS dichotomy, the NS myth, and other related concepts can lead to not only more confidence in teaching, but to instructional practices that are based on professional expertise rather than on anxiety, fear, and everyday conceptualizations of what it means to be a speaker of English. Golombek and Jordan (2005), for example, poignantly showed how, for one of their study participants (Shao-mei), perceiving NSs as the sole arbiters of English and placing the burden of communicative competence solely on herself was related to a pedagogy that, for her, meant that "ESL learners ... should try to decrease their accent to make communication [with NSs] more successful" (p. 520).

Furthermore, even if from the outside a teacher's instruction (i.e., *activity*) is unchanged, the *motive* for the instruction may be very different. In other words, simply because there is no change in activity, one cannot assume that the motives behind a teacher's instruction is also unchanged. Rather, because activity is goal-directed, we can attempt to uncover teachers' reasons for their instructional practices and decision-making through, for example, the use of stimulated recall protocols (see Chapter 3).

### 2.4.1 NNESTs' Identity Development: Internalizing Empowering Subjectivities

As identity research continues to gain momentum in the social sciences and in Applied Linguistics (*see* Block, 2007a; Mantero, 2007a; and Norton, 2006), a small but significant number of researchers, inspired by Vygotsky's work, have been taking on this line of inquiry and continue to contribute to our understanding of identity formation (Cross & Gearon, 2007; González Rey, 1999; Holland & Lachicotte, Jr., 2007; Penuel & Wertsch, 1995; Stetsenko & Arieviditch, 2004). From a Vygotskian perspective, individuals' cognitive development takes place out of, and is embedded in, their social interactions in daily activity. In other words, our thinking starts in the social sphere (the *interpsychological* plane) and, in a constant process of dialectical interaction between the individual and the world, moves to the *intrapsychological* plane (Wetherell & Maybin, 1996). One's identity is deeply connected to one's social relationships and embedded in one's changing activity in the world (Holland & Lachicotte, Jr., 2007; Penuel & Wertsch, 1995; Stetsenko & Arieviditch, 2004). In sum, in Vygotsky's thinking, a person's sense of 'selfhood' arises from the ongoing, dialectical interaction between the person and the world (Valsiner, 1998; Wetherell & Maybin, 1996).

But how exactly can a Vygotskian-inspired view of identity help us to understand and support NNESTs' quest for professional legitimacy? In general terms, identity development in the context of NNESTs entails the collaborative reflection on and articulation and claiming of alternative subject positionings both in terms of discourse practices and practical activity (i.e., the way they talk about themselves and their professional practice and what they do as teachers). Rather than thinking and acting based

on unexamined assumptions about their skills, role, and professional legitimacy, it involves the articulating, internalizing, and claiming of empowering identity options as rightful L2 learners, users, and above all, teachers. By probing their own assumptions and questioning dominant discourses through collaborative inquiry, NNESTs can potentially come to a new understanding of their professional role and improve their instructional practice.

One's identity finds meaning within and is constantly shaped by a particular sociocultural context in which multiple discourses exist. For NNESTs, this means forging their 'voice' as a community of practice in the context of and in response to a multitude of other voices (Bakhtin, 1982; Maybin, 2001). Therefore, NNESTs are not only charged with the task of coming to an understanding of themselves as legitimate professionals in TESOL, they must also figure out how such an understanding can exist within a plethora of discourses, both supportive and obstructive. They must challenge the status quo and, in doing so, locate this renewed identity within their local and broader sociocultural contexts.

Furthermore, because one's identity, though unique, draws from socially constructed and recognizable identity types (Holland & Lachicotte, Jr. 2007), NNESTs must be able to locate and identify themselves with viable, empowering, and above all, available identity options (e.g., Cook's (1999) notion of 'multicompetence'). If these identity types are not made accessible to NNESTs to begin with, they cannot internalize or infuse them with their own subjectivities. Therefore, it is crucial that NNESTs, as a community of practice, continue to articulate, make available, and promote such identity options so that they can be taken up, inhabited, and performed by them. Hence the

importance of communities of practice such as the NNEST Interest Section, established in 1998 (TESOL, no date). As an official organization within TESOL, Inc., the NNEST Interest Section has brought visibility to NNESTs' plight for professional legitimacy and, in doing so, has supported many NNESTs as they negotiate more empowering identities in their own contexts of practice.

In addition, NNESTs come to articulate and take on different subjectivities through discourse and in the context of their social relationships and professional activities. That is to say, they need the professional opportunity to discuss issues of professional identity and professional support as they experiment with alternative conceptualizations of self and come to new meanings about themselves and about their practice (van Huizen et al, 2005). In Cross and Gearon's (2007) words, "[t]eacher identity resides in how teachers, as subjects of their activity systems (i.e., of 'teaching'), have made sense of their role within their systems, and how they then choose to act within it" (p. 63-64). Thus, teacher identity formation presupposes an exploration of the meanings attached to the practice of teaching that teachers are willing to appropriate and, importantly, a commitment to developing the competence that allows the instantiation of such meanings (van Huizen et al, 2005).

In summary, a sociocultural perspective on identity means that it arises from and within one's social relationships and sociocultural context (van Huizen et al, 2005). That is, from the dialectical relationship between the individual and the social, in unique yet constrained ways. It draws from recognizable social types, yet infuses them with one's own idiosyncrasies as it is internalized. In addition, individuals construct, display, and manage their identities in the context of their social relations and activity in a process of

becoming. As members of communities of practice, individuals potentially exercise ‘distributed agency’, through both discourse and action, and re-story themselves into new subjectivities. In this process of internalization of new understandings of oneself in relation to social relations and practices, emotions play a decisive part.

In this light, supporting the development of NNESTs’ professional identity also entails a series of socially-mediated processes. First and foremost, it involves promoting NNESTs’ awareness of how they position themselves professionally and are positioned by others (e.g., students, institutions, the public discourse) in regards to their legitimacy and in relation to both the local and broader contexts where they work and live. It also entails the creation of mediational spaces (Golombek & Johnson, 2004) where, through critical reflection and collaborative inquiry, NNESTs can challenge disempowering discourses and conceive of alternative identity options as legitimate professionals. Once internalized as higher-order psychological functions (Holland & Lachicotte, Jr., 2007), these renewed identities can potentially engender significant changes in NNESTs’ sense of individual and group agency. Finally, NNESTs’ identity development entails a commitment to change in both discourse practices and practical activity with the goal of empowering themselves and others (Stetsenko & Arieviditch, 2004). Only then, as a community of practice, will NNESTs “escape from the tyranny of environmental stimuli” and intentionally author “new selves and new cultural worlds and try to realize them” (Holland & Lachicotte, Jr., 2007, p. 116).

#### **2.4.2 NNESTs' Identity Development: Acquiring Scientific Knowledge**

From a sociocultural theoretical perspective, an important distinction is made between everyday and scientific concepts (Karpov, 2003). The former can be further categorized as either spontaneous or non-spontaneous. Spontaneous everyday concepts are based on generalizations arising from concrete personal experiences alone and, therefore, often result in unsystematic, erroneous notions (Karpov, 2003). Non-spontaneous everyday concepts, in turn, are based on observable features and are explicitly taught and consciously learned (Lantolf & Johnson, 2007). Everyday concepts (both spontaneous and non-spontaneous), lack the kind of deeply organized structure that would allow individuals to recontextualize their knowledge in novel situations or contexts (Lantolf & Johnson, 2007). Scientific concepts, on the other hand, are concepts that have been produced and generalized by human beings through the physical and social sciences. They “represent the generalization of the experience of humankind that is fixed in science, understood in the broadest sense of the term to include both natural and social sciences as well as the humanities” (Karpov, 2003, p. 66). In essence, scientific concepts encompass our human knowledge of the world and the phenomena within it as an organized and structured body of knowledge (ibid). When combined with procedural knowledge, scientific concepts can “serve[] as a powerful mediator of students’ subject-domain thinking and problem solving” (ibid, p. 69). For Vygotsky (1986), formal education should promote learners’ internalization of scientific concepts in the backdrop of social activity. As he asserted, “...scientific concepts are a product of school

instruction” (ibid, p. 208). Thus, if we are to extend Vygotsky’s notion of scientific concepts to SLTE, we must also take into consideration the kinds of learning experiences that will lead to the internalization of scientific concepts (Lantolf & Johnson, 2007). As Vygotsky himself argued,

...the study of scientific concepts (...) has important implications for education and instruction. These concepts are not absorbed ready-made, and instruction and learning play a leading role in their acquisition. To uncover the complex relation between instruction and the development of scientific concepts is an important practical task (Vygotsky, 1986, p. 161-162).

In this light, the role of SLTE regarding NNESTs’ professional development is to facilitate their learning of pivotal scientific concepts (described below) that will guide their thinking and pedagogy in ways that are empowering to both themselves and their students and not based on everyday conceptualizations of NSs.

Many NNESTs, despite being professionally trained and qualified, still hold everyday notions of the NS/NNS dichotomy and of what it means to be a NS of English based on their concrete experiences in the world. The NS myth (Phillipson, 1992) is, itself, the result of an everyday, untested conceptualization of NSs as the sole arbiters of English grammar and usage. This idealization and misconception then leads many to the assumption that NSs, whether professionally trained or not, are the most effective instructors for ESL/EFL students. As argued by Canagarajah (1999), the NS myth “flies in the face of some basic linguistic concepts developed through research and accepted by contemporary scholars” and “creates a disjunction between research awareness and professional practice in ELT” (p. 79). The NS myth, as an everyday concept, jeopardizes professionalism and expertise in TESOL (Canagarajah, 1999).

Similarly, many NNESTs tend to view NSs and NNSs as two distinct, easily identifiable identity categories, leaving no room for individuals who may not fit either stereotype. If understood only based on everyday conceptualizations, the labels NS and NNS are viewed as two opposite, mutually exclusive identity categories based on place of birth. Though such a dichotomous view of NSs and NNSs may be enough to describe some individuals, it seriously limits one's identity options and blinds us to the many instances of individuals who do not fit either stereotype. Thus, for example, NSs of English may be conflated with Caucasians, which is certainly not always the case and, conversely, non-Caucasian-looking individuals may be perceived as having an accent simply based on their appearance (Rubin, 1992). Kirkpatrick (2007) argues that although NSs of English are usually equated with being 'white', it is quite obvious that they may be "black or white or anything else" (p, 6). Similarly, although many perceive age of acquisition as a key factor in defining NSs, "it is clearly not necessarily true that the language a person learns first is the one they will always be best at" (ibid, p. 8).

Because everyday concepts regarding the NS/NNS dichotomy and the NS myth are so damaging and widespread, theorists and researchers in Applied Linguistics have conducted systematic studies on these concepts and, through grounded empirical research, theoretical analyses, and theory building have presented very different conceptualizations and characterizations of them (Braine, 2004; Canagarajah, 1999; Cook, G., 2003; Cook, V., 1999, 2005; Kirkpatrick, 2007; Rampton, 1990). G. Cook (2003), for example, argues that the usual definitions of NS (*i.e.*, someone who acquired the language naturally and effortlessly, who is an expert in the language, and who is loyal to the community using the language) do not accommodate widely spoken languages

such as English. In fact, they do not even include key elements such as proficiency in writing. Similarly, V. Cook (2005) proposed a re-conceptualization of the L2 user as “a particular kind of person in their own right with their own knowledge of the first language (L1) and the L2, rather than a monolingual with an added L2” (p. 47). In this context, he argues for the concept of ‘multicompetence’, which “covers the total language knowledge of a person who knows more than one language, including both L1 competence and the L2 interlanguage” (Cook, 1999, p. 190).

A pivotal goal of SLTE is to prepare teachers to move beyond simply teaching uncritically in the same way that they were taught (i.e., based on their apprenticeship of observation; Lortie, 1975) or based on their everyday conceptualizations of teaching. For NNESTs, part of their professionalization as effective teachers lies in moving beyond their everyday conceptualizations of the NS/NNS dichotomy and NS myth and in striving for professional legitimacy by taking on an empowering stance both for themselves and for their students. In doing so, they can begin to function effectively by asserting and negotiating their professional subjectivities in different contexts, including those which challenge them. Therefore, the internalization of these scientific concepts is thus both desirable and necessary for NNESTs’ professionalization as teachers. In this study, the NS/NNS dichotomy and NS myth are the two scientific concepts that the participants were asked to reflect on through the PD experiences described above. With a few notable exceptions (see Brutt-Griffler & Samimy, 1999, Golombek & Jordan, 2005, Oxford & Jain, 2010, and Pavlenko, 2003), these concepts are hardly ever presented to teacher candidates in TESL programs.

Because scientific concepts play an important role in mediating and guiding one's thinking and action (Karpov, 2003), the goal of the PD intervention reported here was for teachers to begin to internalize these scientific concepts so that they could begin to reconstruct their everyday conception of the NS/NNS dichotomy and NS myth and take on more empowering identities; both in how they talk about themselves and how they act and interact with their students. In sum, PD experiences for NNESTs must include a scientific understanding of the NS/NNS dichotomy and NS myth so that they can move beyond their everyday understandings of these concepts. As argued by Braine (2004),

One important factor that emerges from the research [on NNESTs] is the need for more education, for both nonnative speaker teachers and their students. Nonnative teachers must be made aware that English is no longer a unitary language, that there are so-called Englishes, each with its own identity and recognition in social, economic, and national contexts. [...] As far as students are concerned, they, too, must be made aware that English has no owners, that it is their language, and not a dead language to be studied from textbooks but a vigorous and thriving mode of communication at their service. (p. 22)

### **2.4.3 Key Scientific Concepts**

One of the main goals of the PD opportunities engendered by this study was to go beyond destabilizing the participating teachers' views and beliefs regarding the NS/NNS dichotomy and their role as ESL teachers. But a concurrent and equally important goal was to help participants replace such everyday concepts with scientific ones to restructure their thinking and guide their actions in empowering (i.e., theoretically and pedagogically informed) ways. Thus, the goal of the study was not to simply break stereotypes, destabilize identities, and leave a void of self-doubt and insecurity, but to provide the participants with productive alternatives to their current thinking and action. The main

scientific concepts that were used to mediate the participants' thinking are discussed below.

#### ***2.4.3.1 Problematizing the traditional definitions of NSs and NNSs.***

The NS has been defined by many and in many ways. In applied linguistics, Davies (1991) proposed that the NS has six main qualities (although he does concede that a theoretical explanation of the native speaker must go beyond these 'common-sense' features):

The native speaker acquires the L1 of which s/he is a native speaker in childhood,

The native speaker has intuitions (in terms of acceptability and productiveness) about his/her Grammar 1,

The native speaker has intuitions about those features of the Grammar 2 which are distinct from his/her Grammar 1,

The native speaker has a unique capacity to produce fluent spontaneous discourse (...). In both production and comprehension the native speaker exhibits a wide range of communicative competence,

The native speaker has a unique capacity to write creatively (...)

The native speaker has a unique capacity to interpret and translate into the L1 of which s/he is a native speaker (Davies, 1991, p. 148-9).

Kramsch (1998), however, (p. 79-80), asserts that "the 'native speaker' of linguists and language teachers is in fact an abstraction based on arbitrarily selected features of pronunciation, grammar and lexicon, as well as on stereotypical features of appearance and demeanor" (p. 70-80). Moreover, and along the same lines, Kramsch claims that the "native speaker is (...) a monolingual, monocultural abstraction; he/she is

one who speaks only his/her (standardized) native tongue and lives by one (standardized) national culture. In reality, most people partake of various languages or language varieties and live by various cultures and subcultures” (p. 80).

Similarly, Cook (2003) agrees that the term native speaker “has become one of the most contentions in applied linguistics” (p. 28). Traditionally, he argues, native speakers “are considered to be people who acquired the language naturally and effortlessly in childhood, through a combination of exposure, the child’s innate talent for language learning, and the need to communicate”; “are seen as people who use the language (...) correctly, and have insight into what is or is not acceptable”; and know about and are loyal to “a community which uses the language” (p. 28). But Cook argues that although this traditional view of the NS might work well for small and geographically isolated linguistic communities, it cannot accommodate larger and more geographically widespread ones, such as English. He uses as an example the many native-English speakers who grew up speaking an additional language at home, whose loyalty may be partly or wholly to their home language, though this loyalty does not necessarily reflect a lack of expertise in English. Cook also rightly emphasizes that the traditional definition of the NS says little to nothing about native speakers’ expertise in the written (as opposed to spoken) language and does not elaborate on the fact that NSs’ claimed expertise in the language is implicit, rather than explicit. Finally, Cook argues that this traditional view of the NS does not imply a range of vocabulary, styles, or registers appropriate to different contexts.

Finally, Kirkpatrick (2007) contends, through several thought-provoking examples, that “it is clearly not necessarily true that the language a person learns first is

the one they will always be best at” (p. 8). He frames the issue thus: “In the contexts of World Englishes, the real problem is caused by many people believing that native speakers are necessarily better at speaking English than non-native speakers, and that native speakers are necessarily better at teaching English than non-native speakers [i.e., the NS myth]” (Kirkpatrick, 2007, p. 8)

The above arguments against the traditional definition of NSs (Davies, 1991), being produced and supported by researchers and research in applied linguistics, were pivotal in helping the study participants to rethink not only how they conceptualize NSs and NNSs, but more importantly, to challenge this very dichotomy. Cook’s (2003) and Kirkpatrick’s (2007) use of examples that defy a clear-cut distinction between these two categories were especially helpful in challenging the participants’ thinking regarding these labels (see Chapters 4, 5, and 6). In addition, it was critical that participants understand that a NS, by virtue of being a NS, does not have a scientifically-based understanding of either the language to be taught, of the best pedagogical practices through which to teach it, or of the culture(s) with which it is associated.

#### ***2.4.3.2 The NS myth.***

As alluded to previously, the NS myth (Phillipson, 1992) is the false assumption that NSs of English are inherently better speakers of the language and thus make for better teachers as well. However, as pointed out by Phillipson (1992) and many others, the NS myth is based on simplistic and inaccurate conceptualizations of NSs.

Canagarajah (1999), for example, discussed the linguistic, economical, political, and

ideological motivations that underlie this myth and why it has been so pervasive in applied linguistics. In broad strokes, he argues that while “the Chomskyan notion that the native speaker is the authority on the language and that he or she is the ideal informant provides an understandable advantage to the native speaker in grammaticality judgments” (p. 78), “Chomsky’s native speaker of a homogeneous speech community is an idealized construction” (p. 79).

#### ***2.4.3.3 Multicompetence and the L2 User.***

The notion of multicompetence has been defined by Cook (2005) as “the knowledge of two or more languages in one mind”, thus “treat[ing] the mind of the L2 user as a whole rather than as having separate L1 and interlanguage components” (p. 48).

Based on this notion, Cook offered the following characteristics of the L2 user:

- 1) The L2 user’s knowledge of the second language is typically not identical to that of a native speaker
- 2) The L2 user has other uses for language than the monolingual
- 3) The L2 user’s knowledge of their first language is in some respects not the same as that of a monolingual
- 4) L2 users have different mind from monolinguals (p. 53)

In light of these characteristics, Cook (2005) proposes that “L2 users are as diverse as the rest of humanity. Their needs and uses of language are as wide as monolinguals, if not wider” (p. 47). The point of Cook’s proposal of the term L2 user is that “L2 users are (...) unique users of language in their own right, not imitations of

native speakers” (p. 50). This conceptualization of English language learners as L2 users, rather than as perpetual L2 learners necessarily, can be an empowering subjectivity for both NNESTs and their students (see Chapters 4, 5, and 6).

#### ***2.4.3.4 Native vs. Nativised Varieties of English.***

In a discussion of World Englishes, Kirkpatrick (2007) argues that the distinction between native and nativised varieties of English may be more related to power and prejudice than to actual linguistically-founded reasons. One of his main arguments, in fact, is that no variety of English, whether spoken by inner- or outer-circle countries (Kachru, 1986), is inherently superior or inferior to other varieties. In his view,

If it is difficult to find rational criteria for classifying varieties of English as native; it is easier to classify them as nativised. (...) the difference between varieties of English can be explained by the fact that they are all nativised. By a nativised variety I therefore mean a variety that has been influenced by the local cultures and languages of the people who have developed the particular variety. (...) A nativised, acculturated or indigenized variety of English is thus one that has been influenced by the local cultures in which it has developed. By this definition all varieties of English that are spoken by an identifiable speech community are nativised. Thus, varieties of British English are as nativised as varieties of Philippino English” (Kirkpatrick, 2007, p. 7).

This view highlights the plurality of English varieties spoken around the world and can offer a positive, empowering subjectivity to NNESTs (whose majority are from outer-circle countries).

### 2.4.3.5 *Cultural competence versus cultural performance.*

Another concept relevant to this study and to its participants is the notion of culture and how it relates to language teaching. The notion of what constitutes culture is notoriously unclear, complex, and difficult to grasp and define. For the purposes of this investigation, culture is defined as

difference, variability, and always a potential source of conflict when one culture enters into contact with another. (...) It is always in the background, right from day one, ready to unsettle the good language learners when they expect it least, making evident the limitations of their hard won communicative competence, challenging their ability to make sense of the world around them (Kramsch, 1993, p. 1).

For some of the participants (see Chapters 4 and 5), a key question arose around whether *experiencing* a given culture is a pre-requisite to being able to teach *about* that culture<sup>3</sup>. Thus, it is relevant here to make a distinction between cultural competence (i.e., “knowledge about the culture”) and cultural performance (i.e., “experience of the culture”) (Kramsch, 1993, p. 181). An everyday conceptualization of culture fails to make a distinction between competence and performance. For NNESTs, as English language teachers, knowledge about the culture(s) associated with the English is essential in teaching it as a meaningful, socially-constructed and contextually-dependent language. But many, if not most NNESTs may never have the opportunity to experience first-hand the culture of any given English-speaking culture (e.g., British, American, Singaporean, etc.). In Chapter 4, I explore how an everyday conceptualization of culture impacted the participant’s (Karina) perception of herself as a NNEST and her pedagogical practice.

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<sup>3</sup> This very question was not fully understood by the participants (see Chapter 4).

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1 Research Questions**

The research questions that motivated and guided this study are as follows:

1. How does a focus on NNEST-related issues (implemented through readings, online discussions, and a dialogic blog) support NNESTs' attempts to explore, conceive of, articulate, and internalize identities with which to (re)position themselves as legitimate English teaching professionals?

2. To what extent does the exploring, conceiving of, articulating, and internalizing of legitimating subjectivities done by NNESTs influence the nature of their instructional practices?

3. To what extent does engagement with an instructional curriculum addressing NNEST issues influence the way in which ESL students think about themselves as NNS (particularly in relation to the native speaker ideology)?

#### **3.2 Methodology**

The data were collected at a large northeastern university in the U.S. and involved six instructors and their students, the ESL program director (and TA supervisor), and myself as the researcher. Three of the instructors were MA students in TESL, one was an MA TESL graduate, and two others were PhD students in Applied Linguistics. The

course taught by the participating teachers was a required ESL freshman-level composition course for international undergraduate students offered by the ESL Writing Program at this university. The primary goal of this study was to design and implement professional development opportunities for NNESTs and to examine how they create conditions for the development of alternative, more empowering identities and the instantiation of well-informed instructional practices (which in turn may foster the development of empowering identities in L2 student writers). Thus, in consort with this primary goal, a secondary goal was to create and implement an instructional, curricular unit aimed at empowering L2 students to develop a critical stance regarding their learning and using of English as an additional language.

In the semesters prior to this study, the ESL writing course curriculum consisted of three main units. The first unit involved asking students to explore the pros and cons of Wal-Mart and to argue either in favor or against it based on their research, thus culminating in an academic position paper. The topic of the second unit was language standardization, in which students could choose a language-related topic (e.g., *Spanglish*) and, based on their research of the topic, write an academic paper. The third unit, finally, was meant as an opportunity for students to improve on their final papers from either of the two previous units. During the fall semester of 2008, however, and in large part due to the carrying out of this study, the curriculum of the ESL writing course was modified to accommodate the NS/NNS dichotomy and the NS myth. It should be pointed out, nonetheless, that although this new curriculum was offered to all of the instructors teaching the ESL writing course in the semester this study was conducted, individual teachers were free to adapt, change, or altogether abandon the NS/NNS unit so long as

they met with the ESL program supervisor and obtained her approval of an alternative curriculum and/or unit(s). The relevance of this fact for the present study is that some instructors indeed chose to abandon the unit altogether and replace it with whatever else they found appropriate. In other words, although I, as the researcher, had a particular agenda to follow, the participants (both teachers and students) had other goals and commitments which at times took priority over this study's goals.

For example, early on in one of the weekly meetings, a couple of the participating instructors brought up the concern that their students were not responding as actively to the NS/NNS unit as we (the ESL supervisor and myself) had anticipated. Although some of the possible reasons for this were brought up during this meeting, one of the participating instructors chose to abandon the NS/NNS unit and, instead, to have students write a paper based on a selected film. It is possible that students' reaction to the topic had something to do with the fact that studying about themselves (as NNSs) pointed to how they were different from the mainstream college students in their other courses -- moreover, at a time in life when most college-aged students, American or otherwise, are attempting to integrate themselves into their classmates' culture and overall college culture. In fact, when seeing these students in person while obtaining research consent forms, most of them looked very much like the majority of students on campus (i.e., fashionable jeans, shirts, backpacks, tennis shoes, etc.). This could indeed be an indication that, as first-semester international students, they were looking more to integrate than to focus on difference (i.e., their multicultural and multilingual backgrounds).

A related issue is that at least half of the participating teachers were novice teachers who either had never taught a class on their own prior to the study or who had little practical, professional experience as ESL instructors. Therefore, it is likely that, as novice teachers, they were overwhelmed by the admittedly daunting tasks at hand: to teach on their own, to learn about the topic of the NS/NNS unit (which to most of them, except for Lee – see Chapter 5 – was a completely new realm of research and knowledge), to learn how to teach their classes based on this topic while concurrently (and more importantly) meeting the course’s instructional goals and objectives, and to face all the other challenges that beginning teachers face. In addition, the topic and contents of the NS/NNS unit were by no means straightforward to explain, nor were they easy to approach and discuss in class. Learning about the NS/NNS dichotomy and the NS myth often challenged the participants’ sense of self and their beliefs about English, about who gets to teach it, about what it means to speak English well, and about what ‘standards’ should apply to their own teaching. In this light, the teachers themselves may have been understandably reluctant to deal with these topics, as it meant moving out of one’s comfort zone and challenging deep-seated beliefs.

In addition, although data were collected from six teachers, three of the teachers self-identified as NNSs and three as NSs. These three NESTs were invited to participate in the study because they were seen as having an important role to play in helping NNESTs challenge and erode the NS myth. Thus, although NNESTs and their emerging professional identities are the focus of this study, the opportunity to interact with NESTs was thought to enable them (NNESTs) to start challenging their beliefs and assumptions by seeing NESTs for who they are, rather than as idealized, error-free, accentless, and all-

knowing NSs. In other words, part of the PD experiences was for NNESTs to interact with NESTs through the online discussions. In addition, I collected data from both NESTs and NNESTs so that the intervention would be as naturalistic as possible. Choosing to include only NNESTs in the discussion activities would have singled them out as a group and prevented other teachers (NESTs) from taking advantage of a PD experience designed for teachers teaching the same course and curriculum. In their professional lives, NESTs and NNESTs alike are likely to attempt to assert their professional legitimacy in mixed group interactions, rather than within isolated groups.

However, even well-designed studies are embedded in the contexts in which they take place and thus are susceptible to the consequences of unanticipated events. In this light, given the qualitative nature of this investigation and its relatively high demands on the participants with data being collected in the midst of the teachers' and students' busy realities, not all went as planned. Thus, out of the three NNESTs who chose to participate, only two (Karina and Lee<sup>4</sup>) were able to fully engage in all of the PD activities (i.e., reading the assigned texts, keeping a dialogic blog with the researcher, and participating in the online discussions). The third NNEST (Gorman), despite having initially agreed to participate in the study, became exceptionally busy from early on in the semester and was not able to keep a blog or to actively participate in the group discussions. While the data collected from her and her classroom (i.e., interviews, stimulated recalls, and classroom observations) might have been enlightening as well, the fact that she did not participate fully in the PD experiences being reported here made

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<sup>4</sup> Pseudonyms chosen by participants

attempting to draw conclusions on their impact on her professional development a rather precarious effort at best. Therefore, only the data from the two NNESTs for whom I had complete data sets were analyzed. Their students' work and participation in the study were also analyzed (see description of student participants below). Although it is unfortunate that not all participants fully engaged in the PD experiences made possible by this study, it is a reality of qualitative research that the unexpected happens.

### **3.3 Participants**

#### **3.3.1 Karina**

Karina is a Russian female in her mid to late twenties. I first met her in early fall 2008, when she was starting her first year as a PhD student in Applied Linguistics. Prior to arriving in the US at the age of 22 to pursue a master's degree (also in Applied Linguistics), Karina had lived in Russia and completed a bachelor's degree in philology there with a focus on teaching English and Russian. At the time of data collection, Karina reported having worked for 7 years as an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and ESL teacher. As a doctoral student in Applied Linguistics and as a teaching assistant for her department, Karina spoke and used English fluently and appropriately in both departmental meetings and social functions. She would most likely be considered a 'superior' user of English in all four skills. Her pronunciation of English (i.e., individual sounds, rhythm, stress, and intonation) is highly intelligible and rarely a source of any

confusion or misunderstanding. She obtained the Certificate of Proficiency in English (A score) and 280 points on the computer-based TOEFL test.

### **3.3.2 Lee**

Lee and I met in early August of 2005. As incoming doctoral students in the same department and program, we took a few courses together, interacted often, relied on each other for collegial support, shared personal and professional interests, and ‘bonded’ over the challenges of getting through graduate school as international students. An extremely intelligent, witty, and resourceful S. Korean male in his late thirties, Lee obtained most of his formal education in Seoul. His first language is Korean and he also speaks English, Japanese, German, and French to varying degrees of proficiency. Prior to coming to the US to start his doctoral work in Applied Linguistics, Lee taught in private and public high schools, a private language institute, and “prep schools” in S. Korea. In addition, before choosing to participate in this study, Lee had been teaching freshman-level ESL writing courses for three years at his university. It is also important to note here that Lee, under the TA supervisor’s guidance, was charged with the task of creating the lesson plans for the NS/NNS unit used in this study.

### **3.3.3 Students**

Given that Karina and Lee were the only teachers whose data sets were complete, the only students whose data were analyzed were theirs. These students were from

countries as varied as Hong Kong, Malaysia, China, S. Korea, Indonesia, Japan, India, Sri Lanka, Oman, and Costa Rica. Although within each class section all students were asked to complete the same assignments as their peers, regardless of whether or not they chose to participate in the study, only the written assignments and in-class contributions of participating students were collected (or recorded) and analyzed. In addition, three students from each section (Karina's and Lee's) were chosen as focal participants. The selection of these focal students was based on two main factors: 1) input from the instructors' perceptions regarding which of their students they believed were most likely to complete all course assignments; and 2) my own impressions of students (after having met them while obtaining their consent to participate in this research study) regarding their interest in the topic of the study. For these focal students, audio recordings were made of their individual conferences with their respective instructors during office hours. These recordings were analyzed but contained no useful data for answering the research questions.

#### **3.3.4 TA Supervisor**

The TA supervisor is an expert L2 teacher educator. She had been working as the ESL and ITA program director for many years and worked closely with the TAs from both programs on any issues relevant to their teaching, as well as with doctoral candidates conducting research in either of these programs. As such, her role in the planning and execution of this study is noteworthy, as she provided unwavering support from inception to implementation of the curricular unit (described below) used in this

study. Once a week, the TA supervisor met with all of the TAs under her supervision to both stay abreast of how course goals and objectives were being met and to provide guidance and support regarding any teaching issues that TAs were struggling with or had questions about. Field notes were gathered at these weekly meetings.

### **3.3.5 Researcher**

Given that my motivations for conducting this research and for attempting to contribute to the so-called ‘NNEST movement’ (see Braine, 2010 and Mahboob, 2010) spun out of my own personal and professional experiences, I believe it appropriate to briefly discuss my background here. I was born and raised in the Brazilian southeast until I was 22 years old. I started learning EFL at 13 and enrolled in a private English school at 15. After starting as a ‘Portuguese/English Letters & Literature’ major in college in Brazil, I obtained a scholarship to complete a Bachelor’s degree in TESOL at an American university, which I did. I then went on to obtain a Master’s degree in Educational Technology and a K-12 teaching license in ESL. Upon graduation, I went to Colorado for a year to work as an “English Language Development” middle-school teacher for at-risk youth in the public school setting. Given my status as an international student, however, I was not able to renew my contract with the school despite both parties’ efforts. Faced with this unforeseen difficulty, my spouse (an American male then in his late twenties) and I decided to move to Brazil and obtain employment there as EFL teachers. Once there, we both applied to several English teaching schools. Despite my experiences and qualifications as an EFL/ESL teacher, and despite his having no formal

preparation as a (language) teacher, he was offered a job teaching conversation classes and I was turned down for being a non-native speaker. The school owner, an American man, explained that insofar as marketing was concerned, hiring NSs was his best option. Despite frustrating my professional expectations, this experience brought to the forefront an issue that I had always thought about, but rarely verbalized or fully comprehended. Seeing that my chances for professional growth in this context were seriously dwarfed (in large part by the NS myth), I decided to look for alternatives. Embarking on a doctoral program in Applied Linguistics became the easiest route.

As a doctoral student and as a teaching assistant of prospective international teaching assistants, I was again faced with the issue, even if only psychological, of whether my (international) students were at best surprised and, at worst, disappointed for having a ‘non-native teacher’. I also started to wonder how they (students) would struggle for professional legitimacy as NNSs of English teaching highly complex academic subjects to mostly American college freshmen. In addition, through my many interactions with colleagues (for many of whom English is an additional language), instructors, and dissertation committee members, I came to realize that a teacher’s sense of professional legitimacy is intricately connected to their beliefs and to their instructional practices. This dissertation provided me with the invaluable opportunity to explore this topic further and, in doing so, to attempt to help other NNESTs along the way and in the future.

### 3.4 Data Collection Procedures and Tools

Several data collection instruments were utilized in this study: a) an online, asynchronous discussion board, moderated by me, through which the participating teachers discussed previously-assigned readings on the NS/NNS dichotomy and the NS myth; b) a dialogic journal (i.e., private, ongoing asynchronous online exchanges via a blog between each instructor and myself) focused on the teacher's professional identity; c) semi-structured interviews focusing on the participant's background, professional identity, and attitudes about language learning and teaching, the NS/NNS dichotomy, and the NS myth; d) videotaped classroom sessions; e) stimulated recall sessions; f) as possible, copies of the students' writing assignments as well as the feedback from the instructor on these writing assignments; g) audio recordings of individual meetings between the instructor and a few of the students to go over writing assignments; h) and field notes taken at the participants' weekly meetings with the TA supervisor. The weekly supervision meetings (between the instructors, the course supervisor, and the researcher) were in place to provide instructors with pedagogical support and professional development opportunities regarding the courses they were assigned to teach.

The first two activities listed above (i.e., online discussion board and dialogic blog) comprise the main mediational tools used in this study as PD activities. They were intended as opportunities for professional and personal growth, giving participants a chance to articulate their opinions and beliefs in regards to teaching ESL and to deepen their awareness of their professional legitimacy as NNESTs in the backdrop of the

NS/NNS dichotomy and the NS myth. My role in the study oscillated between that of peer and expert other, providing strategic mediation whenever possible.

Strategic mediation (Wertsch, 1985; Verity, 2005) can be described as the type of instructional assistance that helps learners to move beyond their current thinking by orienting the learner to the concept to be learned, moving from implicit to explicit instruction, being responsive to the learner's immediate needs, focusing on cognitive development rather than performance, and supporting learners in thinking *in* and *through* a new concept by reducing their cognitive load (i.e., scaffolding). As argued by Verity (2005), strategic mediation

helps the learner approach expert-level, or automatic, proficiency. Crucially, it is the right help at the right time (Verity, 1995). (...) [S]uccessful strategic mediation depends first upon successful orientation of the learner towards the task at hand. The initial aim of such mediation is not to 'transmit' the expert's knowledge but to provide a starting place for the learner to begin to engage with the task and, ultimately, begin to appropriate the expert's knowledge. Expertise involves having a wide, and complexly structured, body of knowledge, procedural skill, judgments, and so forth, which in normal functioning are drawn upon automatically. (Verity, 2005, p. 4)

Thus, I attempted to strategically mediate (Wertsch, 1985; Verity, 2005) the participants' thinking by reading and reacting to their blogs and online discussion posts, asking probing questions during the interviews, requesting clarification during the stimulated recalls, and providing my own insights and expertise whenever appropriate. I attempted to push them to move beyond their current thinking and understanding of themselves as ESL teachers. Much of this opportunity to mediate participants' thinking was afforded by the readings they were asked to do. These readings focused on NNESTs' professional concerns and included the following articles (*see* References for full

citations): Braine, G. (2004); Canagarajah, S. (1999); Faymonville, C. (2000); and Maum, R. (2002).

In addition, for the purposes of this study, one of the curricular units of the ESL freshman composition course was modified to accommodate the NS/NNS topic (e.g., the various, at times competing definitions of ‘native speaker’, Cook’s, 1999, notion of multicompetence, etc.). Consisting of 12 instructional days (75 minutes per lesson/day), the formal objectives of this unit were for students to be able to “1) identify genre(s) in their everyday life; and 2) understand dimensions of genre analysis including content, context, rhetorical features and linguistic features” (for a copy of the unit, please see Appendix A<sup>5</sup>). As part of the unit, both the instructors and the students worked with the following texts (*see* References for full citations): Avis, T. (no date); Cook, G. (2003); Cook, V. (2005); Kirkpatrick, A. (2007); Matsuda, P. (2003); and Ringbom, H. (2001). These readings were meant to orient both teachers and students to the NS/NNS dichotomy and NS myth. The unit called for a written response to five questions on the labels “native speaker” and “non-native speaker” (based on Cook, 2003 and Kirkpatrick, 2007; *see* Appendix A, Day 4, Activity 3); a “comparative summary” of Cook (2005, p. 47-50) and Matsuda (2003) (*see* Appendix A, Day 6); and a self-annotated Academic Reaction Paper (ARP) based on Cook’s (2005) article and the notion of ‘multicompetence’ (*see* Appendix A, Day 10). In addition, the unit called for in-class discussions of Ringbom (2001), Matsuda (2003), and Cook (2005).

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<sup>5</sup> The instructional unit used in conjunction with this study is included in Appendix A in its entirety for two main reasons. First, it is meant to give readers a broader perspective on how the main topic of the unit (i.e., the NS/NNS dichotomy and the NS myth) worked in conjunction with the unit’s instructional goals. Secondly, readers interested in designing and implementing a similar unit may benefit from this example.

Here, it is important to note two methodological issues that significantly affected the data collection process. First, although all instructors were provided with the same curricular unit as a starting point, they were encouraged by their supervisor to adapt it to suit their own instructional objectives, students' needs, and personal teaching styles (which they understandably did). Therefore, students from the two different sections discussed in this dissertation were not asked to complete exactly the same types or even number of assignments. Furthermore, due to the relatively large number of teachers and students taking part in the study, I attempted to streamline the data collection process in order to make it manageable. This translated into my asking each of the participating teachers to both collect their students' writing assignments and to record their individual meetings with their focal students (each instructor was provided with a digital audio recorder for the entire semester). Despite all parties' best intentions, however, these data collection steps were often not possible due to the short turn-around time between grading and returning multiple drafts and to teachers' already very busy schedules, not to mention the occasional technology-related glitch.

These methodological shortcomings certainly affected how much and what types of student data were collected and, therefore, analyzed. Thus, for Karina's class, the only data collected from all participating students were their responses to the questions in Activity 3 (see Appendix A, Day 4), whereas for Lee's class, the only data collected from all participating students were their summaries (*précis*) of Cook (2005). However, for both Karina's focal students (3) and Lee's focal students (3), every effort was made to collect all of the written assignments they produced during the NS/NNS instructional unit, including the self-annotated ARP.

From my standpoint as a researcher, my overarching goal for this instructional unit was to ‘empower’ both the participating instructors and the students to (re)gain a sense of professional and linguistic legitimacy, as well as individual and group agency, in face of dominant ideologies and disempowering discourses such as the NS myth. My objectives for the unit were that participants (both teachers and students) would:

- read, reflect on, and discuss scholarly texts on the NS/NNS dichotomy and NS myth;
- reflect on and potentially challenge their own assumptions on the topics above;
- become aware of and explore their positionings and subjectivities (i.e., how they are positioned by others and how they choose to position themselves) in regards to their legitimacy as NNESTs and international students;
- potentially attempt to negotiate subjectivities as rightful teachers, learners, and users of English in their immediate professional and educational contexts.

### 3.5 Data Analysis

The written data (*i.e.*, online discussions, dialogic blog, students’ written products, teacher’s written feedback, and field notes<sup>6</sup>) were first compiled into data sets and then formatted for ease of analysis. The spoken data (*i.e.*, interviews, classroom

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<sup>6</sup> Although attending (and taking field notes during) the weekly supervision meetings informed my role as a researcher and allowed me to gain a better understanding of the full scope of teachers’ activities throughout the semester, the field notes themselves did not provide any evidence as to the weekly meetings’ role in mediating either teachers’ or students’ identity development.

observations, stimulated recalls, and teacher-student conferences) were transcribed using basic transcription conventions adapted from Richards (2003).

Each dataset was read thoroughly and analyzed based on the principles of ethnographic semantics in which the meanings that people give to their verbal expressions are the primary focus of investigation (Spradley, 1979; Spradley & McCurdy, 1972). The constant comparative method was used to develop an understanding of the data (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998; Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Goetz & LeCompte, 1981). This method of grounded content analysis involved deriving and categorizing major themes that emerged from the interviews, classroom observations, stimulated recalls, and teacher-student conferences. The analytic process involved multiple readings of the data to identify linguistic instantiations of reoccurring themes that addressed the study's central research questions. Emerging themes were coded throughout the interactive process of data reduction, verification and further data analysis (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The final themes that emerged reflect evidence of the participants' emerging understanding of: a) the NS/NNS dichotomy, b) the NS myth, c) their self-concept and identity(-ies), d) their self-confidence as ESL teachers, e) their perceived English skills/expertise, and f) their perceptions of (critical) pedagogy. Based on these analytical categories, the data were re-examined to identify evidence of self-reported shifts in the teachers' identities in regards to being a NNEST.

In addition, in a conscious effort to triangulate the analysis (Pavlenko, 2007), the data were examined to account for the instructors' narrative understanding of their subjectivities (in relation to themselves and to others) and how such understandings played a role in the development of their thinking and in their instructional practices.

More specifically, Bucholtz & Hall's (2005) *indexicality principle* was used in order to identify how the participants constructed and positioned themselves, as well as how they (re)negotiated these identities and positionings. Regarding identity formation, "indexicality relies heavily on ideological structures, for associations between language and identity are rooted in cultural beliefs and values – that is, ideologies – about the sorts of speakers who (can or should) produce particular sorts of language" (p. 594).

Specifically, the indexicality principle posits that

"identity relations emerge in interaction through several related indexical processes, including: (a) overt mention of identity categories and labels; (b) implicatures and presuppositions regarding one's own or others' identity position; (c) displayed evaluative and epistemic orientations to ongoing talk, as well as interactional footings and participant roles; and (d) the use of linguistic structures and systems that are ideologically associated with specific personas and groups" (Bucholtz & Hall, 2005, p. 594).

In several of the excerpts that follow, these linguistic instantiations of how the participants perceived, positioned, and otherwise understood themselves (especially in regards to overt identity categories and labels) are underlined in the data.

Finally, to the extent allowed by the data collected, the participating teachers' instructional practices were examined to identify how their participation in the PD experiences appeared to shift or alter the focus of the instructional tasks they assigned, how these were implemented and why, and how the students responded to and participated in those tasks; and on the feedback provided by the instructors on students' written products. However, I must note that although classroom data were gathered through classroom observations, little of this data shows concrete evidence of obvious shifts or alterations in teachers' activities *in* the classroom. In one sense, this is not

surprising, given the short timeframe within which the participating teachers were engaged in the PD activities embedded in this study. However, what is striking was multiple instances of self-report data (primarily in the interviews, on-line blogs) in which participating teachers described how they were beginning to (re)-imagine how they might carry out certain instructional practices in the future based on their newly emerging understanding of the NS/NNS dichotomy and the ‘native-speaker myth’.

The students’ data (both written products and oral participation in class sessions) were analyzed to trace how the instructional activities they were asked to engage in created opportunities for them to reconceptualize the NS/NNS dichotomy and the ‘native-speaker myth’ and begin to reposition themselves as English speakers and users. Therefore, these data were also read thoroughly and analyzed based on the principles of ethnographic semantics (Spradley, 1979; Spradley & McCurdy, 1972) and the constant comparative method (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998; Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Goetz & LeCompte, 1981). The data were then analyzed to account for the students’ narrative understanding of their subjectivities and how such understandings were reflected in their written and spoken discourse. This was again done by identifying in these data the mechanism for identity construction and negotiation as laid out by Bucholtz & Hall’s (2005) *indexicality principle*. As with the teacher data, student participants’ linguistic instantiations of how they perceived, positioned, and otherwise understood themselves are underlined in the data.

## **CHAPTER 4**

### **KARINA: VERBALIZATION AND COMMITMENT TO ACTION**

Karina's response to the topics and interactions brought about by the professional development experiences reported here was filled with ups and downs, false starts, and growing pains. Her participation in these experiences destabilized her beliefs about the NS myth and helped her to uncover some of the hidden ideologies that continue to propel it. Rather than plainly replacing expertise, confidence, and agency for haunting feelings of professional insecurity and illegitimacy, Karina struggled (and still does) with a much messier process of making sense of herself as a bilingual ESL teacher; a process of gaining control over her professional development and instructional practices. Below, I expose the twisting paths Karina has taken, showing how her prior beliefs have been challenged, her identity destabilized, and how she started to conceive of herself, of her students, and of the English teaching profession in more empowering ways.

#### **4.1 Awareness of and Experiences with the NS Myth**

Karina had been aware (and in fact, a victim) of the prejudice against NNESTs even before she became a participant in this study, although she would not necessarily have been able to clearly articulate it or its relationship to her teaching. During our first interview, she stated that NESTs in Russia were routinely paid higher salaries and enjoyed more prestige than NNESTs like herself. She also recalled the experience of

being ridiculed by her colleagues in Russia, who asked her “how can you teach English in the country where English is their first language? if you’re not a native speaker?” (Interview 1, 9/5). Then, after arriving in the US, her awareness of the NS myth was heightened when she applied for an ESL teaching position at a very recognizable English school in New York City and was not only turned down as a NNS, but ridiculed and told that “they do not hire non-native speakers for ESL” (Interview 1, 9/5). According to the *indexicality principle* (Bucholtz & Hall, 2005), the overt mention of the labels ‘not a native speaker’ and ‘non-native speakers’ is itself evidence of how Karina perceived herself (and reported being perceived by others) at the first interview. In addition, the reported speech of her colleagues in Russia reflects an evaluative orientation to her status as a NNEST which implies that her very professional existence (i.e., subjectivity) is at best highly questionable.

Likely due to her firsthand experiences with the NS myth in both Russia and in the US, and already in our first interview, Karina showed some awareness of the ideology surrounding discussions on accent, stating that “there is this conception of correct English, proper English, and like, accented English, right? so, like proper English, non-accent has more prestige, right? it’s kind of authentic” (Interview 1, 9/5). She also already knew that there are “physiological [...] limitations” and that her accent “is also part of my identity” and a kind of “self-expression” (Interview 1, 9/5). Clearly she had been exposed to the ideologically-laden notions of ‘correctness’ and ‘proper English’. When I asked her about her knowledge of grammar and its metalanguage, she questioned whether “we can talk about correct English anymore” (Interview 1, 9/5).

## 4.2 Internalized Prejudice and Feelings of Professional Insecurity

Although Karina did point out what she believed to be both the pros and cons of being a NNEST, she tended to dwell on her perceived deficiencies, especially in the first half of the study. Likely due to being exposed to the NS myth from an early age and to being discriminated against as a NNEST, Karina had come to internalize the very prejudice and oppression that the study set out to challenge. She considered herself inferior to NSs of English in many ways and expressed that NESTs are, almost invariably, better at teaching the target language and culture in “authentic” (Interview 1, 9/5) ways. This is not surprising, given the strong discourse around the NS superiority and the NS myth. For example, in reference to her experience being turned down for a job in New York City, she stated:

they explained that [...] non-native speaker cannot really convey the culture and all this sociocultural like, aspect of, and like, I partly agree with them, right?, there’s something like truth about that but at the same time it makes me a little less confident [...] (Interview 1, 9/5)

In this excerpt, Karina’s statement that she “partly agree[s] with them” suggests that, at least to a certain extent, she has bought into the NS myth despite how it makes her feel (“a little less confident”). By seeing some “truth” in her interviewer’s argument, Karina suggests, by implicature (Bucholtz & Hall, 2005) that indeed she lacks as a NNEST, as she “cannot really convey the culture”.

Given how she positions herself as inferior to NSs, it is not surprising therefore, that she also reported feeling self-conscious, while teaching, of her perceived lack of appropriate English proficiency and knowledge of American culture. This understanding of herself as lacking professionally is linked to her wavering confidence level and

feelings of professional insecurity and low self-esteem. For example, Karina expressed that while teaching ESL she avoided positioning herself as a NNEST because “if they [students] kn[e]w that I’m non-native speaker maybe it w[ould] somehow like, affect their [students’], like, perception of me” (Interview 1, 9/5). Karina feared that the label “non-native speaker”, when indexing her professional subjectivity, could negatively affect how her students perceived her. Similarly, she once stated that “I’m doing them a disservice with my accented English, not so fluent oral English, etc.” (Blog, 11/2). According to the *indexicality principle* (Bucholtz & Hall, 2005), Karina seems to refer to a linguistic system (“accented English”) which is ideologically associated with specific groups (e.g., immigrants) whose knowledge and use of English are seen as inferior to NSs.

Throughout the study, Karina dwelled on her perceived lack of “cultural knowledge” (which she defined as linguistic and social behaviors) of American life. Indeed, the connection between language and culture posed a very difficult challenge for Karina (Interview 2, 12/17). Her beliefs that it was difficult for a young adult like herself to be socialized into a new culture; that language and culture are inseparable (Agar, 1994); that her ESL students wanted to learn US culture, yet perceived her as lacking in this area and would prefer a NEST; along with her strong emotional ties to her Russian language and culture, created a contradiction that destabilized her thinking and her emotions. On one hand, she felt she lacked the type of knowledge that her students expected of her. But on the other hand, she believed that learning this type of knowledge would entail becoming more “integrated” (Online Discussion, 12/12) into the American culture and thus less “Russian” (Interview 2, 12/17). For her, becoming the kind of ESL

teacher who would be able to gain her students' trust and acceptance could potentially strip her of her identity as a Russian ESL teacher:

I still think that my lack of acquaintance (*sic*) with US culture could be a drawback to me as an ESL instructor. At the same time, I don't want to get myself any more integrated into the US culture. (Online Discussion, 12/12)

Davi: to what extent do you believe that learning these things [American culture] [...] mean[s] that you would be losing or letting go of your own Russian cultural background and identity?

Karina: [...] I (always) feel like I lose something. [...] I don't want to let uh yeah to like become a new person like I (have my) background and my history (Interview 2, 12/17)

Thus, although Karina perceives her “lack of acquaintance with US culture” as a “drawback”, she asserts, through implicature (Bucholtz & Hall, 2005), that attaining professional legitimacy as an “ESL instructor” may entail “becom[ing] a new person” and “los[ing] something”. Karina’s lack of a firm understanding of the differences between cultural competence and cultural performance (see Chapter 2), as well as of the role played by culture in the teaching and learning of English, contributed to her feelings of inferiority as an ESL instructor in the U.S. Although this contradiction remained unresolved at the end of the study, participation in the professional development experiences throughout the study provided Karina with emotional support and validation. As a gap between cognition and emotions is often the impetus for change, it was imperative that Karina’s feelings be taken into account, especially as an opportunity to foster transformation.

### **4.3 Tracing Shifts in Emotions, Cognition, and Activity**

Through various mediational means (e.g., scientific concepts, conversations with the researcher, interactions with her peers, and the very activity of teaching about the NS/NNS dichotomy and the NS myth), Karina was able to start moving from external mediation to regulating her emotions, thinking, and actions. Initially, she began to move from an everyday, simplistic conceptualization of the NS to a much more complex picture informed by scientific concepts about the topic and brought about by the professional development experiences reported here. Through mediational tools and spaces, Karina was able to not only externalize her current understandings of everyday concepts (i.e., the NS myth), but also (through theoretical constructs) to reconceptualize and recontextualize her understanding of herself in order to think and act in more empowering ways. As argued by Johnson (2009), teachers' understanding "emerges out of a dialogic transformative process of reconsidering and reorganizing lived experiences through the theoretical constructs and discourses that are publicly recognized and valued within their professional discourse community" (p. 98). Although this process has no end point per se, Karina began to reorient her thinking regarding her positioning as a NNEST and how her teaching aligned (or not) with her cognition.

#### **4.3.1 Verbalizing Personal and Professional Subjectivities.**

Participation in the professional development experiences made it possible for Karina to explore her personal and professional subjectivities, the usefulness, appropriateness, and relevance of the terms NS and NNS for understanding one's

identity, and ideological assumptions behind the NS/NNS dichotomy. In one of the online group discussions around Canagarajah (1999), she stated:

In the end, I feel grateful for people who decided to take up the issue of NNS teachers in ESL. Before reading these things, I was often asking myself: What is my status in ELT? Do my students see me as some kind of an imposter? [...] However, I wonder if we can totally get rid of the terms NS and NNS. I think these terms are helpful in questions of identity. Sometimes saying that I am a NNS helps to somehow create some bondage with my students. I had similar experiences with them, I also am not from here, I know their struggles with the language, etc. (Online Discussions, 10/25)

While she positions herself as an imposter in the ELT community, in one of our stimulated recall sessions, Karina expressed how she found it ‘interesting’ that ‘people can actually *talk about*’ the NS myth:

I felt that it was like really interesting that people can actually *talk about* this because I felt like it was like a taboo topic or something yeah so I never read about this kind of thing before (Stimulated Recall 2, 09/25, italics mine)

The very opportunity to verbalize (Gal’perin, 1967) her thinking regarding the NS myth made her assumptions known to her and to others and thus amenable to discursive mediational processes that can “promote reorganization, refinement, and reconceptualization” of new understandings (Johnson, 2009, p. 63). Thus, Karina’s interactions with myself and with her peers helped her to articulate (and rearticulate) her thinking and make it explicit, thus encouraging a process of restructuring of this knowledge into deeper (i.e., scientific) concepts. As argued by Johnson (2009), “scientific concepts provide both a discourse through which to name experiences and a basis upon which teachers are able to ground their internal rationale for alternative ways of understanding themselves and the activities of teaching” (p. 39).

For example, through the blog, Karina and I were able to engage dialogically and collaboratively to start to reorient her thinking. In the excerpt below, this strategic mediation (Wertsch, 1985) enabled Karina and me to wrestle with some key assumptions behind the NS myth:

Davi (8/31):

How do you feel about being a non-native-speaking ESL teacher?

Karina (8/31):

Native / non-native speaker - teacher dilemma is a hard one for me [...]. I do think that my background as an EFL learner helps me a lot [...], but at the same time I do not always feel confident in my classes. It happens when I think I am not fluent enough or lack some vocabulary. I also sometimes hesitate to correct my students' errors - since I do not think I know all there is to know about English...

Davi (9/7):

But don't NSs also lack some vocabulary? And isn't it impossible for anyone to ever know all there is to know about English? [...]

Karina (9/7):

I agree that native speakers may lack some vocabulary knowledge [...] [But] NNS teachers never cease to be L2 learners, right? Even if they have 20 years of experience of teaching this language... As for NS's, they are fluent and proficient speakers since quite an early age. [...] (Karina's Blog, 8/31-9/7)

In a related blog exchange, our interactions led Karina to question whether she was 'still under the NS myth spell':

Davi (10/19):

I think the NS myth is SO STRONG and PERVASIVE that it goes unnoticed many times. [...]

Karina (10/20):

do you mean i'm still under the NS myth spell?  
but it is very hard to question smth you've always thought to be like a fact of life or smth like that... (Karina's Blog, 10/19-10/20)

From a sociocultural perspective, moving from an everyday grasp of a concept (in this case, what it means to be a NS) to a theoretically-grounded understanding of it can reorient one's thinking and problem-solving (Karpov, 2003). At this point, there is no

evidence that Karina has internalized a scientific understanding of the term NS. In fact, the excerpts above suggest that her everyday notions of what it means to be a NS (e.g., ‘NS’s are fluent and proficient from quite an early age’ and ‘NNS never cease to be L2 learners’) still inform her practice in significant ways (“I also sometimes hesitate to correct my students’ errors”). As shown in the first excerpt of this section, Karina started to conceive of the label “NNS” as a more empowering professional subjectivity (“Sometimes saying that I am a NNS helps to somehow create some bondage with my students”). This positive evaluation of this label (Bucholtz & Hall, 2005) might have enabled her to start moving beyond seeing herself as “an imposter”. So although Karina continued to position herself as ‘an EFL learner’, a label she considered simply impossible to overcome in her professional community, the very opportunity to externalize her subjectivities enabled her to conceive of challenging the NS myth and her long held everyday assumptions.

### 4.3.2 Exploring Empowering Subjectivities

Engagement in these professional development experiences also gave Karina an opportunity to explore empowering subjectivities. In the excerpt below, she explored the previously unlikely possibility of reconciling two key subjectivities: that of a ‘NNS’ who is also an ‘effective’ teacher:

I think I I began to feel more comfortable <laughter> with being NNS, like I understand there there are other people like- as me, with the same background (those things) *and being*, I don’t know, effective teachers. so I think I feel a little bit more confident and comfortable with that, yeah (Stimulated Recall 2, 11/19-20, italics mine)

In addition, being exposed to discussions relevant to the NS/NNS dichotomy and the ideologies surrounding the NS myth enabled Karina to position herself as belonging to a counter 'imagined community' (Norton-Peirce, 1995):

uh, we [two of her graduate classes] talked about this [...] very briefly, but still like, it- I think it kind of stick- stuck with me, uh because so many people are talking about this and like, saying the same thing, <laugh> (Interview 2, 12/17)

I think that reading & discussions on NS/NNS issues has definitely helped me to open and liberate my mind from partly dogmatic/ideologic conceptualizations. Definitions of NS/NNS and bilinguals, as I knew them before, have certainly undergone some changes. (Blog, 09/30)

Through the online discussions, Karina was able to challenge disempowering discourses and conceive of legitimizing professional identities:

[...] 'Traditional' assumptions about NS and NNS speakers work out fine in many cases, e.g. mine. [...] However, we have many "categories" of people for whom these criteria do not work out so well. These "in-between" cases [...] make the categories of nativeness vs. non-nativeness unclear and fuzzy. (Online Discussions, 9/10)

It also became clear that, as a result of being exposed to discourses counter to the NS myth, Karina started to consider new ways of thinking about the topic and how to respond to it:

I think I realized that I also had some some assumption in my mind that, I never doubted. and it's really good to look at it from a different perspective and to doubt like some ideological maybe things that we accept as if they were the truth but actually they were just said by- invented by somebody before us and it's really kind of revolution, revolutionary move to kind of like overthrow maybe not to really overthrow but like try to like doubt or something (Stimulated Recall 1, 09/25)

In several of the online discussions, Karina's peers also helped to collaboratively mediate (Wells, 1999) her thinking. In the following exchanges, Karina had to both articulate her opinions and defend her position:

Karina: I was really taken by the author's [Canagarajah, 1999] honesty. I was rejected once as an ESL instructor in NY based on my non-nativeness. I avoided applying for ESL jobs in some other NY language schools because of their policies to hire only native ESL teachers. [...] But it never occurred to me to speak out on these issues or ever doubt any ideological assumptions lying behind them. I think we can relate the article by Canagarajah to other readings we had earlier on NS and NNS speakers. It seems that these two "categories" are inherently different and cannot be viewed simply as "superiour" vs. "inferior", be it ESL learners or teachers. [...] (Online Discussions, 10/17)

Karina: I think that the world we live in can hardly be described as value- or ideologically free. [...] That's today's reality." And that's exactly the reality many NNS ESL teachers are facing today. (Online Discussions, 10/19)

Dorothy: [...] I agree that we cannot live in a world that is ideologically or value free. Actually, I never wanted to teach English. Origninally (sic) I wanted to teach Spanish to Americans. I applied for a job as a spanish (sic) teacher at a private secondary school and a native speaker of spanish (sic) received the job. [...] (Online Discussions, 10/19)

Gorman: I saw a lot of WHAT rather than HOW and WHY [...]. I know it's really important to justify the NS fallacy, but I couldn't help wondering how it is gonna help NNS language teachers gain their confidence and expertise to teach an L2. [...] The world, true, is somehow disappointing in having a somehow unfair job marketing, but arguing about ideology isn't the only way to help NNS teachers get a job. [...] (Online Discussions, 10/19)

Karina: I cannot agree that he [Canagarajah, 1999] leaves out the question of WHY. NNS teachers do not enjoy the same esteem by their students exactly because of the ideological assumption (NS is better than NNS) that we find so hard to doubt or challenge. Unless we talk about this (about the WHAT), I doubt that anything will change (even if the more practical issues of HOW are solved). (Online Discussions, 10/19)

These data suggest that Karina started to envision the possibility of adopting two previously conflicting labels (one indexing her perceived status as a NNS and another indexing teacher efficacy) as harmoniously co-existing subjectivities. In addition, she started to position herself with others who have been 'talking about this' and 'saying the same thing', acknowledging that "things that we accept as if they were the truth [...] were just [...] invented by somebody before us"; and that the labels NS/NNS can be 'unclear

and fuzzy' for many. In the last excerpt, Karina uses implicature (Bucholtz & Hall, 2005) to position herself as a NNS while at the same time aligning herself with all others who "find [this ideological assumption] so hard to doubt or challenge". In doing so, she moved beyond simply being the one prejudiced against to actually galvanizing her peers' (both NSs and NNSs) support in dispelling the NS myth. As she put it, "Unless we talk about this [...], I doubt that anything will change".

From a sociocultural theoretical perspective, the examples above suggest that Karina began to rearrange and restructure her everyday understanding of a high-stakes concept for her professional life (the NS) into a theoretically-informed stance. Thus, for example, she started to think of NNESTs as "effective teachers" who are neither necessarily "superior" nor "inferior" to NESTs. In addition, Karina claimed that "Definitions of NS/NNS and bilinguals, as I knew them before, have certainly undergone some changes". Whereas there is little, if any evidence of how her changed views impacted her teaching, she certainly interacted with the other study participants in ways that suggest an emerging process of restructuring of her prior beliefs and assumptions: "But it never occurred to me to speak out on these issues or ever doubt any ideological assumptions lying behind them".

### **4.3.3 Asserting Legitimacy by Populating Scientific Concepts**

Participating in these professional development experiences gave Karina the chance to start articulating a professional identity that reconciled being a NNEST with being a qualified ESL teacher. The scientific concepts she learned about (e.g., the often

problematic definitions of NS and NNS and the hidden ideologies behind the NS myth) enabled her to name her experiences and to start reconstructing her identity. She did so by reflecting on these concepts and appropriating and populating them with her own interpretations (Bakhtin, 1982). Karina started to think in concepts, as evidenced by her emerging use of the discourse of theory to rethink, reorganize, and rename her experiences. In a way, these scientific concepts vested her with the authority to resist the NS myth. In the excerpt below, Karina starts with Liang's (cited in Braine, 2004) conclusion 'that NS and NNS backgrounds do not really matter', and yet infuses it with her own 'addition':

Liang's [cited in Braine, 2004] conclusion is, I think, really powerful - that NS and NNS backgrounds do not really matter. What matters is professionalism and experience (*my addition*). (Online Discussions, 10/30, italics mine)

Her "addition" (i.e., that "what matters is professionalism and experience") suggests that Karina started to conceive of the relationships between "NS and NNS" in an empowering way. Although this is not evidence that she internalized theoretically-informed definitions of NS and NNS, it does suggest that she started to restructure her prior thinking and beliefs, which may *ultimately* lead to changes in her instructional practices.

In addition, the on-line group discussions provided Karina with a social backdrop against which to claim, even if fleetingly, the possibility of being both Russian *and* a proficient speaker of English:

I would identify myself as a quite proficient user of L2 and native speaker of Russian - the country and culture I love and feel part of. [...] (Karina, Online Discussion, 12/12)

By claiming the labels of “quite proficient user of L2” and “native speaker of Russian” as coexisting subjectivities vis-à-vis the other study participants, Karina uses the indexical process of implicature (Bucholtz & Hall, 2005) to start crafting a professional subjectivity which accommodates both her knowledge and use of English and her personal history.

Finally, Karina was able to articulate new understandings of her English speaking skills and of herself. In the excerpt below, she downplays her accent and emphasizes that she is more concerned with the content of what she says:

when I was starting to learn English [...] I was doing my best to like, improve my pronunciation. [...] but like, now I just don't care, really, what [...] I sound like. I just (I'm) concerned more about *what* I'm saying not *how* I'm saying it (Interview 2, 12/17, italics mine)

These data suggest that Karina has begun to assert her legitimacy both personally and professionally. As a bilingual individual, she positioned herself as ‘a quite proficient user of [her] L2’. As a professional ESL teacher, she downplayed one’s NNS status and instead started to focus on one’s ‘professionalism’ and ‘experience’.

#### **4.4 Re-positioning One’s Legitimacy within a New Community of Practice**

In terms of promoting NNESTs’ awareness of how they position themselves professionally and are positioned by others in regards to their legitimacy, Karina’s participation in the professional development experiences in this study enabled her to become aware of the NS/NNS dichotomy and the NS myth at a much deeper level:

to me all these readings were like a revelation. I was not exposed to the discussions of NS fallacy before (Online Discussion, 10/19)

I had no idea other people were in the same boat as me (Karina's Blog, 11/01)

Not only did Karina become more aware of the issue in empowering ways, she began to position herself in relation to a community of scholars and practitioners who have struggled with her same 'dilemmas' and who have proposed alternative ways of thinking about them. In the following online exchange, based on an excerpt from Kirkpatrick (2007), Karina clearly aligns herself with this expert view and readily offers an answer to Lee, another study participant:

*Excerpt: "We cannot ignore prejudice as a fundamental cause for shaping our views about language. It is a major cause for distinguishing between a native variety of English and a nativized one, for thinking that one variety or accent of English is better than another and for thinking that pidgins and creoles are inferior in some way to other languages. In the context of World Englishes, it is important to realize the role that prejudice can play in making judgments about different varieties – and therefore about the personalities or intelligence of the speakers of those varieties – and to try and ensure that any judgments we make can be supported rationally." (Kirkpatrick, 2007, p. 15)*

Lee: Just curious. . . Are there people who actually say a certain variety (sic) is inferior to another? Who are they? (Online Discussions, 9/28)

Karina: Yes, I do think there are people who think that there are "inferior" and "superior" dialects. [...] As Kirkpatrick [2007, p. 4-5] puts it, we all are linguistically prejudiced. And I don't think it has anything to do with languages. It has to do with racial and ethnic prejudices. Language is just smth noticeable and more politically correct to talk about. Indian or any other "nativized" English are viewed as less "pure" because these languages developed in former colonized countries and now – developing countries, while British/American(sic)/ Australian English are associated with power and wealth. (Online Discussions, 9/29)

In this excerpt, Karina was able to not only address Lee's question by aligning herself with a notable applied linguist, but also to start peeling away the layers of prejudice against NNESTs (i.e., the connection between linguistic *and* racial discrimination) in ways that she was not able to do before.

In sum, once internalized as higher-order psychological functions (Holland & Lachicotte Jr., 2007), these empowering subjectivities can potentially engender significant changes in NNESTs' sense of individual *and* group agency, as evidenced in the following excerpt:

I became aware not only of new "content" - what is the whole issue all about, but also *found a new perspective (sic) to look at things*, in a different way that I'm used to. E.g., caring not for the accuracy and/or idiomaticity of students' language, but also considering their desire to express their identities in L2, get across their meaning, etc. *I also realized that I'm not alone*. That there is NNEST and other teachers going through similar experiences as me. (Online Discussion, 12/12)

Here, Karina overtly brings up the NNEST label as a very possible professional subjectivity and associates herself with other NNESTs who “go[] through similar experiences” as her. She also implies that her “new perspective” entails looking at her students not only as language learners, but also as individuals who “desire to express their identities” in and through English. According to the indexicality principle (Bucholtz & Hall, 2005), Karina’s overt mention of the NNEST label and her positive framing of her new perspective can be understood as steps taken to discursively craft an emerging identity for herself and her students as legitimate users of English.

#### **4.5 Idealized Conception with a Commitment to Action**

The second research question, though pivotal to this study, proved more difficult to answer. Although there was little evidence (from the classroom observations) that Karina changed her instructional practices in response to her evolving thinking, beliefs, and subjectivities, it was clear that Karina’s view of herself was strongly connected to her teaching practice. For example, she reported that she “sometimes hesitate[d] to correct

[her] students' errors" given her belief that she does not "know all there is to know about English" (Blog, 8/31). Whereas it is reasonable to conceive that most teachers would not be able to answer all questions from students at all times, what likely propels this belief (*i.e.*, notions of language ownership and authority) is what makes it self-defeating for Karina as a NNEST.

Nonetheless, based on and throughout the online discussions with her peers, Karina started to question her instructional practices. Her responses to the following excerpt by Faymonville, reveal her struggle and intent to reconcile her practice with her emerging thinking on what it means to teach ESL writing.

*We write so that a reader can understand. [But is] understanding limited to absolute and complete conveyance of meaning with the goal of complete elimination of 'noise' and miscommunication? Why do we automatically categorize a non-native writer's manifestation of difference as an error rather than an experiment in making meaning? Why do we not give the non-native writer the benefit of the doubt that he or she might be trying to convey meanings that cannot be expressed through native, standard usage? What is it about an ESL mistake that marks it as an ESL mistake and as a failure to reach native speaker audience? (2000, p. 135)*

In this exchange she focused on the need to reconcile writing according to expected conventions with writing to express one's voice:

Karina: Dorothy [another study participant], I think what you say about NNS and NS - that both could be miscommunicating, successfully communicating, making "errors" and etc. is really insightful!! However, I wonder what then do I as an ESL instructor do?... Am I to correct any of the (stylistic?) "errors" or dismiss them as long as I get the meaning? [...] I think in oral speech, one can get away with almost anything – [...] But written academic writing - is quite a different, fixed genre. Students would appreciate knowing "the norms" (from Davi's post). (Online Discussions, 11/18)

Davi: [...] I think that's a very fair question! [...] How have you all been handling this so far? (Online Discussions, 11/19)

Karina: I haven't yet figured out how exactly to react to the "stylistic"/accented (?) errors in my students' essays. Even though I do see that they have the right to learn the "norms", but are we

teaching them so that they just get the correct forms?? Or do we teach them with the purpose that they (*sic*) are able to express what they want to say? & develop their own personal voices?[...]  
(Online Discussions, 11/21)

Just as importantly, Karina also expressed a desire to match her new way of thinking with her actions (Roth & Lee, 2007) as an ESL teacher. When asked if the study had had any impact on her classroom practice, she answered that "...if I think differently, I should do things differently too...":

Davi: how do you think that having participated in this study might change who you are as a teacher and what you do in the classroom, if at all? [...]

Karina: [...] I feel like if I think differently, I should do things differently too, but I haven't so far figured out how, how to (be able to do that) (Interview 2, 12/17)

Despite not knowing yet how to align her thinking with her pedagogy, Karina decidedly showed her desire to do so. When asked what she was hoping students would get from engaging with the NS/NNS topic, she stated that she wanted her students to think differently, relate the topic to their lives, and simply 'feel better' about themselves as L2 users:

Davi: [...] what were you hoping for them to get from these articles?

Karina: mhm. I think I wanted them to see how they can relate to this topic because [...] they consider themselves like non-native speakers or L2 users so I get maybe I wanted them to think differently about this to see how it relates to their lives (Stimulated Recall 1, 9/25)

[...]

Karina: [...] maybe I was trying to make them more confident and hope it could. yeah not only think differently but also just feel like (even) better about themselves (Stimulated Recall 1, 9/25)

Karina's reported concern for how her students "consider themselves" and her attempts to enable them to "think differently" about the relationship between the NS/NNS topic and their lives suggest that she may have started to reorient her thinking regarding her instructional practices.

In another online discussion prompted by reading Maum (2002), in which some of the teachers questioned how much their students were actually ‘getting’ from engaging with the NS/NNS topic, Karina expressed her opinion that ‘we can change things by DOING’:

Regrettably, I also agree that hardly did my students change their perceptions of NS and NNS ESL teachers, just based on what we read and discussed. I recently read an article in TESOL which looked at how ESL students' perceptions of their NNS ESL teachers changed over the semester. The researchers reported that there was a much more positive evaluation of the teacher by the end of the semester. So, I think we can change things by DOING. (Online Discussions, 12/8)

Karina began to consider changing both her discourse practices (i.e., what she says about the NS/NNS dichotomy and the NS myth) and practical activity (i.e., her teaching and engagement with the profession) with the goal of empowering herself and others (Stetsenko & Arieivitch, 2004).

NNS teachers do not enjoy the same esteem by their students exactly because of the ideological assumption (NS is better than NNS) that we find so hard to doubt or challenge. Unless we talk about this [...], I doubt that anything will change (Online Discussion, 10/19)

Yes, I definitely think that NNEST [the NNEST-IS within TESOL] and other organizations of this kind are a big must in TESOL. These issues should not be a taboo (*sic*) topic but discussed and new ideas – implemented. (Online Discussions, 10/30)

Though most of the data point to Karina’s development as reaching only an idealized conception with a commitment to action (Golombek & Johnson, 2004), there is some evidence that she has begun to internalize a different way to think and act regarding L2 writing instruction, ESL students’ writing, and its connections to students’ subjectivities. In a reaction paper tackling what is involved in grading ESL students’ essays, her student wrote the following as his very last sentence (underlining done by

Karina): “Writing is a process that will improve over time and the writer will have a possibility to write like a native speaker.” (Student Paper, 10/19). In response to this statement, and specifically in reference to the underlined predicate, Karina responded: “is this the goal? What about learners’ identities?”.

#### 4.6 Summary

In sum, Karina considered herself inferior to NESTs in many ways. She reported feeling self-conscious of her perceived lack of appropriate English proficiency and knowledge of American culture. For her, becoming the kind of ESL teacher who would be able to gain her students’ trust and acceptance could potentially strip her of her subjectivity as a Russian ESL teacher. This belief was based on a simplistic definition of culture as encompassing both knowledge about the culture and experience of the culture (in this case, English and/or American). But through various mediational means, Karina began to move from an everyday, simplistic conceptualization of the NS to a much more complex picture informed by theoretical understandings about this concept. Karina’s interactions with myself and with her peers helped her to (re)articulate her thinking and make it explicit, thus encouraging a process of restructuring of this concept. She started to articulate a professional identity that reconciled being a NNEST with being a qualified ESL teacher. The theoretical readings on the NS myth and the NS/NNS dichotomy enabled Karina to name her experiences by verbalizing them and to reconstruct her professional subjectivity. In other words, she began to use the discourse of theory to rethink, reorganize, and rename her experiences. She was able to articulate new

understandings of her English speaking skills and of herself. She began to position herself in relation to a community of scholars and practitioners who have struggled with her same struggles and who have proposed alternative ways of thinking about them. Though most of the data point to Karina's development as reaching only an idealized conception with a commitment to action (Golombek & Johnson, 2004), there is some evidence that she has begun to internalize a different way to think and act regarding L2 writing instruction, ESL students' writing, and its connections to students' subjectivities..

## CHAPTER 5

### LEE: TECHNOLOGY AS A POWERFUL TOOL

Lee<sup>7</sup> is a S. Korean male in his late thirties who obtained most of his formal education in Seoul. His first language is Korean and he also speaks English, Japanese, German, and French to varying degrees of proficiency. He described himself as a hard-working, honest individual who often gets “into trouble” in relating to others (Interview 1, 9/12). As his personal and professional trajectories are intricately interwoven with the role English has played in his life, it is relevant to discuss them here.

As he put it himself, he was “forced to learn English”. He explained that although he had “...always thought [he] would be a literary critic (or a novelist)” (Blog, 9/12), the S. Korean university admissions system (with its national exam) led him into English education instead. He revealed that “[he] had never been motivated to teach English or become an ESL teacher” and that, in fact, he “taught for money in [S. Korea] and [is] teaching for money in the States”. Although he felt like quitting and starting over (in English Literature and Literary Criticism), he “just couldn’t”. He claimed his health was “in pretty bad condition after spending a few years stuck in classroom [...] from 7:30am to 11 pm” and after “having suffered from Anorexia” earlier in his life. He didn’t feel that he wanted to “get back to that craziness” of a “tense [] nation-wide competition”, though

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<sup>7</sup> Lee (pseudonym) and I met in early August of 2005. As incoming doctoral students in the same program, we took courses together, interacted often, relied on each other for collegial support, shared personal and professional interests, and ‘bonded’ over the challenges of getting through graduate school as international students.

he did make time for a few classes in English [literature]. As he put it in regards to his major and department (under the School of Education): “I was in there all the while, but I never belonged there”. During this time, he considered becoming a computer programmer and a film director, while watching movies, playing online games, and reading English novels. He felt he “had th[e] talent to communicate with people in the text, and the people who created [them]”. So he “stayed in the myst (sic)”, even though he was “disgusted at SLA rubbish”.

Prior to coming to the US to start his doctoral work in Applied Linguistics, Lee taught in private and public high schools, a private language institute, and “prep schools” in S. Korea. As a high school teacher, he felt “guilty and sorry for [his] students” because he taught them formal grammar through the “government-endorsed course books”, which he believed were “no better than rubbish in the dust bin”. More importantly, Lee did not feel qualified to teach EFL given his belief that “*a teacher should be good at what he or she teaches* in the first place” and that he did not believe to be “*that’ good*” (i.e., good enough to warrant his professional legitimacy) (Dialogic Blog, 9/4). In addition, before choosing to participate in this study, Lee had been teaching freshman-level ESL writing courses for three years at his university. It is also important to note here that Lee, under the TA supervisor’s guidance, was charged with the task of creating the lesson plans for the NS/NNS unit used in this study<sup>8</sup>. However, despite designing the unit, Lee felt unprepared to teach its lessons: “*I just don’t know how to have [students] write better. I feel like there is something else that can’t be captured in a curriculum or a theory*”

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<sup>8</sup> My role was to provide the readings that students were asked to read and respond to in their assignments.

(Blog, 9/4). This sense of professional inadequacy, as well as lack of agency in regards to what contributes to student learning, played an important part in how Lee conceptualized his teaching and will be explored later.

Finally, it is also important to give voice to Lee's emotions toward English and English teaching given his previous experiences as an EFL learner in Korea. For him, EFL was charged with painful memories and resentment toward an oppressive macro-structure (i.e., the Korean national university entrance exam). The excerpt below suggests that, for Lee, a "Korean accent" is not a point of pride, and that attaining an "authentic [English] pronunciation" means being able to sound like an imagined, most likely well-educated and Caucasian individual (i.e., "American or Canadian"). By positioning himself as part of a larger group (i.e., "we") who has suffered the "pain" of learning English for years only to later still be "stuck with really strong Korean accent", Lee implied that a Korean accent is a liability. This excerpt also suggests that Lee thought of himself as excluded from the group of Korean students who are sent abroad by their "richer famil[ies]", thus being denied access to the "touchstone" of "authentic" English pronunciation. And finally, his perceived failure to "touch it" despite all the "pain" he has suffered (e.g., "all the examinations and all the tests" for several years) gave rise to "bitter feeling[s]" and frustration that are "always there":

[learning EFL] *has been pain in our lives* for a long time right? [...] whatever we do is really hard to achieve the, you know, native status proficiency and especially pronunciation, so it's like *pronunciation is sort of touchstone*, you touch it and then you know what it is right? and then there are other students who are like- like now, who are from- who are coming from richer family who can support their children, you know, for going abroad and, you know, from really early on and then get *authentic pronunciation like American or Canadian pronunciation*, so we see the gap in people and then we yeah, that- you know, that comes with *all the pain we had to, you know, go through with English-* learn English and all the

examinations and all the tests and then later on *the frustration* that you have spent like fifteen years also and still you don't sound like, *you're still stuck with really strong Korean accent*, so that's kind of *bitter feeling*, so it's *always there*.  
(Stimulated Recall 1, 9/24)

According to the *indexicality principle* (Bucholtz & Hall, 2005), and based on this excerpt, Lee had constructed a subjectivity for himself as belonging to a community of learners of English who, despite their efforts in learning “authentic pronunciation”, are “still stuck with really strong Korean accent”. In addition, this excerpt suggests that Lee viewed “American or Canadian pronunciation” of English as a desirable commodity (even if not intrinsically so), and a Korean accent as a liability. This subjectivity (i.e., as a heavy-accented speaker of English) played a significant role in Lee’s understanding of himself as an ESL instructor and will be discussed later.

### 5.1 Lee’s Self-Concept

Lee’s understanding of himself as a NNS (i.e., his NNS subjectivity) played a major part in how he came to conceptualize his role as an instructor and, consequently, his teaching. Throughout the study, Lee’s discourse suggested that he perceived being Asian and a NNS to be disadvantages (if only professionally) and, regarding the latter, a weakness to be overcome. He thought he could “never be free from [his] identity as a non-native speaker [...] as a teacher or as a writer” (Stimulated Recall 2, 11/10) and seemed to imply that he would rather not discuss his status as a NNS openly with his students if given the choice:

Davi: [...] was your status as a non-native speaking ESL teacher ever brought up in the classroom [...]?

Lee: well w- (well) *it came out* in the classroom but *we didn't do it intentionally* 'cause unit one was- whole unit one was the about non-native speaker so *we had to discuss it*, (the) issue and then you're questioning our identity in the classroom because our reading was about that right? so *that's how it was brought up*.  
(Interview 2, 12/16)

Lee seems to imply that although his status as a NNS was brought up in the classroom with his students, it did not happen as 'intentionally' as he would have liked – it simply “came out”. Because the curricular unit itself was “about non-native speaker”, Lee felt he “*had to discuss it*” (my emphasis). Although his reaction is understandable (especially given the power differential between him as an instructor and participant in the study on the one hand, and myself as the researcher and the TA supervisor as his immediate boss on the other), the fact that he chose not to discuss his NNS status might suggest that he was unprepared or unwilling to do so.

In addition, Lee preferred to identify himself as a “second language user” rather than as a bilingual speaker, as for him the term “bilingual” implied “balanced bilingual” (Interview 2, 12/16), which he did not perceive himself to be. Finally, he reported feeling self-conscious while teaching, at conference presentations, and at service encounters and social situations. In sum, Lee seemed to view and position himself as a NNS of English and to deem such status as a professional liability. Although in this excerpt Lee’s “status as a non-native speaking ESL teacher” was first brought up by me, who thus positioned him as such by using this label overtly (Bucholtz & Hall, 2005), it nonetheless became clear through our various encounters, such as this one, that this subjectivity (i.e., NNEST) was not evaluated positively by him.

## 5.2 Lee's Perceived Level of English Proficiency

In terms of his expertise in English, Lee perceived his use of English grammar to sometimes be a “problem” given “the influence of [Korean]” on his English writing and speaking skills. In terms of his oral proficiency and speaking skills, he considered them “manageable” enough that he can “make [him]self understood” to most people, especially if they have interacted with non-native speaking students before. This is so, he explains, because “it’s mostly a matter of patience, ‘cause we do have accent” (Interview 1, 9/12). Lee’s accent when speaking English, he believed, was a major source of concern for him. Although he also believed to be “getting better” regarding his overall accent, pronunciation, and strategies to cope with communication breakdowns, he still felt self-conscious and insecure as a non-native speaker. Lee’s answer to my question around his accent didn’t leave much room for interpretation regarding his perception of it:

Davi: [...] would you say you have an accent?

Lee: *well I do.*

[...]

L: most of- most of the time I don't realize it, unless I record myself and listen to it [...] I DO notice accent. and [...] when there's communication breakdown [...] *I think I do have accent* (Interview 1, 9/12)

Indeed, Lee perceived his accent to be ‘strong’ and unavoidable: “I know I have really strong accent right now. and then, well, that’s- I can’t help” (Stimulated Recall 1, 9/24) and “once you’re in the classroom like a teacher, it’s kind of intimidating all the time” (Stimulated Recall 2, 11/10).

Lee often articulated teaching as ‘performance in English’ through which he needed to ‘make [him]self look like an established expert’ (Blog, 9/12). Despite having taught ESL in Korea, Lee felt very unprepared and ‘unqualified’ to teach ESL writing in

American university classrooms, partly due to his self-perception as a relatively poor user of English:

Davi: Why do you seem to feel 'unqualified' to teach English to 'anyone'? [...] (Blog, 9/9)

Lee: [...] I can't articulate my standard but I think it's the native speaker definitions I personally have or share with other EFL learners [...]. Teaching seems to be more of performance in English than knowledge of English. *I am still struggling with English all the time as a student* and I am very conscious of it - you know *I have serious problem* with my def./indef. articles and plurals, for example. I think that consciousness follows me into the classroom and keep lurking in the back of my mind. (Blog, 9/12)

His overt mention of his subjectivity “as a student” of English who “still struggl[es]” with “serious problem[s]” in using the language were at odds with his desired subjectivity as “an established expert”, especially given his view of NSs as unaccented, expert speakers and users of English. Lee’s spoken English and accent, however, were not his only concerns as an English teacher.

### 5.3 Lee’s Professional Self-Concept

When asked to describe himself professionally, Lee shared that “still I don't think I'm REALLY confident teacher” (Interview 1, 9/12). His stated low confidence came mainly from not believing he could resort to linguistic intuition as a resource while teaching and from his perceived lack of other “cultural resources” (Interview 1, 9/12). Concerning the former, Lee seemed to believe that only NSs can (or have the right to) resort to intuition and that doing so was a “privilege” he did not have. In the excerpt below, Lee positions himself with other “non-native speakers” who, unlike NSs (i.e., “they”), sometimes get “really stuck” in trying to explain “the way the language is used”:

I think non-native speakers have one less resources to depend on. [...] if [NSs] don't have explanation they can always say 'well that's the way we speak'. right? but that's <laugh> *that's not available to me* so uh sometimes I can- I can be really stopped like, I can't really explain this, I know that's the way the language is used but that's the best I can do. then *I'm really stuck* there's no way to deliver why I would believe in such a way

[...]

[...] [NSs] always have that exit like, you know, *the final resources, native-speakerness*, 'well that's the way I write then, you know, I can't really explain it but I think this is better than that so why don't you try this?' well they can always say that. *I don't have that privilege.* (Interview 2, 12/16)

In terms of 'cultural resources', Lee felt at a disadvantage as well. For him, being able to "easily tap into cultural resources" in order to "understand the language" was viewed as a "really great asset" (Interview 1, 9/12). He believed that knowing more about the connection between language and culture (e.g., "like the way you order food or interact with waitress") (Interview 1, 9/12) would give him more confidence as a speaker and teacher of English:

so proficiency *is not just about language* to me. *it could be pragmatics* and you know, uh *knowledge of cultural assumptions and conventions.*

[...]

it's kind of hard to dissect those two. it's somehow *language and culture in between* it's really hard to tell them apart. (Interview 2, 12/16)

The following excerpt suggests that participation in the study may have helped Lee to externalize his perceived weakness of lacking "cultural resources" and articulate how he felt about them ("underdog"):

it's always back in my mind, it's always there like you know me being non-native speaker and then having uh relatively uh that's my perception like having uh low proficiency lower proficiency than native speakers and then *having less cultural uh resources* and *access to those uh cultural resources* so it's always there so like having you know having the perception of being underdog (you say?) [D: mhm] it's always there, I'm not- but it's kinda like *always subconscious thing it's kinda hard to bring it up and articulate* so it's been that way. (Interview 2, 12/16)

The gap between Lee's emotions and cognition (the "pain", as he put it, of being a NNS of English living and working in the U.S.) pushed him to reorient his activity (i.e., teaching; Verity, 2000). Because of his perception that some of his students "might felt disappointed because they didn't get a Caucasian teacher or like, native speaker teacher", Lee had to think of other ways to attempt to establish his professional legitimacy. In other words, his self-concept as an "underdog" and his low professional confidence prompted him to think of what exactly made him an expert in teaching ESL to international college students, as well as to conceptualize and enact his teaching in ways that would allow him to "bring in more ["visible"] expertise" to the classroom:

*that pain make make me to think about the way I teach and where am I- my expertise would lie in, and then, I know some students might felt disappointed because they didn't get a Caucasian teacher or like, native speaker teacher. I'm NOT. so I have to think about the way uh where my true expertise could lie in. so uh as long as I have something to offer or if that something is what native speakers don't have- that would uh you know add to my kind of uh collection to offer my students I would say repertoire teaching repertoire. (Stimulated Recall 2, 11/10)*

Lee's mention of the labels 'Caucasian teacher' and 'native speaker teacher' to explain why his students might have felt disappointed to have him as their instructor suggests that, for him, these subjectivities are not only intertwined (i.e., race and native speaker status), but unavailable. While perceiving himself as neither Caucasian nor as a native speaker may seem inconsequential, his conceptualization of his professional expertise in opposition to these subjectivities led him to search for "something to offer"; something that "native speakers don't have". That "something to offer", as will be shown later, is a critical part of Lee's conceptualization of his teaching.

### 5.4 The NS Myth

As with Karina (see Chapter 4), Lee was aware of and had experienced discrimination as a NNEST. In the excerpt below, he spoke of the negative reactions he received from prospective employers in Japan:

I was looking for job [in Japan] (xx) summer and then *they DO discriminate a-* well not discrimination but, you know, *they DO prefer uh native speaker or native speaker looking person* so I had very negative answer from the professors I uh happened to talk with  
[...]  
they advised me to look for job in either in America or in Korea 'cause *it's gonna be REALLY hard* (Interview 1, 9/12)

Here, it seems that Lee equated ‘native speaker’ with ‘native speaker looking person’. He seemed to imply that even if he were a native speaker of (likely American) English, he may still have received a ‘negative answer’ from prospective employers in the Japanese context. The issue of race for Lee, as is the case for many other NNESTs, is an important one (Motha, 2006). He certainly considered being perceived as Asian (based on his appearance) as a liability when it came to establishing his professional legitimacy as an ESL instructor in the U.S.

Likely due to having experienced discrimination in the past, or from having been positioned as (professionally) inferior to NSs, Lee had come to internalize some of the very cultural assumptions and beliefs (i.e., prejudices), which, many have argued, work against him and all other NNESTs. In the excerpt below, for example, he seems to imply that his students not only expect, but also deserve a NEST:

if I was a student from, fresh from Korea under- undergrad that came for the first time (in my life) uh the writing class in [university], and then if I- what if I met a Korean teacher, then *would I really like completely trust him? or would I expect anything from him? or if I have to pay, [...] would I feel it's worth?* so uh yeah

there is always that, you know component of apprehension (Stimulated Recall 2, 11/10)

By speaking from the perspective of a newly-arrived international student from Korea who is about to enroll in ESL writing classes at the university, he positions ‘a Korean teacher’ as not fully trustworthy in terms of her/his professional expertise. Additionally, Lee seems to imply that Korean students consider NESTs a commodity ‘worth’ paying for and that he, ‘a Korean teacher’, is not worth as much. This notion may have been compounded by the fact that, in Lee’s perception,

*some [NNESTs] are not good at all. [...] I saw many of them back in Korea. they are all of them non-native teacher (xx) *I don't think they qualify to be a writing teacher, they have no experience in, you know, teaching writing. what they learned about writing is what they know from high school, so this is a matter of qualification.* (Interview 1, 9/12)*

If Lee’s belief that some NNESTs ‘are not good at all’ in the Korean (and perhaps Asian) context resonates with his own students, then it seems understandable that he may expect his own ESL students to have similar feelings or to make similar assumptions about NNESTs. Although Lee tries to distance himself from these reportedly unqualified NNESTs by excluding himself from ‘them’ as a group, he still considers himself ‘a Korean teacher’. This suggests that, for him, merging these two different subjectivities (i.e., being “a Korean teacher” and a qualified NNEST) and claiming them for himself were difficult tasks. Although Lee may have known rationally that these two subjectivities can coexist, his prior experiences as a student, teacher, and job seeker may have understandably frustrated any attempts of reconciling them. Although understandable and even to be expected, Lee’s possible conflation of a NS with a “native speaker looking person” suggests that he was operating under an everyday,

unproblematized conceptualization of the NS concept. By the same token, his suggestion that many, perhaps most NNESTs in Korea are “not good at all” suggests that, similarly, his understanding of NNESTs might be based more on his everyday experiences than on a theoretically-informed view of this subjectivity. As I argue below, these everyday conceptualizations played a significant role in how Lee conceived of his teaching practice.

### 5.5 Lee’s Perceptions of (Critical) Pedagogy

Grossly speaking, Lee viewed the NS/NNS dichotomy from a ‘pragmatist stance’ regarding L2 writing instruction (*see* Casanave, 2004, p. 196-9). In his view, “discussing non-native topic doesn’t really solve anything. [...] *you need to do some kind of action to solve anything right?* so discussing it, theorizing about it, good, but [...] *unless you are doing something you don’t really solve it*” (Stimulated Recall 1, 9/24). This practical orientation to empowering NNSs and NNESTs led him to the development and implementation of a very unique and innovation instructional resource for his students. For Lee, the creation and utilization of this instructional resource, or corpus tool (an online, Google-based, searchable corpus of written academic English) was, he claimed, his main strength as an ESL instructor. He explained it thus:

*If there is anything like 'agency' that I have exercised in my teaching, that is the tool development. What has influenced me in my teaching practice and my self-perception as a teacher was the classroom practice - especially the interaction with students; It was definitely not the World English or NS vs. NNS readings/discussions. It's the tool (or the development of the tool) that I have been working on. It's the pain and frustration of teaching writing in my history that led me to wish for a powerful tool (Email, 10/24).*

Lee invested significant amounts of time and effort in developing and implementing what he described as “powerful tool” with his class. As he put it, “[a]lthough it looks very simple, it actually takes at least three months to get this thing running and I am still working on it - spending a lot of time” (Blog, 11/16). Thus, his need to address his emotional ‘pain and frustration’ as an ESL writing teacher regulated his activity both in the classroom (i.e., by using the tool with his students) and outside it (i.e., by spending the time and energy it took to develop the tool).

The development and implementation of the corpus tool played a significant role in Lee’s thinking and practice. Regarding the latter, Lee believed that his students benefitted from learning about and using the corpus tool in their own writing as a “quick fix” that “students can actually use” to “fix [their] writing right away”. As he explained:

the goal of the course was to help [students] become *independent writers*. Once they are outside my classroom *they will have to be on their own*. [...] I offered [the corpus tool] [...] and *I hoped that they would use it to empower themselves as L2 writers - because nobody would be there to help them except themselves*. (Blog, 12/12)

Because Lee knew that his students, as NNSs like himself, needed to become better academic writers, Lee conceptualized and used the corpus tool as a way to simultaneously: give students (easy and convenient) access to the target genre features; and help them to have access to such genre features *even when* outside the classroom and/or away from a “*competent native language consultant*” (Ringbom, 2001, p.66).

While indeed potentially helpful to students, Lee’s motives for creating the corpus tool are also linked to a view of his students (and of himself) as deficient users of English. Broadly speaking, as he explained, the tool was a way to “offset, you know, whatever disad- disadvantage [students] have just *because they are non-native speakers*”

(Interview 2, 12/16). Although it is reasonable to assume that freshman ESL students may not have access to the genre features of academic writing (and therefore may be at a disadvantage when compared to those who do), Lee seemed to conflate being ‘non-native speakers’ with having ‘disadvantages’. Through the process of implicature (Bucholtz & Hall, 2005), Lee’s discourse suggests that he perceived ‘non-native speakers’ as necessarily and inherently at a disadvantage when compared to NSs in regard to their knowledge and use of English. Thus, his everyday and experiential (rather than theoretical) understanding of what it means to be a NNS (i.e., having disadvantages to “offset”) is intricately connected to his conceiving of and implementing the corpus tool.

In addition, Lee perceived the corpus tool as a way to free himself from having to provide for his students the sort of linguistic intuition he either believed he could not provide or would not be legitimized if providing it (i.e., students may not take his intuitive knowledge of English as real or authentic). Remember that for Lee, this sort of NS intuition is “not available”; a ‘privilege’ he does not have (Interview 2, 12/16). Therefore, the corpus tool worked both as a mediational tool for the students and for himself.

However, from a critical perspective on L2 writing (Canagarajah, 2002), Lee’s conceptualization of the corpus tool and its purpose were to a large extent based on his perception that many ESL students view themselves as ‘deficient’ language users:

I personally... took a step, you know, my methodology is to uh give [students] at least a little tool or *a way to work on their uh source of deficiency*, if you will, so *if they feel deficient* because of uh you know, in terms of writing [...] then we need to work on this [...] instead of just telling them ‘well it’s ok, it’s not your language’ - *that doesn’t really work*, so [...] if they have a problem then they’re gonna work on their problem, [...] *it’s not just about thinking about it and taking a stance, as you know, or feeling proud of being a non-native speaker*. it doesn’t

really solve any problem, you know. if they have grammatical errors they need to work on it. (Stimulated Recall 1, 9/24)

For Lee, then, ‘empowering’ his ESL students meant giving them access to the genre and linguistic features of American academic writing. Although it is reasonable to assume that much of the linguistic input provided by the corpus tool may have been produced by NNS of English, Lee perceived the corpus tool as a way to somehow democratize, as it were, NS linguistic intuition. By doing so, he believed to be exercising his agency as a writer and freeing both himself and his students from depending on a native speaker consultant (Ringbom, 2001). In sum, and insofar as the corpus tool is concerned, Lee’s pragmatist approach to empowering his students (and himself) differed from this study’s more critical approach. Below, I discuss how Lee’s participation in the study did provide him with other mediational tools and spaces with which to challenge the NS myth.

### **5.6 Challenging Lee’s Beliefs and Views**

Although Lee had already been exposed to the NS/NNS dichotomy through a few graduate courses and his own readings prior to the study (Interview 2, 12/16), and despite having very little time to spare during data collection, he reported that our ‘conversations’ (i.e., interviews and stimulated recalls) were the most helpful in his becoming more knowledgeable about professional issues regarding NNESTs (Interview 2, 12/16). As I will show below through several examples, our conversations functioned as spaces of collaborative critical inquiry through which his self-concept, as well as his thinking and

beliefs about the NS/NNS dichotomy, the NS myth, and his instruction were destabilized, probed, and challenged.

Before moving to the first example, it is worth noting that, for Lee (albeit speaking in reference to what the study meant for his students), participation in the study offered “a chance [to] think about [the NS/NNS dichotomy and NS myth], ... and (also) like, you know, bring it up- bring up from the subconscious level to the, you know, more conscious uh sort of a discussion” (Interview 2, 12/16). As it turned out, the mediational spaces afforded by the study also helped Lee to become more conscious of the relationship between his professional self-concept and his teaching. In the excerpt below, Lee verbalizes, reportedly for the first time, how his perceived status as a non-native speaker has influenced his teaching in profound ways. His subjectivity as a ‘non-native speaker’ and his being ‘conscious’ of it prompted him to ‘cover what [he is]’ (i.e., a ‘non-native speaker’) and teach in ways so as to elicit positive responses from his students (given his perception that they would think of his pronunciation as ‘not that good’). In other words, Lee’s conceptualization of his practice as a means of compensating for his subjectivity as a NNS meant establishing his legitimacy as an ESL instructor through ‘visible expertise’ (i.e., ‘really well thought out activities’, the ‘corpus’, etc.):

Davi: [...] how does your viewing yourself as a non-native speaker affect how you teach?

[...]

Lee: *I tend to bring more expertise like, you know, **VISIBLE** expertise to the classroom*

D: visible expertise?

L: yeah, *visible to my students*, so that they would *appreciate my expertise as a teacher*

[...]

L: so if you bring in a *really well thought out activities* or like well-made forms activity forms (xx) kind of feedback or *a better way to give feedback*, you know,

in my case that's by using corpus and like, I sometimes bring in the corpus findings or particular genre theory like, you know, the way we symbolize the generic structure, so those things.

[...]

D: [...] why is it important that your students see this visible expertise?

L: [...] because I was c- you know... *conscious of me being a non-native speaker*, [...] this is my reflection. I thought about it, and then, you know, *unconsciously* I was doing this like, *unconsciously*. I was- I wanted to bring something like, something *new*, something *more effective*, something *fancy*, and something *really efficient*, so you just do it and then you get better at this thing. so like, that's how, you know, the better way- the better technique to teach, writing, *probably to cover what I am? in the classroom*, so that I- I think I was looking for response from the students, like 'oh he's- *he's a non-native speaker*, his pronunciation is not that good, *but he teaches writing really well*', so it's probably yeah

D: yeah that makes sense, thank you. ok. uhm, <P: 4>

L: well *it's first time to verbalize it* <laugh> kind of-

D: it feels different doesn't it?

L: *kind of hard*, yeah (Interview 1, 9/12)

From a sociocultural perspective, the process of verbalizing his 'reflection' (something he claimed to have already 'thought about') gave Lee, as well as myself as the researcher and teacher educator, an opportunity to explore the connection between his professional subjectivity and his instructional practices. In other words, once his understanding of his teaching practice became explicit, it was open to "dialogic mediation that can promote reorganization and refinement" (Johnson, 2009, p. 66). Thus, although Lee was able to connect his view of himself as a 'non-native speaker' with his tendency to bring 'visible expertise' to the classroom after my first question, it was the second question in this exchange (i.e., 'why is it important that your students see this visible expertise?') that enabled him to search for even deeper reasons and motivations for teaching the way he did. Finally, it is also revealing that, for Lee, the process of verbalizing his thinking and bringing it to the conscious level was 'kind of hard'. This points to the need for providing professional support for NNESTs which goes beyond the

strictly professional and into the affective realm by acknowledging how NNESTs feel and how such feelings play a part in their overall thinking and acting (Alsup, 2006; DiPardo & Potter, 2003; Mahn & John-Steiner, 2002)

The act of verbalizing and making subconscious ideas and beliefs amenable to exploration and discussion at the conscious level also played a role in my interactions with Lee through the dialogic blog and stimulated recall sessions. By asking him strategic questions that both acknowledged and challenged his current thinking, *and* by deliberately providing him with a safe space to express his ideas, this created a mediational space through which his thinking and beliefs about the NS/NNS dichotomy, the NS myth, and his practice could be open to reorganization in more empowering ways. In the long excerpt below, I explored Lee's pragmatist orientation to dealing with the NS myth and attempted to encourage him to articulate his views and opinions and thus make them visible and amenable to (constructive) criticism. As discussed previously, Lee seemed to take a more action-oriented approach to what he viewed as a 'labelling' (sic) issue (i.e., 'the NNS issue'). As he put it, he 'didn't expect knowing more about the NNS issue would help [his] students write better'. By expressing my understanding of how our views differed and asking for clarification ('Could you clarify your thoughts on this?'), I encouraged Lee to probe his thinking. As a result, he wrote 'action rather than words', implying that 'words' will lead to no visible 'action'. I then expressed my view that ideology (i.e., 'words') are critical for 'action' to succeed. In response, Lee chose to 'rephrase' his view so as to express that it is *his* personal preference to 'act rather than talk about it'. However, after I provided another interpretation of how our thinking

differed, Lee changed his thinking to ‘Act AND talk about it’ (emphasis in original), which indicates a significant shift in his thinking.

Lee: [...] I didn’t expect knowing more about the NNS issue would help my students write better anyway. [...] (Blog, 10/3)

[...]

Davi: [...] In my view, I'm coming from (and trying to work against) a more ideological (language=power, grossly speaking) perspective. Whereas, for you, the 'right-here, right-now' aspect of it is more appealing... *Could you clarify your thoughts on this?*

[...] You said: "[...] I don't really see how meta-knowledge of NNS issue would help [students write better] [...]." This is where I tend to disagree. I think disempowered people can only start to make their voices heard if they know what the sources of their powerlessness are, where they come from, and how to oppose it. [...]

L: *I wouldn't describe my line of thinking as 'right here right now'.* Rather, I would see it something like, ‘*action rather than words*’. Whenever I read the SLA articles, I often thought like, ‘discuss and talk we must, and all is good and well, but what can we actually do about it?’

[...]

[...] I never said we should not know about the ‘source of powerlessness’. What I don’t see is, for example, how knowing that it is not easy to distinguish NS and NNS help my NNS students to get their job done while they write their papers. (Blog, 10/12)

D: [...] For me, it's about action as well, but words, in my view, are a critical (no pun intended) part of it. If actions are not preceded by ideological discussions, I'm not sure they would be as useful or focused [...].

[...]

*Your thoughts?* (Blog, 10/19)

L: [...] Your comment [above] makes a lot of sense. I absolutely agree. *Let me rephrase: What I'd personally prefer to do is to act rather than talk about it.* (emphasis in original)

[...]

I know this 'labelling' (*sic*) issue has been discussed a lot in the literature [...]. I just question the effectiveness of such discussion on changing my students' writing practice. That was how I turned to the tool development for helping students to detach themselves from the NS norm, rather than discussion of NS/NNS labels (*sic*).

Well I feel like I'm talking too much here - or writing. Better go and do the action. (Blog, 10/19)

D: Here’s my perception of how you and I view things currently:

L: Act RATHER THAN talk about it

D: Talk about it AND act

*Would you agree?*

[...]

(Blog, 10/20)

L: I would say, *Act AND talk about it*. (emphasis in original) [...] (Blog, 10/26)

From a sociocultural perspective, this exchange exemplifies how, through the mediational spaces afforded by his participation in the study, Lee engaged in verbalizing, reflecting on, and eventually reorienting his thinking to, I would argue, a more reasoned perspective – one that incorporates both his previous attitude toward the ‘labelling’ (*sic*) issue and a new perspective (‘Act AND talk about it’). The next example, as I show below, suggests that Lee indeed had already started to ‘talk about it’ in addition to (and as a means of) acting.

By preparing for and teaching some of the concepts from the curricular unit used in this study (in this case, Cook’s 2005 notion of ‘multicompetence’), Lee had an opportunity to internalize new ways of thinking and, as I will argue, to reorient his teaching. The excerpt below zeroes in on Lee’s actual teaching of the notion of multicompetence to his students. In preparation for this class, Lee created a couple of PowerPoint slides as a way to share with them his understanding of the term. Although Lee had his reservations about Cook (2005) as a researcher, understanding multicompetence as a scientific concept enabled him to present it in a positive light to his students *and* to himself. This allowed him to consciously reflect on ‘difference versus deficiency’ and led him to conclude that, rather than simply moving ‘toward higher proficiency’ in English, his ‘competence’ as a language user includes an ‘expanding’ and ‘overlapping’ knowledge of Korean, Japanese, English, and German.

L: [...] I needed to reflect on this, like, *difference versus deficiency* right? so (well) instead of discussing this, probably I should just show you, *my understanding of multicompetence*, [...]

[...]

L: [...] we saw in Cook that only few people [...] can be really good at driving like [Schumacher] right? so, (alternative), multicompetence. [...] so *I was thinking about myself when I was drawing this* [a slide] so my L1 would be Korean, so that's the language I live by, [...] but in academic field with my reading and writing most of my academic (thinking) I do it with my L2, which is English. so I'm not really good at academic Korean, [...]. so it's like half of my function will be done in L2. L3 is Japanese and I use Japanese only for very particular purpose [...] mostly like social function, ok? so academic, social, and then [L]4 was German. so German I used it to take exam, to pass it and get into PhD. [...] well, *according to my thinking* this is my competence, so it's not only L1, it's not particular language, right? and can you guess what arrows are doing here? you need to really compare this to [or these two] so interlanguage *you have only one arrow* going from low proficiency of English toward the higher proficiency right? but in multicompetence model what do you have? you have each arrow expanding right? from L2 my English is expanding and (more) overlapping with my Korean and my Japanese is expanding too, overlapping somehow with English [...], so these are uh constitutes my competence as a language user so *that's my understanding* [...] so just to help you to grasp this idea (Classroom Observation 1, 9/18)

As was the case with Karina (see Chapter 4), participating in the professional development experiences afforded by the study (e.g., engaging with the NS/NNS dichotomy as a function of teaching it) gave Lee the chance to start articulating a professional identity that reconciled being a NNEST with being a qualified, multicompetent ESL teacher. The theoretical readings on the NS myth and the NS/NNS dichotomy (in this case, Cook's notion of 'multicompetence') enabled Lee to name his experiences and to reconceptualize his linguistic experiences by reflecting on them and by appropriating and populating the 'multicompetence' construct with his own interpretations (Bakhtin, 1982). Put simply, Lee started to think in concepts, in other words, to use the discourse of theory to rethink, reorganize, and rename his experiences. In this case, the scientific concept of 'multicompetence' enabled him to move beyond the notion of 'interlanguage' which, for him, seemed less empowering and validating, in for

example, ‘you have only one arrow going from low proficiency of English toward the higher proficiency’ and downplaying his other languages.

In order to confirm this interpretation, I asked Lee about this process of preparing for, and teaching about the notion of multicompetence during our first stimulated recall session. Lee spoke of the benefits he gained from this experience and stated that it helped him more than his students. This process of first, having the opportunity to think of himself ‘in terms of multicompetence’ and then of feeling ‘more confident’ to the point of responding to a hypothetical criticism (i.e., ‘you don’t sound- sound like American’) is strong indication that Lee started to use multicompetence as a psychological tool to mediate both his thinking (i.e., how he views himself) and his actions (i.e., how to respond to those who might position him as inferior for not sounding ‘American’: “I have other languages than English”):

Davi: [...] what were you having to reflect on when you were putting this [presentation on multicompetence] together?

Lee: well I uh *I never thought myself in terms of multicompetence* [...] so this ag- was actually the first time and then *it made me think about what I do with these languages* so I found I do pretty much different things with languages [...]

[...]

L: [putting the slides together] give me *an opportunity to think about the languages I use* and like uh in what way I want to use it or the purpose that I want to learn them for so that was yeah *a good chance of reflection, for reflecting on myself and the languages*

[...]

L: [...] *I feel more confident with these* like, you know, languages for example if somebody asked me a question like, you know, ‘you don’t sound- sound like American’, then *now I think I can answer like ‘cause I don’t need to speak like American’* [...]

[...]

L: [...] I have other languages than English (so)

Although Lee implied that he had already thought about ‘those ideas’ (i.e., multicompetence), the very process of externalizing his thoughts by having to “actually

sit down at the computer” and then by “drawing diagram of the languages [he] use[s]”

helped him to reorganize and reorient this thinking about himself:

L: actually making that PowerPoint slides kind of, you know, yeah kind of see those ideas clearly, clearer like, you know, I think I used to have those ideas but *it's the first time I actually sit down at the computer* and then like you know *drawing diagram of the languages I use* and then *I have to think about the language* uh to explain this really explicitly to my students right? *so that was totally different thing from just you know reflecting for my own*

[...]

L: *it was the very first time I did this*

[...]

L: [...] actually *this process helped ME*, I think it really helped me more than you know it did with my students so like, uh *I had to think and try to simplify and try to bring to the fore the issues in plain English* and then that really helped me to reflect on this like the multicompetence example so *it's really different uhm when you just think about it and when you are creating a PowerPoint and making notes for your students, not for you.* so just by trying to help your students understand this topic this somehow helps you to understand the topic better. *that was happening to me I think.* yeah (Stimulated Recall 1, 9/24)

As he later explained in more detail, thinking of himself as ‘multicompetent’ meant taking a positive perspective on being a ‘non-native speaker of English’ (i.e., “we have wider range of repertoire that we can u- employ, activate”). In addition, his use of the pronoun ‘we’ suggests that he started to associate himself to a larger group of individuals who may indeed “have any reason to be proud of being non-native speaker”:

[...] I think if we have any reason to be proud of being non-native speaker *that's because we are like, you know, in terms of multi-competence.* that's because we *have wider range of repertoire that we can u- employ, activate,* like, you know, just because I'm a non-native speaker of English that means *I have another language which is you know, which I'm better at.* so it's- I think it's between, you know, purely monolingual and then thinking only in terms of monolingual versus bilingual, you know, I would- I would almost say bilingually-thinking person, yeah so I think it's like uh monolingual versus multilingual. (Stimulated Recall 1, 9/24)

According to the indexicality principle, conceiving of alternative subjectivities for himself through the use and claiming of labels (e.g., ‘bilingually-thinking person’) is a

key process in identity formation (Bucholtz & Hall, 2005). Thus, Lee's experiences and interactions made possible by his participation in the PD experiences afforded by the study encouraged and enabled him to not only think differently about what it means to be 'multicompetent', but also to articulate subjectivities that were empowering to him and to connect himself to a larger linguistic and professional community. For Lee, the subjectivity of being 'multicompetent' (i.e., viewing himself as such) only became possible given his exposure to and engagement with the scientific concept that it is based on.

### **5.7 Summary**

In sum, Lee's subjectivity as a NNS played a major part in how he came to conceptualize his role as an instructor and, consequently, his teaching. His discourse suggested that he perceived being Asian a liability and a NNS, a weakness. He reported feeling self-conscious in social interactions and perceived his use of English grammar to sometimes be a "problem". He commented on his accent as being 'strong' and unavoidable and felt 'unqualified' to teach ESL writing in the U.S. His stated low confidence as an ESL teacher came mainly from not believing he could resort to linguistic intuition while teaching and from his perceived lack of cultural resources. As was the case with Karina, Lee's conceptualization of culture did not allow for a distinction between cultural competence and cultural performance (see Chapter 2). His self-concept as an "underdog" and his low professional confidence prompted him to reorient his activity (i.e., teaching; Verity, 2000) and to conceptualize and enact his

teaching in ways that would allow him to “bring in more [“visible”] expertise” to the classroom.

In addition, Lee’s practical orientation to empowering NNSs and NNESTs led him to the development and implementation of an innovative instructional resource for his students. Lee’s motives for creating this resource (a corpus tool) are linked to a view of his students (and of himself) as deficient users of English. Thus, for him, ‘empowering’ his ESL students meant giving them access to the genre and linguistic features of American academic writing through the tool. But the corpus tool worked as a mediational tool not only for the students, but also for himself.

Finally, my interactions with Lee functioned as spaces of collaborative critical inquiry through which his self-concept, as well as his thinking and beliefs about the NS/NNS dichotomy, the NS myth, and his instruction were destabilized, probed, and challenged. The mediational spaces afforded by the study also helped Lee to become more conscious of the relationship between his professional self-concept and his teaching. Once his understanding of his teaching practice became explicit, it was open to “dialogic mediation that can promote reorganization and refinement” (Johnson, 2009, p. 66). In addition, by preparing for and teaching some of the scientific concepts from the curricular unit used in this study, Lee had an opportunity to begin to internalize new ways of thinking and to reorient his teaching. Overall, participating in the PD experiences afforded by the study gave Lee the chance to start articulating a professional identity that reconciled being a NNEST with being a qualified, multicompetent ESL teacher. He started to use the discourse of theory to rethink, reorganize, and rename his experiences.

## CHAPTER 6

### STUDENTS: THINKING THROUGH SCIENTIFIC CONCEPTS

In this chapter, I present the analysis of how the experiences engendered by the instructional activities embedded in this study created the potential to shape how students came to think and write about themselves as speakers and users of English. But before proceeding, I must note that my intention with the following analysis is by no means to suggest that the data presented here is representative of all (or even most) student participants involved. Rather, I argue that such processes and experiences are *possible* in the context of L2 writing instruction and indeed *desirable*. In addition, it is important to keep in mind that from a sociocultural perspective, all humans are unique individuals who tread unique developmental paths. That is, even though students might have a comparable educational level and similar goals, they will, due to their own sociocultural histories and agency, have reacted differently to the learning environment facilitated by this study. Furthermore, my goal in showing how a few of the participating students came to articulate different views and beliefs should not be taken as evidence that all students neatly and linearly changed their thinking about (or even so much as reflected in depth about) the NS/NNS dichotomy and their subjectivities as English speakers. My argument, therefore, is that *for a few students*, the types of assignments and learning situations created by this study contributed to their complex identity development processes; in other words orienting to, verbalizing and (re)articulating, and beginning to reconceptualize their understanding of the NS/NNS dichotomy and of themselves.

In addition, as discussed in the methodology section, it is important to note that each instructor adapted the NS/NNS instructional unit to suit her/his own instructional objectives, students' needs, and teaching style. Therefore, although the students were asked to read the same texts (Cook, G., 2003; Cook, V., 2005; Matsuda, 2003; Kirkpatrick, 2007; Avis, no date; Ringbom, 2001), they ended up producing somewhat different written products. Recall that the original unit called for a written response to five questions on the labels "native speaker" and "non-native speaker" (based on Cook, 2003 and Kirkpatrick, 2007; see Appendix A, Day 4, Activity 3), a "comparative summary" of Cook (2005, p. 47-50) and Matsuda (2003) (see Appendix A, Day 6), and a self-annotated academic reaction paper to Cook's (2005) article and the notion of 'multicompetence' (see Appendix A, Day 10). In Lee's case, however, he asked students to write a précis (i.e., summary) and reaction for Cook (2003), whereas Karina did not. Likewise, Karina had her students answer a series of questions (see Appendix A, Day 4, Activity 3) which Lee's students did not. To compound the issue, not all written products (e.g., reactions, drafts, summaries, etc.) were collected by the teachers (see Methodology section). For the analysis that follows, this meant that tracing a particular student's identity development over time became an exceedingly difficult, if not impossible task. Nonetheless, the ensuing discussion will focus on how students' participation in the study entailed various learning experiences and cognitive processes that created the potential to mediate their thinking in significant ways.

## 6.1 Exposure to Scientific Concepts: Orienting, Verbalization, and Intersubjectivity

All students were asked to read texts that problematized an idealized native speaker and its possible definitions, the NS/NNS dichotomy, nativised varieties of English, multicompetence, and the problematic nature of labels such as NS and NNS, among other relevant concepts. From a sociocultural perspective, the opportunity to read about such notions (i.e., scientific concepts) made it possible for students to learn about (and potentially later internalize) new psychological tools with which to name their experiences, legitimize their emotions, and consider different ways of being and of thinking about themselves (i.e., their identities). In other words, students were oriented to the NS/NNS dichotomy and labels by first reading (and sometimes responding to) relevant theoretical texts on these issues.

Evidence that some students fully understood the notions they were reading about comes from the précis (i.e., a neutral and concise summary and representation of the text) they were asked to write in response to, in the excerpt below, Cook (2005):

The author firstly posts a question about if the native speaker target is attainable. He states the number of L2 learners who have attained the target is very small. Native speakers are people who learnt the language first in childhood. According to this definition, L2 learners can never be native speakers. The author thinks there is a problem with using the native speaker target. Since L2 users are defined depending on native speakers, *the comparison between them is loaded. Just like we cannot say black Americans are deficient white Americans, language of working-class children is deficient language of middle-class children, or women are deficient men, it does not work to treat L2 users as failed native speakers. L2 users have the right to speak English as L2 users rather than as deficient native speakers. L2 users should be judged by what they are, and should never be defined according to native speakers.* (Qinyi<sup>9</sup>, précis, Lee's class, 9/16)

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<sup>9</sup> All student names are pseudonyms

Here, this student is articulating her understanding of Cook's argument that "L2 learners" rarely attain the same level of proficiency as "native speakers" if we assume that proficiency is a result of learning the language from childhood. This student also articulated the difference between "L2 learners" and "L2 users" as posited by Cook. More importantly, précis goals aside, she demonstrated her understanding of Cook's argument by stating that "the comparison between [L2 users and NSs] is loaded". She then provides very concrete examples, albeit the same provided by Cook, to support her understanding of the argument by citing issues of race, social class, and gender. Although towards the end of her précis we must assume that she is stating Cook's views rather than necessarily her own, it is clear that she understood his basic argument given her statement that "L2 users have the right to speak English as L2 users rather than as deficient native speakers".

The very nature of the précis (i.e., a short, succinct, and loyal reproduction of the author's ideas and arguments) gave this student the opportunity to show her understanding of the issues being presented from the author's perspective. Although evidence that this student's understanding of Cook's argument should not be conflated with her internalizing of it, it certainly represents a step in that direction. That is, for this psychological tool (i.e., Cook's, 2005, scientifically-informed argument that L2 users are not 'deficient speakers', p. 50) to move from the external/social plane to the novice's internal/individual plane, the student must first understand the (scientific) concept from the expert's point of view (i.e., intersubjectivity; Wertsch, 1985). Based on the excerpt above, this seems indeed to be the case.

## 6.2 Grounding Scientific Concepts in Practical Concrete Examples

Participation in the study gave students an opportunity to go beyond reading about and summarizing scientific concepts to actively reflecting on their views, experiences and emotions by means of writing *in response to* the assigned readings and scientific concepts. Several of the writing assignments (e.g., short reactions and formal academic reaction papers) made it possible for students to articulate not only the views of the authors whose texts they read, but their own. Thus, in responding to the readings through their own writing, students were able to verbalize their everyday concepts (based on their lived experiences), externalize their current thinking, and begin to articulate different, more empowering ways of thinking, acting, and feeling.

For example, one of the early writing assignments that Karina's students were asked to complete included answering the following questions (see Appendix A for a full description of the assignment) in light of Cook (2003) and Kirkpatrick (2007):

1. Why has the term "native speaker" become noticeably problematic?
2. Why do the terms "native" and "non-native speakers" seem to have a racial bias built in?
3. What is a good example of someone who is neither a native nor a nonnative speaker of English?
4. Would you categorize yourself as a native or non-native speaker of English? Why? Do you feel there is any negative connotation to how you categorize yourself?

These questions provided students with an opportunity to not only reflect on their

thinking, experiences, and feelings on the topic, but just as importantly, with a chance to articulate and externalize them. These questions, given their content and wording, functioned as strategic mediation (Wertsch, 1985) by pushing students to rethink their views and/or reposition themselves as English speakers.

The first question engendered the following response from a Malay student. In it, she acknowledges that “everyone has different ideas” about the “native speaker” label, which is even more problematic and “ambiguous” in a “complex world” where people “can speak multiple languages” and where “the original English is influenced by the community culture”:

[...] everyone has different ideas and perceptions about the term “native speaker”. In addition, *the criterion to be a native speaker has become very ambiguous as we are living in a non-specify and complex world*. For example, a Korean born child spoke Korean language during his childhood. Then, he moved to United Kingdom and now speaks English every day. He then started to forget the Korean language as he uses it lesser and lesser each day. *That is when the question arises whether he is a native speaker of Korean language or not*. On top of that, there are places where English is not formerly used but then has developed. But, *the original English is influenced by the community culture*. [...] Other than that, people begin to learn other languages each day. As he really acquire a new language, *question what is his native language come up as he now can speak multiple languages*. (Student 1, Activity 3, Karina’s class, 9/14)

In this excerpt we see the student using a concrete example (“a Korean-born child” who “moved to the United Kingdom and now speaks English every day”) to explain why the term “native speaker” might be problematic. Thus, she was able to ground this term in a concrete practical example and relate that example to the problematized notion of a ‘native-speaker’ presented in the course readings. Such opportunities enable learners to avoid *empty verbalism*, where they can name the scientific concepts that they are reading about but have not internalized these concepts in such a way that they become

psychological tools for thinking. Vygotsky (1986) recognized this fact, that “scientific concepts ... just start their development, rather than finish it, at a moment when the child learns the term or word-meaning denoting the new concept” (p. 159). It is interesting to note that the example she chose to use extrapolated her own nationality and ethnicity, which suggests an even deeper understanding of the ambiguity of the “native speaker” label that goes beyond her personal and immediate experiences.

The next excerpt, regarding the racial bias usually associated with the labels “native speaker” and “non-native speaker”, shows how this particular student, also from Malaysia, was able to understand, in light of some of the terminology and concepts she learned in class, the power relations involved in gaining access (or not) to the “title” of native speaker. Although this student did not use the term “nativised varieties” (used in Kirkpatrick, 2007) in her response, she demonstrated her understanding of the author’s argument that “whether speakers of nativised varieties are native speakers or non-native speakers is debated” (p. 5):

*The invention of the term native and non-native speakers seem to have racial bias. [...] The native speakers of English usually referred to British, American and Australian people. However, for those who learned English in Indonesia, they are considered as the non-native speakers of English. No matter if their parents educated them with English during childhood, it seems impossible for them to gain the native speakers title as they already grew up in a country that declare Indonesian as the official language. In a way, we can see that it is difficult to simply have the title ‘native speaker’ of that language if we do not stay or growing up in that certain country. (Student 2, Activity 3, Karina’s class, 9/14)*

The use of a hypothetical example (“those who learned English in Indonesia” ... “during childhood”) that challenges the clear cut distinction between NSs versus NNSs suggests that this student started to appropriate Kirkpatrick’s scientific concept (i.e., the problematizing of the NS and NNS labels) to articulate her own belief that “it is difficult

to simply have the title ‘native speaker’ of that language if we do not stay or growing up in that certain country”. In other words, gaining “the title ‘native speaker’” has more to do with birth right than with one’s ability to speak English.

The third question encouraged students to think of people who did not easily accommodate the stereotype of either a NS or a NNS. Although not all students were able to think of a specific person (instead referring to Indian speakers, for example), some of them were able to list close friends, relatives, or, as shown below, celebrities. What is revealing about the following excerpt is the student’s awareness of how one’s “appearance and race”, as well as one’s “context”, play a role in whether or not an otherwise “native speaker” who speaks English “flawlessly” is considered as such by “people”.

Utada Hikaru is a famous international celebrity. She was born in New York City [...] to Japanese parents. *In her context* [family background?], she is not a native speaker of English because she is Japanese. With her appearance and race, people would not consider her as a native speaker of English. However, she is also not a nonnative speaker of English. Since she lives in America since childhood, she can communicate in English *flawlessly*. (Student 3, Activity 3, Karina’s class, 9/14)

This question pushed this student to apply the scientific concepts from Cook (2003) and Kirkpatrick (2007) by asking her to identify someone who defies easy categorization (in this case, a popular, young Japanese-American singer). This exercise then enabled this student to problematize, through a practical example, just to what extent one’s place of birth, place of residence, race, and ethnicity play a role in whether “people” would consider one a NS or NNS of English. From a sociocultural perspective, this question made it possible for this student to both understand the authors’ main arguments (intersubjectivity) and to begin to internalize these psychological tools as ways

to understand these labels in more critically. Notice that this student seemed to make it clear that while “people” would not consider the singer a NS, she believes that she (the singer) is “not a nonnative speaker of English”. This simple, yet creative change of the stereotypical label (i.e., “nonnative speaker of English”) by adding the ‘non’ prefix to it, according to the indexicality principle (Bucholtz & Hall, 2005), points to this students’ attempt to start constructing different subjectivities for those who do not neatly fit the stereotypes.

The fourth question enabled students to think of their own experiences and feelings in light of the readings assigned. In the excerpt below, the student seems to indicate that the ownership of English can no longer be claimed by inner-circle countries. For him, English “is a universal language” that can be used “to communicate with people from different walks of life”.

I believe that I am a non native speaker of English. I speak the language because it is a universal language, understood and spoken by most of the people in the world. I would be a native speaker of [H]indi, because that is my identity, and it is the language I was brought up speaking. No, *I don't feel that there is any negative connotation on how I recognize myself*, the reason being, English is a universal language and the most common that is used to communicate around the world. I speak English because I wish to communicate with people from different walks of life. (Student 4, Activity 3, Karina's class, 9/14)

Here, by conceptualizing English as “a universal language” “used to communicate around the world” (certainly a view endorsed by both Cook, 2003 and Kirkpatrick, 2007), this student is able to avoid “any negative connotation” from his self-perceived status as a NNS, a label usually associated with such negative connotations for many. The notion that English “is the most common” [language for global communication] enables him to

“communicate with people from different walks of life” and, more importantly, gives him the option of retaining his chose subjectivity as “a native speaker of [H]indi”.

For a US-born student of Korean descent (Matthew), the traditional definition of NS cannot explain or accommodate his own subjectivities as a native speaker of Korean, English, and Spanish. Through the questions from the activity described above, he was able to articulate his own definition of NS, one through which he “can have many different native languages”. He uses himself as an example (albeit initially concealed by a seemingly hypothetical one) to challenge the traditional definition and, in doing so, negotiates a space where his own cultural and linguistic experiences and background can be validated and legitimized. Furthermore, Matthew directly confronts the assumption that only Caucasians can be considered NSs of English. As he put it, “race has nothing to do with native ‘language’”:

The term native is a very vague and complicated term to define. [...] I define a native as *a person who has been raised with a certain culture and has adapted to that culture through the years he or she has lived*. Therefore, *one can have many different native languages if [t]his person has lived in many countries for long periods of time*. [...] The [traditional] definition cannot explain the situation of a family that’s from a different culture and has immigrated to another country as a first generation. Furthermore, if this new foreign family has a child and was born in the new country, *it is possible for him to be native in two or more languages*. For example, I’m Korean by blood and I speak Korean, English and Spanish fluently. I have been born in the United States and have learned their language as a young child, and then I moved to Latin America where I have lived for most of my life where I learned Spanish as well. *I believe that I am native in three different languages because I have learned to speak the languages fluently*.

The term native can cause some problems when considering someone’s identity. [...] Just because someone is from a different race from the country of birth does not mean that the person is not native in the official language of their country of birth. Race has nothing to do with native “language”. [...]

[...]

I would consider myself as a native English speaker because I have been born in an English speaking country and because I have spoken it during most of my life. But *I would not consider English as my only native language*. Spanish and Korean

would also be included in it because I have lived in a Spanish speaking country with a Korean Speaking family.[...] (Mathew, Activity 3, Karina's class, 9/14)

Although it seems that this student's conceptualization of what it means to be a NS is still somewhat inconsistent (i.e., he wasn't "born" in either Korea or a South American country, yet considers himself a native speaker of both Korean and Spanish), his response to this assignment suggests that he has started to undergo some fundamental changes (i.e., "one can have many different languages") in the way he thinks about native-speaker-ness and himself as a multilingual speaker.

In sum, asking students to read Cook (2003) and Kirkpatrick (2005) gave them the opportunity to learn about the NS/NNS dichotomy in a formal educational setting in a systematic fashion. More importantly, this assignment gave students the chance to reflect on and externalize their own views (everyday concepts) regarding this dichotomy, to articulate two experts' understanding of the dichotomy and, based on this understanding, rearticulate their conceptualization of the dichotomy and of themselves as English speakers.

### **6.3 Verbalization and Negotiation Through Writing**

In addition to the assignment discussed above, the "Academic Reaction Paper" (ARP) made it possible for students to reflect in more depth about the scientific concepts they were exposed to. More specifically, the ARP asked students to compose a short (4 to 5 pages) reaction to Cook (2005) (see Appendix B for the ARP prompt and grading scale). Essentially, this assignment asked students to both summarize and respond to the

key concepts put forth by Cook, including the NS myth. The excerpts included below are from one of Karina's focal students (Jon) and from one of Lee's focal students (Qinyi).

The first excerpt suggests that for Jon, a Korean student, "most people" view L2 speakers in a "negative" and "incorrect" light (i.e., as "inferior"). He concurs with Cook's (2005) point that L2 speakers should not be defined in opposition to NSs and suggests that the label L1 speaker be used to describe monolinguals and the term L2 speaker to describe bilingual persons. Redefining this relationship, Jon argues, is an "extremely critical process" to discourage discrimination. In addition, he argues that English learners themselves, by operating under the misguided assumption that L2 speakers are inferior, may lose their confidence and miss the opportunity to improve their English speaking skills:

*Most people, namely, have incorrect and negative recognitions; for example, generally L2 speakers are inferior thought of as L1 speakers. When confront with English at the first time, *English learners* also have this incorrect concept in their mind. [This notion] makes them lose the decisive chance to improve and jump to one step higher than before. In other words, they have already lost their confidences when getting started to learn English. This wrong recognition of relationship of two of them, accordingly, *should be changed from superior-inferior relationship to equal positioned relationship*. For accomplishing the goal, at first, the definition of two words should be changed that L1 speaker means *mono-lingual (the people who can communicate other people using only one language)* and L2 speaker means *bi-lingual (the people who can communicate other people using two languages)*. [...] [T]he relationship between L1 speaker and L2 speaker should be readjusted to correct direction - , namely, Not NS and NNS but *the equal position*. If not, *this can be still said to a sort of linguistic discriminations*. Therefore, *it is extremely critical process to define the relationship correctly to prevent both speaking groups from receiving the wrong discrimination*. Because of these reasons, *it is persuasive for Cook (2005) to emphasize the change of the concept about the relationship between L1 speaker and L2 speaker is needed*. [...] [I]t is time to change our incorrect mind and posture to right way. [...] *As reading many kinds of article about learning English, I can realize that [...] we can approach English more easily and [...] improve our ability to communicate with English more successfully.* (Jon, ARP, Karina's class, 10/21)*

This excerpt suggests that the content of the readings (i.e., scientific concepts) and the opportunity to write about them created a space in which Jon was able to position himself as different from “most people” in that he now understands that L2 speakers tend to be viewed as “inferior”, including by ESL learners themselves. Jon also seemed to take on a more critical stance, which he operationalizes by suggesting alternative ways to conceptualize L1 and L2 speakers, as well as the relationship between them (i.e., “equal position”). It is interesting to note that Jon ends his ARP by including himself in the group of those who, he claims, need to change their “incorrect mind”, suggesting that perhaps this was a new way of thinking for him.

This second example, written by a Chinese student (Qinyi), indicates that she has started to appropriate (“I personally support”) Cook’s argument that “L2 learners are not deficient native speakers”. Based on this argument, she then moves from her personal stake on this (“I”) to a joint responsibility (“We”) of all involved. To support her position, she resorts to the notion that the NS concept is “blurred”, a notion very possibly learned by reading previous articles, given that Cook (2005) does not problematize the traditional definition of NS. She also strips the idealized NS of its cloak of perfection by stating that “[E]verybody”, NS or not, “can make mistakes” and “may need to study a language all through his or her life”. Finally, she starts to reconceptualize her own experience (as a competent user of both Chinese and English, rather than a deficient NS) through the ‘multicompetence’ construct put forth by Cook (2005):

*After reading Cook’s article, I feel that it is important for us to eliminate the bias against L2 learners. I personally support the idea that L2 learners are not deficient native speakers. We should not judge L2 users based on native speakers.*

Firstly, native speaker is a blurred concept. One of the reasonable definitions maybe a person speaking the language they learnt first in childhood (Cook, 2005). [...] [A]ccording to that definition, it seems that L2 users can never reach the stage of native speakers (Cook, 2005). [...] So why L2 users should keep trying to achieve a target that they can never achieve? [...]

Moreover, [...] [e]ven [monolinguals] can make mistakes easily. They also need to improve their language ability. I have been speaking Chinese for 19 years, but I am still not good at academic Chinese writing since I am studying in U.S.. [E]verybody may need to study a language all through his or her life even he or she is a native speaker. *We should not cast a biased eye on L2 learners thinking they ought to be learners forever.*

[...] *This is related to the term multicompetence*. For example, I am Chinese; my multicompetence is the ability to use Chinese and English. Although I cannot speak perfect English, I can speak great Chinese. I use English just for academic writing and social purpose. It is obvious that people should not compare my English with native speakers'. [...]. Thus, *it is unacceptable to call me deficient English speaker*. They should treat me as a Chinese person who is a L2 learner of English. (Qinyi, ARP, Lee's class, 10/04)

As with Mathew, Qinyi's conceptualization of what it means to be a NS is still somewhat inconsistent. For example, after stating that NSs also "make mistakes", she seems to imply that there is such a thing as "perfect English". Nonetheless, in using and at times appropriating some of Cook's (2005) notions Qinyi is able to voice her own view ("we should not judge L2 users based on native speakers"), challenge the idealized notion of an error-free NS, and rearticulate an understanding of herself as an "L2 learner of English" whose "multicompetence" lies in her "ability to use Chinese and English". In other words, by 'trying on', experimenting with, and claiming different labels and subjectivities (e.g., 'L2 learner', 'L2 user', 'Chinese person', 'deficient English speaker') (Bucholtz & Hall, 2005), Qinyi attempts to reorient her view of herself (and others) as speakers of English.

#### 6.4 Verbalization and Negotiation Through Social Interaction

Because the readings engendered class discussions around several key issues, students had an opportunity to verbalize and negotiate their views in meaningful social interactions among themselves and with their instructors. These discussions included topics as varied as what it means to be (or not) a native speaker (i.e., the ideology behind ‘nativeness’); possible definitions of ‘L2 learner’ and ‘L2 user’; whether L2 learners can ‘become’ NSs if they so desire; whether one’s cultural affinity to English plays a role in their level of proficiency; and whether one can be a native speaker of multiple languages. These opportunities to publicly (i.e., among peers and instructor) externalize their thinking and negotiate meanings created conditions in which they were encouraged to consider alternative subjectivities.

In Karina’s first classroom observation, for example, the discussion around Matsuda’s (2003) short piece and Cook’s argument for “basing teaching on the L2 user” (Cook, 2005) brought up a lively discussion where several students participated by expressing their emerging views and opinions. In the excerpt below, a Korean student (Jon) expressed to Karina and to his peers a shift in his prior belief that “the [ESL] teacher should be a native speaker”. He implies that “after reading this article” (Cook, 2005), his views underwent some change, even if unclear exactly how:

*I am very impressed about this second article [Cook, 2005] because of the- even-even [though] I thought that the [ESL] teacher should be a native speaker, however, after reading this article [Cook, 2005], I think it makes sense (xx) no native speaker teacher know about how hard the non-native speakers uh, learn English, [...] I think that is the main focus about this article [K: yes] (Jon, Classroom Observation, Karina’s class, 9/18)*

In this case, the opportunity to verbalize his understanding of the article to his peers and have it ratified by the instructor (an expert other) provided Jon with the interpersonal plane against which to externalize a new way of thinking (i.e., challenging the NS myth). Jon's ability to do this suggests that he has begun to internalize a different understanding of "[ESL] teacher".

In the same classroom observation, another student was able to relate his own multilingual background to that of Ringbom's (2003). As the instructor, Karina, was reviewing with the students the main points from Ringbom's reading, Mathew (a US-born student of Korean descent who grew up in South America and who speaks English, Spanish, and Korean) was able to identify with Ringbom's multicultural and somewhat geographically dispersed experience:

Mathew: well, is Swedish and Finnish the same thing?

Karina: what is it?

M: Swedish and Finnish

K: no

M: no? *so he's trilingual*

K: *yes, trilingual.* uh-huh

M: *so he's kind of trilingual like me?*

K: *right. uh-huh* (Matthew, Classroom Observation, Karina's class, 9/18)

Mathew's realization that others (and in this case, cast in a very positive light) share his multilingual background, as well as Karina's ratification of his trilingual background most likely appeared to create a space for Mathew to reconceptualize himself as such. Indeed, Mathew's intonation when saying "so he's trilingual like me?" was not that of a question, but rather as if to suggest a pleasant new discovery had just been made. From a sociocultural perspective on identity realization, individuals construct, display, and manage their identities in the context of their social relations (Cross & Gearon, 2007;

Holland & Lachicotte Jr., 2007) and by drawing from recognizable social types (in this case, “trilingual”). For Matthew to see himself as “trilingual”, he must first realize that such subjectivity is available to him to begin with.

The following excerpt is an interesting example of how both the instructor, Karina, as well as some of her students, engaged in a powerful discussion around the labels “L2 learner” and “L2 user”. Cook’s (2005) main argument here is that “When L2 research [...] talks about people who speak second languages as ‘L2 learners’ it implies that no person using a L2 succeed in getting to a state of using the language properly” (i.e., “we are no more justified in saying that an L2 user is a perpetual L2 learner than we are in saying an adult native speaker is still learning their first language”) (p. 48). In sharing her own interpretation of Cook’s point, Karina made the two labels explicit and visible to students. Jon, a Korean student, then took advantage of this opportunity to state that, in his view, “learner” has connotations of “inferior” and “negative”. Karina ratified both of these words by repeating them. Mathew, then, sought to categorize himself and his peers by asking “what would we be?” A student offered “L2 user”, which suggests he prefers this label rather than “learner” (in Cook’s terms). Karina ends this discussion by pointing out that students were free to “agree or disagree”, as “it’s open for discussion”:

Karina: so Cook [2005] talks about that in the past uh it was very customary to talk about L2 learners, right? so for people who\_ [...] could speak a second language, right? they were called L2 learners.

S (unidentified): so-

K: so *there was this idea that they do not really know this language, they are learning it*. right? but [he] says that maybe? we should talk about L2 users. right? so *as long as you can communicate in the second language, right? successfully, you talk to people, you express your meaning, and you interpret their meanings? right? there’s some understanding and communication? you’re ok, right? you’re an L2 user* right? *you’re not a learner anymore*, you can talk to people.

Jon: learner mean- (xx) *imply inferior, (the) negative*

K: yeah, the learner (xx) some kind of *inferior*- yeah you're right or *negative connotation* right? so *maybe L2 user would be more appropriate*  
 Mathew: so like what would we be?  
 K: what would you be? <laugh>  
 S (unidentified): huh?  
 K: huh?  
 S (unidentified): (xx)  
 S (unidentified): L2 user  
 K: L2 users? do you like that? <laugh> *it's open for discussion*, right? [he; Cook] presents [his] view right? [he] *questions the assumptions that were before*, right? *you may agree or disagree*. ok? (Classroom Observation, Karina's class, 9/23)

This socially situated mediational space allowed students to express and appropriate, even if fleetingly, Cook's proposed scientific concept (and subjectivity) of "L2 user". This moment, however brief, gave students an opportunity to (re)create their understanding of themselves as L2 users (a more empowering subjectivity, according to Cook) by discursively negotiating related labels and subjectivities (Bucholtz & Hall, 2005). Thus, by reviewing Cook's points through a class discussion, focusing on the two key labels in Cook's discussion (L2 learner and L2 user), and ratifying the notion that "learner" has a "negative connotation" compared to user, Karina allowed students to voice their own preferred subjectivity of L2 user (at least for those who voiced it). In addition, Matthew's question ("what would we be?") indicates that this type of discussion prompted a few students to understand these scientific concepts by infusing them with their own personal background and experiences.

In the exchanges below, both the instructor and the students grapple with what it means to be a "native speaker" and what criteria is involved in defining one as such. This exchange suggests that students wish to categorize and be categorized into clear-cut, dichotomous categories (native vs. non-native). It also implies that for another Chinese student, Xuhua, being a native speaker means to speak a language "perfectly". But in this

case, a relative of hers seems to defy easy stereotyping. She was born in China and learned Chinese as her first language, but now “her English is better than Chinese” and she can speak it “perfectly”. Karina’s question about her age suggests that for her, age was a criterion for determining this person’s native language. Yet, Karina opens this case up for discussion by asking students “what do you guys think?”. Although Matthew can’t quite articulate Cook’s point (i.e., in the context of arguing for the label “L2 user”, Cook claims that “A person of fifty who has used a language all their lives is not called an L1 learner; why should their use of a second language for, say thirty years still be deemed learning?” p. 48), he attempted to use a new concept to understand the situation at hand. Karina, then, argues that “maybe it’s also a question of her personal identity” and the “culture that she associates herself with”. Eventually, Matthew makes the connection between his own background and the cousin Xuhua spoke of. He claims then that he is a “balanced bilingual”:

Xuhua: *how do you define the people like? when he was young and immigrate to US, but\_ like my uncle’s daughter? she (is from China)\_ she immigrate to, California six years ago, now she cannot speak like perfectly Chinese, but she can speak perfectly English, as native speaker. is she a native speaker now?*

Kung: of what? of what language?

X: of English.

K: of English? she went- what age (did she immigrate?)

X: eight

K: eight? so *what do you guys think?*

Mathew: *the text also says something like- like an L2 user can become a (xx) something like that because you can’t be a learner for thirty years or something and by then (you’re probably using) both languages all the time (xx)*

[...]

K: her English is kind of native right?

X: her English is better than Chinese

K: ok. ok. so *what do you think?*

[...]

K: right right. *so maybe it's also a question of her personal identity?* what culture that she associates herself with, what community does she- does she feel comfortable with?

Kung: I think both

K: both? right?

M: it's kind of like me. (I speak) Spanish since I was six, and like me and my family we both use both languages a lot. like to my parents I always speak Spanish, to my brothers I always speak English. *I consider myself a balanced bilingual*. (Classroom Observation, Karina's class, 9/23)

Although Matthew's understanding of Cook's point is still emergent and not completely formed, this excerpt is evidence of how scientific concepts can potentially be taken up by students and then used to articulate their own subjectivities. The term "balanced bilingual" came from Cook's text, although he defined it as describing "equally native-like in both languages, like a double monolingual rather than an L2 user" (p. 49). This excerpt also illustrates how teachers can play a role in helping students to grapple with and problematize labels. Rather than simply accepting a biological factor (age) as a defining criterion for "nativeness", Karina opened up the discussion and suggested the speaker's cultural affinity and identity as possible criteria for how she envisions herself.

## 6.5 Summary

In sum, through varied and meaningful instructional activities, some students were able to learn about, reflect on, and externalize their current and emerging understanding on the NS/NNS dichotomy and to (re)articulate their subjectivities both privately and publicly. The nature of the experiences and processes engendered by this study created a space for students to start thinking differently about the NS/NNS

dichotomy and to begin to reorient how they think, write, and speak about themselves based on scientific concepts. Although such experiences may not be representative of all student participants involved, my claim is that they are possible and desirable in the context of L2 writing instruction. And although students are unique individuals of different sociocultural histories and levels of agency, these data suggest that the types of assignments and learning situations discussed above contributed to their complex developmental paths.

Students were oriented to the NS/NNS dichotomy and labels by first reading relevant texts on this topic. This is a necessary step if scientific concepts are to move from the external/social plane to the novice's internal/individual plane as psychological tools. Thus, the opportunity to read about scientific concepts relevant to the NS/NNS dichotomy made it possible for students to learn about (and potentially later internalize) new psychological tools with which to (re)name their experiences, legitimize their emotions, and consider different ways of being and of thinking about themselves.

In addition, the writing assignments appeared to push students to rethink their views and/or reposition themselves as English speakers. Students were able to reflect on and externalize their own views (everyday concepts) regarding the NS dichotomy, to articulate experts' understanding of the dichotomy and, based on this understanding, rearticulate their conceptualization of the dichotomy and of themselves as English speakers. The ARPs, in particular, created a space where it was possible for students to reflect in more depth about, and to appropriate some of the scientific concepts they were exposed to. These concepts enabled some students to position themselves differently (as multicompetent) and to take a critical stance on the issue.

Because the readings engendered class discussions around several key issues, students had an opportunity to verbalize and negotiate their views in meaningful social interactions among themselves and with their instructors. These discussions included topics as varied as what it means, ideologically, to be a native speaker; how to define the labels 'L2 learner' and 'L2 user'; whether L2 learners can attain NS status; the role cultural affinity plays in one's level of proficiency; and whether one can be a native speaker of several languages. These opportunities to publicly (i.e., among peers and instructor) externalize their thinking and negotiate meanings enabled some students to begin to articulate alternative subjectivities.

## CHAPTER 7

### DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, AND CONCLUSION

Although NNESTs comprise the vast majority of teachers of English to speakers of other languages (TESOL) worldwide (Canagarajah, 1999), the NS myth (Phillipson, 1992) and an idealized notion of what constitutes a native speaker (Leung et al, 1997) continue to marginalize NNESTs and the TESOL profession as a whole. And although these ideologies have been challenged by applied linguists (Cook, 1999; Rampton, 1990), they continue to frustrate NNESTs' attempts to assert and negotiate an identity as legitimate TESOL professionals. At a practical level, they work to exclude NNESTs from employment and influence in the field regardless of their professional qualifications. Thus, a "standard" English accent and a Caucasian appearance are still seen as commodities, those not 'possessing' them being at a disadvantage in securing employment and in asserting themselves professionally.

Within this sociopolitical context, it is necessary to understand the process(es) through which NNESTs can achieve a sense of professional legitimacy and work to contest such ideological discourses. To that end, this dissertation examines the influences of the NS myth on NNESTs' professional lives and how PD can support them. Its main goal is to understand the process(es) through which NNESTs (and their students) can be empowered to recognize, acknowledge, and contest dominant discourses that position them as second-rate. It draws from critical pedagogy, narrative inquiry, and teacher

identity to examine the everyday world of NNESTs' professional identities. In addition, it draws on a sociocultural theoretical perspective on identity realization in order to trace how participation in PD experiences supports NNEST's attempts to (re)position themselves as a legitimate English teaching professional.

## 7.1 Discussion

### **7.1.1 Research Question 1: How does a focus on NNEST-related issues (implemented through readings, online discussions, and a dialogic blog) support NNESTs' attempts to explore, conceive of, articulate, and internalize identities with which to (re)position themselves as legitimate English teaching professionals?**

The processes involved in NNESTs' internalization of legitimizing professional subjectivities are neither simple, linear, nor easy. On the contrary, the findings of this study suggest that they require complex mediational tools and processes and a willingness to uncover and work through painful emotions. Opening oneself up to discussion, especially when it threatens one's own sense of self and self-esteem, is arduous work. Nonetheless, it is the very tension between the cognitive and the emotional (two sides of the same coin for Vygotsky) that can be used as a site for fostering development. Although empowering subjectivities may have been made 'available' by Applied Linguists (Cook, 2005; Rampton, 1990), the results from this study suggest that the process of exploring, conceiving of, articulating, and internalizing such subjectivities may not happen without a concerted effort to support and scaffold NNESTs to be able to do so. As a theoretical lens, sociocultural theory helps explain how the types of activities reported here (i.e., reading scientific concepts, writing about them, and talking about

them) mediated the transformation of NNESTs' subjectivities by making these efforts visible and, therefore, attainable. As a theoretical perspective, sociocultural theory helps teacher educators to see shifts in NNESTs' identity development, their struggles in (re)negotiating empowering subjectivities, and the inherent complexities involved in supporting and enhancing their professional expertise. Because these processes are complex, they require strategic mediation, opportunities for exploration and verbalization.

NNESTs' professional subjectivities play a major part in how they conceptualize their professional roles and, consequently, their teaching practice. For Lee, for example, his desire to empower his students was founded in his perception of himself as lacking in NS intuition and cultural resources. NNESTs' interactions with teacher educators can function as spaces of collaborative critical inquiry through which their self-concept, as well as their thinking and beliefs about the NS/NNS dichotomy, the NS myth, and their instruction can be destabilized, probed, and challenged. Through the types of PD experiences reported here, NNESTs can begin to move from everyday conceptualizations regarding the NS/NNS dichotomy to a more complex understanding informed by theoretical concepts. They can use the discourse of theory to rethink, reorganize, and (re)name their experiences. They can begin to (re)articulate their assumptions, beliefs, and emotions, as well as the relationship between their professional subjectivities and their teaching, so as to make them visible. Once their understanding of themselves and of their practice becomes visible, it also becomes open to "dialogic mediation that can promote reorganization and refinement" (Johnson, 2009, p. 66). Finally, through the social relations and interactions that occur as a result of these sorts of PD, NNESTs can

begin to reposition themselves professionally in relation to a community of scholars and practitioners who have struggled with their same struggles and who have proposed alternative ways of thinking about them.

Although as a theoretical lens sociocultural theory can make visible the cognitive processes and mediational means and spaces through which NNESTs' subjectivities can be transformed, it is also necessary to understand the mechanisms by which such subjectivities can be (de)constructed in and through discourse itself. In this light, the indexicality principle (Bucholtz & Hall, 2005) is a powerful tool for understanding the intricacies involved in NNESTs' processes of shifting identities and taking on empowering professional subjectivities. Understanding such intricacies can be a valuable tool not only for NNESTs themselves, but also for the teacher educators who work with them.

The most basic linguistic means for constructing more empowering positionings lies in choosing to use certain identity categories and labels. For NNESTs, this means that different labels (e.g., NNS, NNEST, L2 speaker, L2 user, bilingual speaker, multicompetent) can carry different connotations, and choosing one over the other as a self-identifier can vary from a trivial and inconsequential act to a decisively significant and far-reaching decision. But before choosing a category or label to be associated with, NNESTs and teacher educators need to know which are available, the meanings they carry for themselves and for others, which new labels or categories can be forged and how, and even whether or not (forging) a label is a desirable goal.

A much subtler linguistic means which can also give valuable insight into NNESTs' subjectivities and how they can be discursively constructed is that of

implicatures (Bucholtz & Hall, 2005). For NNESTs, this means that (dis)empowering professional subjectivities need not always be indexed by clear labels, but instead can be inferred or interpreted by the interactants involved. Thus, when Lee explained to his students how his knowledge of several languages, as well as how he used them for different purposes, constituted his “competence as a language user”, he implied that being a multilingual speaker is a more empowering identity option than that of an L2 learner.

Yet another linguistic means through which NNESTs’ subjectivities are constructed is through interactants’ orientation to talk (Bucholtz & Hall, 2005). As “even in the most fleeting of interactional moves, speakers position themselves and others as particular kinds of people” (p. 595). As such, NNESTs can position themselves, or be positioned by others, in (dis)empowering ways. When Karina was allegedly turned down as a job applicant in New York City, her interlocutor’s orientation to their conversation reportedly positioned her as a “non-native speaker [who] cannot really convey the [American] culture”. Whether NNESTs can work to reorient themselves (and their talk) after such statements could potentially make a difference between being considered for the job or not.

Finally, an awareness that “linguistic structures and systems (...) are ideologically associated with specific personas and groups” (p. 594) can be a starting point for identifying such structures and systems and deconstructing such ideologies. For example, NNESTs and teacher educators can explore the ideological significance of how English is spoken around the world in different contexts and how other movements, such as English as an International Language (McKay 2002; Holliday, 2005), English as a Lingua Franca (Jenkins, 2007), and World Englishes (Kirkpatrick, 2007), might become viable options

that are more empowering than adopting the “linguistic structure” of the colonizer, such as “British” or “American” English.

Through awareness of the *indexicality principle* (Bucholtz & Hall, 2005) and its mechanisms, NNESTs and teacher educators can begin to understand how they can (re)conceptualize themselves through discourse, as well as how they can choose to position themselves vis-à-vis how they are positioned by others. The ability to examine NNESTs’ discourse in light of the *indexicality principle* can thus function as an instrument for capturing discourse features that shed light into how NNESTs’ subjectivities shift in and through ongoing talk. By understanding how these discursive mechanisms work in the (de)constructing of professional subjectivities, NNESTs and teacher educators can use them to their advantage and as starting points for empowering NNESTs. Such discursive work can impact NNESTs’ sense of individual *and* group agency and potentially impact their material conditions.

In sum, it is *in* and *through* discourse and interaction that NNESTs’ subjectivities can be forged, negotiated, and “constituted as socially real” (Bucholtz & Hall, p. 591). It is through NNESTs’ understanding of the meanings behind identity categories, stereotypes, and labels; of what theirs and others’ language implies; of their orientation to talk and the roles they choose or are forced to take; as well as of the ideologies associated with certain ways of talking that they can begin to realize the relationship between language, identity(-ies), and power (Lin, 2008). For teacher educators, this means that mediational spaces that allow for such ‘subjectivity work’ to be done can create the conditions through which NNESTs can be empowered to understand themselves in ways that are empowering and agentful.

**7.1.2 Research Question 2: To what extent does the exploring, conceiving of, articulating, and internalizing of legitimating subjectivities done by NNESTs influence the nature of their instructional practices?**

Although the results admittedly and in large part lack concrete evidence of shifts in the participants' actual teaching practices, they nonetheless suggest that the participating teachers have started to think differently about their practice. The results also provide striking evidence of the emotional and cognitive struggle that NNESTs experienced throughout this complex process of making sense of themselves professionally and of gaining control over how they conceptualize their instructional practices. At least for Karina and Lee, the various mediational means (e.g., theoretical readings, conversations with the researcher, interactions with peers, and the very activity of teaching about the NS/NNS dichotomy and the NS myth), embedded, by design, in both the PD and the instructional unit they taught pushed them to seek congruence between their newly emerging professional identity and how they were beginning to envision their instructional practices.

These findings provide compelling evidence that before NNESTs can teach in empowering ways, they need opportunities to explore their professional subjectivities and reflect on the dialectical connection between their identities and their instructional practices. Only as NNESTs begin to work through this laborious, situated, and largely idiosyncratic process will they be able to begin to re-envision how such subjectivities might also work to create instructional opportunities and activities that afford the same sorts of struggles and repositioning for their NNS students. Lee, for example, in talking about the impetus behind and the implementation of the corpus tool, started to realize the

impact his self-concept and professional subjectivity played on his teaching practice. As for Karina, though most of the data point to her development as reaching only an idealized conception with a commitment to action (Golombek & Johnson, 2004), there is some evidence that she began to internalize a different way to think *and* act regarding L2 writing instruction.

The results of this study also suggest that how NNESTs conceptualize themselves professionally has serious implications for how they conceptualize and enact their instruction. For both Lee and Karina, understanding themselves as lacking professionally was strongly linked to their wavering confidence level and feelings of professional insecurity and low self-esteem. They both reported feeling self-conscious of their language use and insecure while teaching. If NNESTs feel intimidated in the classroom for ‘having an accent’ or for perceiving to lack appropriate English proficiency, they will be less likely to succeed in creating transformative spaces where their students can begin to take on more empowering stances as NNSs. In other words, if NNESTs struggle with how they feel about the very medium *and* content of what they teach, this will have an impact on their instructional practices (for example, in their decision making of whether or not to address students’ language use).

In this study, both Lee and Karina brought up important concerns about the relationship between language and culture (Kramsch, 1998). Both seemed to perceive themselves as lacking in knowledge of American culture; knowledge which they deemed to be an integral component of being qualified to teach ESL students. In addition, Karina felt that her Russian subjectivity would be threatened if she attempted to acquire such knowledge. Similarly, for Lee, linguistic intuition seemed to trump professional expertise

and training. Although in his case this led him to develop a potentially beneficial pedagogical tool for his students, this may not be the case with other NNESTs. And even in Lee's case, his motives for creating the corpus tool may have been linked to a view of NNSs as deficient knowers and users of English. Until NNESTs have the opportunity to work through such concerns and realize how they impact the quality and character of their instructional activities and interactions with their students, they may be at a serious professional and personal disadvantage.

Furthermore, to the extent that NNESTs may unreflectively accept disempowering ideologies (e.g., the NS myth, the ownership of English by inner-circle countries, and an idealized, all-knowing, and error-free NS), they may treat their linguistic, historical, and sociocultural backgrounds as professional liabilities rather than assets. Similarly, if they believe that their students would necessarily be better served by NESTs rather than NNESTs, they may attempt to conceptualize and enact their instruction in ways that focus on 'covering up' their perceived weaknesses or on 'making up' for what they perceive to be lacking, rather than resorting to their professional expertise as trained and qualified language teachers.

The results of this study suggest that supporting NNESTs' professional development must go beyond the strictly professional and tap into the affective realm. From a sociocultural perspective, there is no separation between cognition and emotion, only a dialectic relationship. PD programs for teachers which fail to recognize this dimension of human cognitive development will most likely fail in enabling NNESTs (or any teacher, for that matter) to embrace more empowering professional identities. For both Karina and Lee, acknowledging and validating their fears and anxieties as starting

points for professional growth was an integral part of the PD experiences they participated in. If teacher educators are to be successful in preparing NNESTs to claim and assert a professional identity as legitimate ESL/EFL teachers, they must be willing and prepared to explore how emotions impact teachers' learning and development and the day-to-day activities of teaching (Alsup, 2006; DiPardo & Potter, 2003; Mahn & John-Steiner, 2002).

Finally, this investigation fills in a gap in NNEST-related research by taking into account the participating teachers' backgrounds, including and analyzing classroom observation data, and exploring new methods for researching NNESTs' professional lives and identities (Moussu & Llurda, 2008). Additionally, despite its relatively short duration (16 weeks), this study began to address the need for longitudinal studies regarding the development of NNESTs' professional identity and expertise (Braine, 2010).

### **7.1.3 Research Question 3. To what extent does engagement with an instructional curriculum addressing NNEST issues influence the way in which ESL students think about themselves as NNS (particularly in relation to the native speaker ideology)?**

ESL classrooms are "contact zones" (Pratt, 1991) by nature, with students from different geographic locations, various sociopolitical and socioeconomic realities, and at times conflicting worldviews. Karina's 'trilingual' student, Matthew, is a good example of the types of experiences, both cultural and linguistic, that students bring to bear on the teaching/learning process. Born in New York City into a Korean family and raised in Chile, his background is far from stereotypical. For Matthew, conceptualizing himself as 'trilingual' may have been a significant step toward claiming legitimacy as a multilingual

speaker living in a small American town. One could speculate that had he not taken part in this study, he may have not have come to this realization at this time.

But the process of internalizing legitimizing subjectivities is complex for students also. The findings of this study suggest that ESL students require mediational tools and spaces through which to open themselves up to discussion so as to explore tensions between their cognitive and emotions as sites for potential development. Thus, as was the case with Matthew, Jon, and Qinyi, the process of exploring, conceiving of, articulating, and internalizing empowering subjectivities may not take place without supporting students' attempts to do so. Sociocultural theory, as a theoretical perspective, helps identify and explain how the types of activities reported here (i.e., reading scientific concepts, writing about them, and talking about them) strategically mediated students' thinking as they attempted to (re)negotiate empowering subjectivities.

When students are given the tools with which to start imagining the kinds of people they can and would like to become, as well as the types of subjectivities they would like to claim for themselves, they can validate their past experiences and use them in building their future. The opportunity to learn about the NS/NNS dichotomy in a formal educational setting in a systematic fashion can give students the chance to reflect on and externalize their own views (everyday concepts) regarding this dichotomy, to articulate experts' understanding of the dichotomy (scientific concepts) and, based on this understanding, rearticulate their conceptualization of the dichotomy and of themselves as English speakers. The results of this study suggest that, to a large extent, students readily attempt to categorize themselves and others, often times unreflectively, into various subjectivities, such as NS or NNS. Without the types of experiences this study engaged

them in, as well as the scientific concepts they learned, students may simply continue to stereotype themselves and one another. But the concepts that they did learn can potentially be taken up by them and used to articulate, more carefully, the subjectivities they desire.

In addition, students may be able to understand, in light of the concepts they learned about, the power relations involved in gaining access (or not) to certain subjectivities, such as NS. Although students may not easily or quickly be able to change the macrostructures that impinge on their personal choices and material conditions, the types of instructional assignments they completed as a function of participating in this study certainly encouraged them to apply scientific concepts to their own lived experiences and to problematize everyday concepts. From a sociocultural perspective, doing so can potentially help students to begin to internalize these psychological tools as ways to understand their own situations more clearly and agentfully.

The results from this study also suggest that the *indexicality principle* (Bucholtz & Hall, 2005) is a powerful tool for understanding the intricacies involved in ESL students' processes of shifting identities and taking on empowering professional subjectivities. In exploring different labels (*e.g.*, NNS, L2 speaker, L2 user, bilingual speaker, multicompetent) and what they (can) mean, students can choose to claim certain labels over others, (re)create other labels, or resist them entirely. In addition to exploring labels, students can attempt to discursively construct empowering subjectivities through implicatures and presuppositions (Bucholtz & Hall, 2005). They can attempt to change how they orient to talk in their interactions with others regarding their identities. And finally, they can explore how movements such as English as an International Language

(McKay 2002; Holliday, 2005), English as a Lingua Franca (Jenkins, 2007), and World Englishes (Kirkpatrick, 2007) might provide alternatives to unreflectively assuming that traditionally powerful varieties, such as “British” or “American” English, are the only options. Through this type of discursive work, ESL students can “tell different stories [through which to] construct different versions of self” (Benwell & Stokoe, 2006, p. 138), which might in turn and ultimately impact their material conditions.

In sum, as was the case for the teacher participants in this study, it is *in and through* discourse that students’ subjectivities can be forged, negotiated, and “constituted as socially real” (Bucholtz & Hall, p. 591). By exploring the meanings behind identity stereotypes and labels, the ways that language can be used to imply, and the ideologies associated with certain ways of speaking, students can also begin to realize the relationship between language and power (Lin, 2008).

## 7.2 Implications

One’s subjectivities are at once both discursively constructed and embedded in power relations (Norton, 2006). Even if the focus of an investigation is “teachers’ construction, conceptualization, and interrogation of their own identities and practices, they cannot be fully understood without reference to the teachers’ students and colleagues, who, together with them, construct their identities and communities of practice” (Duff and Uchida, 1997, p. 453). Yet, PD opportunities are typically designed only with teachers in mind, without “reference to the teachers’ students and colleagues” (p. 453). But by design, this study attempted to foster the identity development of both

NNESTs (individually and collectively) and their students. As such, teachers had the opportunity to learn about what they were teaching (the NS/NNS dichotomy and the NS myth) while concurrently teaching it and helping students to wrestle with the NS/NNS dichotomy as well.

In addition, the design of this study targets one of the persistent quandaries in teacher education programs, in both L2 and general educational contexts, in which subject matter knowledge (*what* is taught) is separated from pedagogical knowledge (*how* it is taught) (Ball, 2000; Larsen-Freeman & Freeman, 2008). This long-standing dualism has not only positioned pedagogical coursework as secondary to disciplinary or subject matter knowledge, but it assumes that these types of knowledge can be taught (and learned) in isolation from one another. From a sociocultural perspective, however, this dualism becomes blurred, as human cognition is understood as originating in and being fundamentally shaped by engagement in social activities. It is the social relationships and the culturally constructed materials, signs, and symbols that mediate those relationships that create uniquely human forms of higher-level thinking. Put simply, in the activity of teaching, *what* is taught is fundamentally shaped by *how* it is taught. Likewise, what is learned is fundamentally shaped by how it is learned, and vice-versa. Consequently, cognition cannot be removed from activity since it originates in and is framed by the very nature of that activity. In this study, realizing the dialectical relationship between what is taught and how it is taught was crucial in supporting NNESTs' attempts to explore, conceive of, articulate, and internalize empowering professional subjectivities.

Also, from a sociocultural theoretical perspective, PD experiences entail more than simply acquiring content knowledge and pedagogical skills. Rather, they involve a

complex process of engaging in meaningful social activities and culturally-organized practices, such as classroom teaching. In this light, SLTE's efforts to prepare NNESTs need to necessarily include issues of identity and how professional legitimacy can be constructed, claimed, and asserted. As such, teacher identity must be incorporated by SLTE programs as integral to teacher professional development and as an explicit part of its knowledge base. Dealing with teachers' identities is a serious undertaking, but so is the process of preparing teachers to be effective educators. In supporting and enhancing the professional expertise of NNESTs, teacher educators are consequently supporting their students.

The findings of this study suggest that when PD opportunities for NNESTs create learning conditions in which they are supported in exploring their professional subjectivities and in collaboratively challenging disempowering discourses, teacher educators can support NNESTs as they begin to conceive of legitimizing professional identities, to create a sense of individual and group agency, and to commit to changes in both discourse and action. However, this is not a simple, linear, or painless process. It requires that language teacher education programs embrace and sustain both a theoretical stand and critical stance on learning to teach. Without the sorts of interactions afforded by the PD experiences engendered by this study, the participants would likely not have had a formal opportunity to learn about the scientific concepts that are key to their (and their students') success. It was the very opportunity to go through the social processes of verbalizing, negotiating meaning, and externalizing their emerging understandings that allowed the participants to learn about, discuss, and potentially internalize pivotal scientific concepts, such as the problematic nature of stereotypical labels (e.g., NS/NNS).

By internalizing these concepts, in turn, NNESTs have the potential to reconceptualize their own experiences as ESL instructors and to reorient their practical activity and pedagogical practices.

The results of this study also suggest that the *indexicality principle* and its precepts (see Chapter 3: Methodology; Bucholtz & Hall, 2005), though used in this investigation as an analytical tool only, can also be used as a pedagogical tool through which both teachers and students can begin to understand how one's subjectivities are constructed in and through language use. By sharing with teachers the linguistic mechanisms by which identities are (re)constructed, (re)claimed, and (re)invented, teacher educators can help pre- and in-service teachers to become critical of the relationship between language and power (Lin, 2008), thus potentially opening up a meditational space where teachers' subjectivities and actions may be transformed. This sort of discourse analysis as professional development is similar, though for somewhat different instructional objectives, to Schleppegrell's (2004) call for the use of discourse analytical techniques with students in order to "make explicit the ways that meanings are made through language" (p. 3). In The Language of Schooling: A Functional Linguistics Perspective, Schleppegrell (2004) specifically argues for "a visible pedagogy that helps students analyze language and come to a better understanding of the ways that knowledge is constructed and presented through language" (p. xii). Similarly, I argue here that the indexicality principle can also be used as a pedagogical tool with ESL students. As mentioned in the previous section, ESL students can also benefit from understanding how identities are forged linguistically (by the processes of labeling, implicature, and presupposition, one's orientation to ongoing talk, and an awareness of World Englishes

and the subjectivities associated with varieties traditionally viewed as non-standard). As a pedagogical tool, the indexicality principle (Bucholtz & Hall, 2005) can empower both ESL teachers and students to, through language and discourse, think and act critically regarding their use of English as an additional language.

Furthermore, if L2 writing instruction must be accomplished via a given content area or topic, it seems pedagogically sound to make sure that international students have an opportunity to think of the relationship between learning to use English as a L2 and broader ideological issues of language and power. In addition, by orienting students to such issues and supporting them in deconstructing them through writing and through meaningful interactions, they can potentially be mediated into thinking, feeling, and acting in ways that are not only more empowering to them personally, but also more socially just and intellectually sound. After all, learning to think critically and to take a ‘critical’ stance vis-à-vis competing discourses can be a beneficial skill for students’ future development.

From a sociocultural perspective, much like learning to teach (*see* Johnson, 2009), learning to assert one’s professional legitimacy is far from being either a simple or spontaneous process. Rather, it requires a concerted, ongoing effort to assist teachers in moving from socially mediated activities to internal control of higher-order psychological tools with which to mediate their thinking, feeling, and acting. In this sense, the PD experiences embedded in this study are potential sites for transformation through which NNESTs can attempt to (re)articulate their professional subjectivities in the context of meaningful social and professional relationships and activity. This study’s results suggest that having various opportunities to read about, write about, verbalize, interact with peers,

and otherwise learn about key scientific concepts (e.g., the NS/NNS dichotomy and the NS myth) while *simultaneously* teaching about it can potentially enable NNESTs to start conceiving of and positioning themselves in more empowering ways. As such, researchers in language teacher education may have much to gain by reconceptualizing the relationship between PD experiences and teaching. Rather than being understood and enacted as two disjointed and dissimilar activities, PD and teaching can inform one another dialectically and, in doing so, engender meaningful and realistic learning experiences and contexts for both NNESTs and their students.

Finally, while this investigation was decisively carried out by means of instructional interventions for both NNESTs and their students, it was designed to understand, from a sociocultural perspective, *how* these interventions functioned for participants, rather than to confirm that they necessarily ‘work’. That is, the study’s theoretical stance and design made tracing how the individuals participated in these targeted interventions not only possible, but it allowed me, as the researcher, to uncover facets of NNESTs’ professional development trajectories that may otherwise have remained hidden had the study been focused solely on showing that these types of intervention work. As such, a sociocultural perspective gives SLTE a powerful theoretical lens through which teacher identity development can be seen in its very process of formation (Vygotsky, 1986). It also elucidates the relationship between identity development (as fostered by PD experiences) and the cultural, institutional, and historical realities in which NNESTs are situated and in which their development occurs.

### 7.3 Limitations

As with most investigations, there are several limitations to this study. The first one is that although the data collection instruments and procedures seemed reasonable and were reasonably well planned, the logistics of attempting to gather data from several teachers and their students proved challenging at best. With multiple course sections taking place at various times and in various locations across campus, teachers', students', and my own busy schedules, as well as unanticipated technology-related glitches, some data were never collected. Although these data may have proved helpful for the analyses, much of what was collected was indeed valuable in answering the research questions.

Another limitation of this study was the fact that teachers whose data sets were analyzed were both doctoral students in an Applied Linguistics program. This may certainly have played a part in how they responded to the PD experiences they were engaged in. Nonetheless, the fact that even such intelligent, highly skilled, and knowledgeable individuals struggle to claim professional legitimacy is revealing in and of itself. That is, if even doctoral students in Applied Linguistics may struggle to negotiate their professional legitimacies vis-à-vis the NS myth and ideology, it is likely that many other NNESTs also share such a predicament.

Yet another very important limitation of this study lies in the low number of classroom observations. Only three of Karina's classes and two of Lee's classes were videotaped, with only one of these observations taking place after the NS/NNS instructional unit had ended. Although these observations were planned as a way to gain insight into the participants' classroom practice, the logistics of this study required that

they be kept at a minimum. But change and transformation, at least regarding one's cognitive development and shifts in subjectivities, tend to be very slow processes requiring not weeks, but months or longer to be better observed, examined, and understood.

Finally, I must point out that, reportedly, some of the ESL students were not interested in the topics explored in the NS/NNS instructional unit. Although this lack of interest on the students' part was not present in any of the data collected, it would certainly have been helpful to interview the students to get a sense of their attitudes and orientation toward the topic (in addition to their written responses). One could speculate that, for some students, the experience of addressing a topic 'head-on', albeit done in the safe space of the classroom, can be threatening to students' sense of self and desire to 'blend in' with their social context in an American university. That is, exploring what makes one 'different', even if from a positive light, can be more arduous and threatening than exploring what makes one 'similar'. But as the analysis of the student data suggested, some of the students were not only able to start such exploration, they benefitted from it.

#### **7.4 Conclusion**

Given the estimation that most ESL/EFL teachers in the world are NNESTs (Canagarajah, 1999), and given that their students are NNSs also, language teacher education programs that include PD experiences such as the ones discussed here are likely to encourage their teacher candidates to see themselves and their emerging

teaching through a different lens. The ‘NNEST lens’, as it has been called, is “a lens of multilingualism, multinationalism, and multiculturalism” that “takes diversity as a starting point in TESOL and Applied Linguistics practice and research and questions the monolingual bias in the field” (Mahboob, 2010, p. 15). By understanding how NNESTs can be empowered to move from a ‘deficit discourse’ (Bhatt, cited in Mahboob, 2010, p. 2) to seeing themselves as legitimate ESL/EFL professionals, language teacher education can support them in overcoming their insecurities and in forging their professional identities. Language teacher education programs that choose to address the NS ideologies with their students, however briefly, will likely be a step ahead in preparing confident, effective, and agentic professionals. With such PD experiences, NNESTs can work to dispel a myth that has for far too long created serious employment inequity and harmed the work we do as a field and as teacher educators.

In addition, these types of PD experiences provide NNESTs the meditational means and spaces to both externalize their everyday conceptualizations about the NS/NNS dichotomy, the NS myth, and the connections between language and power, and to potentially internalize the available scientific knowledge about these concepts. This dialectical relationship between the externalizing of everyday concepts and the internalizing of scientific concepts is at the heart of cognitive development and transformation. Without the formal, instructional opportunity to link lived experience to theoretical knowledge, NNESTs risk remaining marginalized in the TESOL profession, held in the sway of ever-present discourses that privilege NS status over professional training. As argued by Canagarajah (1999), “at a time when graduate programs in TESOL are a booming business enterprise with students from many countries trained in

the West for a life in the teaching profession, such gatekeeping practices in employment raise disturbing questions” (p. 77).

Finally, the notion that identity is socially constructed and negotiated within power relations and structures also means that for the NS myth to be dispelled, NNESTs cannot be the only ones involved in this process. As the NS ideology reaches far beyond the classroom walls, it is imperative that all teachers (NESTs, NNESTs, and all in between), teacher educators, and students become involved in acknowledging, challenging, and deconstructing this pervasive fallacy. As argued by Mahboob (2010),

far from being deficient, NNESTs enrich the field by adding multilingual, multinational, and multicultural perspectives to issues that have traditionally been seen through a monolingual lens (p. 15).

Not only do NNESTs add their experiences and voices to the fields of TESOL and Applied Linguistics, they are integral constituents of these fields, teaching a large portion of ESL/EFL students worldwide and continuously transforming the very nature of what we do as ESL instructors, administrators, and second language teacher educators. Their own struggles in claiming their fair share of the ownership of English, as well as their untiring quest for professional legitimacy and fair employment practices, bring to the fore the need to continuously and carefully examine what we teach, the theoretical orientations that guide our teaching, and the pedagogical practices through which we teach. It is my hope that this investigation has taken a firm step in this direction and that others will tread similar, empowering paths.

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## APPENDIX A

### CURRICULAR UNIT ON NS/NNS DICHOTOMY

#### DAY 1 (9/2, T)

**Introduction to genre:** Raise students' genre awareness: Initiate students into genre as an abstract concept – not a static formula – as well as a typified way for people to get their job done.

**Objective:** Students will be able 1) to identify genre(s) in their everyday life; and 2) understand dimensions of genre analysis including content, context, rhetorical features and linguistic features.

#### **Prepare:**

Examples of a few everyday genres – e.g., restaurant menu, complaint letter, job application, newspaper horoscope, classified advertisements, street signs, warnings in elevator or bus, wedding invitations, death notice, etc.<sup>10</sup> (Powerpoint presentations if computer class is available)

Copies of horoscope from a local newspaper

Teacher's reference: Genre analysis guideline; read Chapter 2 in Devitt et al., 2004 (esp. p. 93-4)

Procedure:

#### **Activity 1: in-class writing:** (10 minutes)

Make a little list of all the things you may write in a day, including such small texts as shopping list or e-mails as well as longer texts like letters or reports. For each thing, describe the location and context (classroom, dorm room, academic discipline, etc.), your readers and your relationship to them, and your purpose for writing it. Then describe your communication style in each type of texts. (Adapted from Devitt et al., 2004, p. 7)

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<sup>10</sup> Make copies from 'Scenes of writing'. The examples must be very short. Teachers may collaborate to collect examples from different cultures – e.g., Japanese *tanabata*, Chinese fans, or service encounter in US. Teachers may draw on the works in CA (Conversation Analysis) and DA (Discourse Analysis) that describes how mundane verbal interaction can show a typified verbal/textual action of a discourse community.

**Activity 2: Discussion on genre (30 minutes)**<sup>11</sup>

Have students share their in-class writings and ideas about how they use genres to achieve a certain purpose.

Go over the genre examples

Restaurant menu (Devitt, 2004 et al., p. 84-85)

Classified ad (from a local newspaper)

Japanese tanabata (see <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Image:Tanzaku.jpg>)

Or other genres like post cards, cell phone texting, or spoken genres such as phone conversation.

Identify recurrent features:

The context and purposes of those genres

Content

The appeals to the audience

Structure

Choice of words and sentence style

Help them to find out where, when, by whom, why, and who the genre is used

Help students to identify rhetorical and linguistic patterns

Discuss the textual typicality of each genre and the discourse community that use genre to ‘get their work done’

Encourage students to bring up their own examples from their home country cultures

**Activity 3: Simple genre analysis and writing – ‘horoscope’**

Have students read the horoscope; ask them whether or how the horoscope is different in their home country, or whether they like their fortune for today and what they hope for tomorrow

Discuss with students how purpose of the horoscope is achieved by recurrent features; Ask them to identify as many features as possible and to write them down on their notes

(Work in pair) Ask students to interview each other about his or her wishes and find out what would be the ‘best’ day for each other

Have students write a horoscope for each other; help them use the feature list

Homework

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<sup>11</sup> This is not a teacher-led instruction. Briefly introduce examples and concept of genre and let student bring up examples from their cultures and construct the concept of genre – i.e., what it does, why it is useful, and how they can use the genre to learn to write in a culture.

1. Find one genre example from a particular setting – ex. restaurant menu, complaint letter, job application, newspaper horoscope, classified advertisements, street signs, warnings in elevator or bus, wedding invitations, death notice, etc. – either from your everyday life, or from your home country cultures.

Write 1-2 pg genre description of your example in MS-word (double space); submit your work to the homework drop box in ANGEL by 11 pm Wednesday

2. Bring your genre exemplar to the next class (you don't have to make copies for the class)

## **DAY 2 (9/4, R)**

**Introduction to genre analysis:** This session develops genre description into genre analysis. Target genres are introduced.

**Objective:** Students will be able 1) to identify academic genre and generic features; to perform a simple genre analysis

### **Prepare:**

Copies of two complaint letters from Devitt et al, 2004, p 67- 68  
(Optionally, see move analysis of business letters in the appendix)

Copies of original and revised letters from Devitt et al, 2004, p.122 and p. 136  
For teacher's reference, see Devitt et al., 2004, p. 64-73; p. 121-140

Procedure:

### **Activity 1: in-class writing:** (10 minutes)

Think about a new writing task that you have encountered. How do you figure out how to write for a new genre? For example, if your instructor asks you to write a book review and you have never written one, what is your strategy to write this new kind of text?

### **Activity 2: Analyzing complaint letters (Devitt et al., 2004, p. 67 – 68)**

Ask students about what they already know about complaint letters; Has any of them written a complaint letter? What were their complaints?

Go over three complaint letters with students:

Who uses the genre?

What is it about?

Where/when/why is the genre used?

Identify recurrent features:

Structural patterns: how is each part of a letter organized or sequenced?

What's the format? Lay out, appearance, length?

Sentence structure – Questions? Declaration? Description?

Grammatical features – e.g., personal pronouns

Information – how detailed are they, or are they supposed to be?

What kinds of words are used?

Is the reader personalized or depersonalized?

Have student make a list of features and compare them

### **Activity 3: Revising a complaint letter (Devitt et al., 2004, p. 122 & p. 136)**

#### **Provide students with the (original) complaint letter (p. 122)**

Ask them to take the role of a customer service employee and how they would like to respond to the letter; ask why

Have them underline word(s) or expressions that they particularly find unappealing to the reader

Ask them what information they feel missing in the letter

Discuss things that students should consider in revising the letter

#### **Provide the revised letter (p. 136)**

Ask students to notice differences (italicized)

Compare the original text (in brackets) and revised text; discuss why such changes may better address the purpose of the genre and audience expectation

If time permits, have students expand their discussion into a semi-summary.

#### **Homework**

Choose one genre and collect at least two genre examples in that genre

Compare examples and write down a list of similarities and differences; then write two paragraphs summarizing each similarity and difference

Submit your work in the homework drop box, ANGEL by 11 pm Sunday

## Appendix: A simple move analysis

**The text 1**

Dear Franz,

This is a little note to let you know that we are to leave Brazil next Thursday, 17 October, leading to Hannover for Biotechnica.

So I would like very much to ask to attend to our requirements before our departure if it is possible.

Thank you very much.

Kindly yours,

Pedro Quintana  
Director, Marketing sales

(Source: V. B. M. Pinto dos Santos, Genre analysis of business letters of negotiation, English for Specific Purposes, Volume 21, Issue 2, , 2002, Pages 167-199)

First, consider:

What is the genre of this text?

Who may be the reader of this text?

What is the relationship between the author and the reader?

What are the communicative purposes of the author?

What is the tone of the author?

How many components are there in the text?

**Move analysis example**

<b>Text</b>	<b>Move</b>	<b>Communicative purpose</b>
Dear Franz,	1 Move	Establishing the negotiating chain
This is a little note to let you know that we are to leave Brazil next Thursday, 17 October, leading to Hannover for Biotechnica.	2 Move	Providing information or answers
So I would like very much to ask to attend to our requirements before our departure if it is possible.	3 Move	Requesting information/action/favors
Thank you very much. Kindly yours,  Pedro Quintana Director, Marketing sales	4 Move	Ending

**Text 2**

Dear Sirs,  
 Learning from the Commercial Counselor's Office of our Embassy in your country that you are one of the leading importers of canned foodstuffs, we have the pleasure of introducing ourselves to you as a state corporation specializing in the export of canned goods, and express our desire to enter into business relations with you. In order to give you a general idea of our canned goods, we are sending you by separate airmail a copy of our latest catalogue. Quotations and samples will be sent to you upon receipt of your specific enquiries. We are looking forward with interest to hearing from you.

Yours sincerely  
 China National Import & Export Corp.

(Source: WANG Ji-yu, Genre analysis on business English correspondence, Sino-US English Teaching, Dec. 2007, Volume 4, No.12, p. 44-45)

Consider: (linking structure with communicative purpose)  
 Does Text 2 have the same move structure with the Text 1?  
 How many moves are there?  
 What are the communicative purposes?

\* Break down the text into moves and write down the communicative purpose.

**Move analysis form**

<b>Text</b>	<b>Move</b>	<b>Communicative Purpose</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•</li> <li>•</li> <li>•</li> </ul>		

end of form –

### DAY 3 (9/9, T)

**Introduction to textbooks as a specific kind of genre:** This session develops students understanding of the teaching purpose of textbooks and how writers use specific language features to guide and engage the reader.

**Objective:** Students will be able 1) to identify the textual language features that guide a reader through a text, 2) to identify the interpersonal language features that a writer uses to engage the reader and to show his or her attitude or stance to the information he or she is writing.

#### Prepare:

Copies of handout on textual and interpersonal language features for students who did not download from ANGEL.

Copies of Guy Cook textbook selection on Native Speaker.

An overhead or handout of possible answers.

Copies of Genre Analysis of a Textbook Selection

#### Procedure:

##### Activity 1: in-class writing (5 minutes)

What do you think the purpose of textbooks is? Do you think that your writing for your other classes should “sound” like a textbook? Why or why not?

##### Activity 2: Explaining textbook language through genre—textual devices

Ask for a few responses to the writing prompt. Use this to move into the teacher lecture below: Have your overhead of these devices and/or student handouts.

Teacher lecture:

As a student at [university name – deleted], you will use textbooks in most of your classes (and will probably pay a great deal of money for textbooks!). We can think of textbooks as a kind of genre, a kind of academic genre. What we are going to do today is look at some textbook examples on the topic of the native speaker, and we are going to go over some concepts that will help us do a kind of genre analysis of textbooks. This is not intended to help you write like a textbook writer!!! Rather, this is intended to help you READ textbooks more effectively. As a kind of academic writing, you will notice that some aspects of textbook writing may be useful in your own academic discipline—and you may notice some ideas that are not helpful for you. So today, we’ll talk about the STRUCTURE of textbook writings and the LANGUAGE of textbooks.

Professors use textbooks as way to consolidate the incredible amount of information and contrasting opinions that exist in any discipline. For example, in any discipline, different researchers have different opinions on what causes or caused a particular event of phenomenon. Textbooks help to organize this information into some

coherent narrative. What this implies is that textbooks are not just “facts” but one person’s interpretation of how particular facts tell a story. A professor’s choice of a textbook, then, can tell you something about what they think about their field of study. And the writers of textbooks must write in a way that other professors will find convincing, accurate, and valuable.

Textbooks also have a teaching purpose and the writers of textbooks use specific language to help guide readers through the information (based on Hyland, 2004). Textbook writers use devices to organize information in ways that the reader will find easy to follow AND convincing. The five devices that help guide readers through a text and their functions are as follows: (There is a handout below)

### TEXTUAL DEVICES

**Logical connectives**—These are mainly conjunctions (for example, *and, but, so*) and adverbial phrases (for example, *consequently, in addition, on the other hand*) to help readers understand relations between ideas. The relationship between ideas can be additive, contrastive, or resultive. See the handout entitled Chart of Transitions for some examples of how writers show relationships between ideas using different language and grammatical choices.

**Frame markers**-These can signal something about the structure of the text (*first, then, 1, 2*), can name the different text stages (*to conclude, in sum*), can announce the goals of the writer (*I argue here, my purpose is*).

**Endophoric markers**-These refer to other parts of the text (*see below, as noted above*).

**Evidentials**-These are citations, or ideas, from another source (*Thomas and Hawkes, 1994*). The use of citations are meant to provide evidence that the writer of the textbook knows the information, or has command of the literature in the field that she or he is writing about.

**Code glosses**—These supply additional information by explaining further what the author has written. It is difficult to judge what a reader of a textbook knows. Often, textbook writers assume that the reader has little knowledge of the subject matter. Thus, the writer tries to explain ideas in different ways to help the reader to understand. This is often done through phrases like *in other words, this is called*.

#### **Activity 3: Looking for examples of textual devices in a textbook selection**

Have students read through the text selection called Native Speaker. Ask them, on their own, to mark any of the five textual devices that you presented. When done, return as a class and let them share their answers. Possible answers are included below.

#### **Activity 4: Explaining interpersonal elements of the textbook genre**

Continuation of lecture—interpersonal elements

Writers also identify how they feel or what they believe about certain information. In other words, though many readers think of textbooks as a source of facts, the writer of a textbook often sifts through information to present an interpretation of what a field of

study believes. The writer of a textbook then uses different devices to show his or her position or feeling about specific information. Four ways that textbook writers reveal what they think about the information or ways they try to interact with readers are as follows:

### INTERPERSONAL FEATURES

Hedges and Boosters-These represent the degree of commitment or certainty a writer makes toward particular information, for example *it is possible, might, clearly*.

Attitude markers-These represent the writer's feelings toward information rather than what they know about it. For example, a writer might express surprise, importance, obligation, agreement, etc. (*surprisingly, most importantly, it is necessary*)

Relational markers-These are devices that a writer uses to kind of connect with a reader, to create a relationship. These sometimes give textbooks a kind of conversational tone. These devices try to, in a sense, encourage reader participation by using *second person pronouns (you), imperative (Look at the illustration...Let's turn to...), questions, and asides*.

Person markers-This refers to how much the author explicitly refers to him or herself in the text through, for example, the use of *first person pronouns (I)* and *possessive adjectives (my)*.

#### **Activity 5: Looking for examples of interpersonal devices in a textbook selection**

Have students read through the text selection called Native Speaker. Ask them, on their own, to mark any of the four interpersonal devices that you presented. When done, return as a class and let them share their answers. Possible answers are included below.

#### **Homework:**

Students should read the textbook excerpt entitled Sociolinguistics. They should do the 7 questions on the homework sheet entitled "Genre Analysis of a Textbook Selection" to hand in the next class.

## READING: Native speakers

**1** All this raises issues about the very term **native speaker**. **2** Let us pause for a moment to consider what is meant by it, and why it has become one of the most contentious in applied linguistics.

**3** To do this, we need to look at some common assumptions about what it means to be a native speaker. **4** Firstly, there is the question of personal history. **5** Native speakers are considered to be people who acquired language naturally and effortlessly in childhood, through a combination of exposure, the child's innate talent for language learning, and the need to communicate. **6** Secondly, there is a question of expertise. Native speakers are seen as people who use the language, or a variety of it, correctly, and have insight into what is or is not acceptable. **7** Thirdly, there is a question of knowledge and loyalty. **8** Being a native speaker, it is assumed, entails knowledge of, and loyalty to, a community which uses the language.

**9** In many cases this threefold definition is relatively unproblematic, particularly for small languages spoken mostly in one particular place. **10** Take Icelandic for example, spoken by 300,000 Icelanders on an island of 100,000 square kilometers. **11** Most people there have grown up speaking Icelandic, are expert in its use, and identify with Icelandic culture. **12** In the case of larger and more widely distributed languages however, and most especially in the case of English, serious problems with the usual definitions of native speaker begin to emerge. **13** Many English speakers—whether in the inner, out, or expanding circle\*—grew up with and use another language in the home. **14** Their cultural loyalty is wholly or partly to non-English-speaking community and they may well be opposed to the dominant English-speaking culture, feeling that their own language and values are threatened.

**15** None of this, however, necessarily reflects upon their expertise. **16** Many such English speakers use the language just as expertly as the traditionally defined native speakers. **17** Certainly there are often—though by no means always—minor differences of accent, phrasing, or confidence in grammaticality judgements. **18** Yet these are just as often accompanied by additional expertise which a traditionally defined native speaker may not have.

**19** Here it is important to take stock of those aspects of language proficiency which the traditional definition of the native speaker does *not* include. **20** Firstly, it says nothing about proficiency in writing, but only are proficiency in speech. **21** Indeed, some native speakers are illiterate, and many of those who can write do so inaccurately ('Lovely new potato's) or clumsily ('Revised customer service arrangements presently under implementation'). **22** Secondly, the native speaker's knowledge of the language is implicit rather than explicit. **23** He or she uses the rules correctly, in other words, but cannot necessarily explain them. For example, try asking the average native speaker to explain the difference between 'shall' and 'will'. Lastly, traditional native speakerness implies nothing about size of vocabulary, range of styles, or ability to communicate across diverse communities. In all of these aspects of proficiency, it is quite common to find that the expertise of the non-native speaker exceeds that of many native speakers.

\*Braj Kachru describes the situation of English as one of three concentric circles. In the inner circle are the predominantly English-speaking countries like the U.S., Canada, England, and Australia. In the outer circle are former colonies of England where English is an official language, such as India and Ghana. In the expanding circle, English is increasingly becoming important in some/many of the people's lives, for example China, South Korea, and Vietnam.

Cook, G. (2003). *Applied linguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press. (pages 27-28)

Possible answers to Native Speaker by Guy Cook.

Logical connectives: In line 9, we see the author stressing, or emphasizing, an aspect of his point, that this definition might be okay when there is a *particularly* small group of speakers of a particular language. We then know he is going to illustrate this very point in sentence 10 because he uses *for example*. In line 12, we know he is going to contrast this idea because of the following: *In the case of larger and more widely distributed languages however, and most especially in the case of English*. These are just a few examples. Notice that he doesn't just use transition words like "for example" or "however". He uses other kinds of words and phrases. We'll talk about this more during the semester.

Frame markers: In lines 4, 6, and 7, we see some nice examples of frame markers that help to set up the structure of the text. We know that these are the three main points that he is going to detail further. In his example of Iceland, he covers each of these three points. This helps the reader to follow his train of thought.

Endophoric markers: We don't really see any references to earlier or later in the text. The information about inner, outer, and expanding circles actually appears in the section prior to this, but he doesn't note this. He does use the word *here* in line 19. This could be seen as a frame marker rather than an endophoric marker since it's helping us to understand what's happening at that point.

Evidentials: It's interesting to note that he doesn't use citations as evidential. Perhaps he is trying to make the text less intimidating by not having all the names and dates in citations. He does use evidence as noted above—He uses the ideas of Braj Kachru with the circles. Since he just brought in this idea on the previous page, he may not feel as though he needs to provide the name of the researcher again.

Code glosses: In line 23, the author uses the words *in other words* to explain what the word *implicit* means. We can also see some examples of code glosses in sentence 21 when he gives examples of what he means in parenthesis.

## Genre Analysis of a Textbook Selection

This is a chapter from a textbook entitled *World Englishes*, written by Kirkpatrick (2007). Read the following selection on the topic that we have been discussing, the **native speaker**, and try to answer the questions below.

READING:

### Part A: the Framework

#### 1 Key sociolinguistic concepts

1 Part A comprises three chapters. 2 It provides an introduction to the terms used in the book along with a brief discussion of any controversies that may surround the use of some of these terms. 3 Chapter 1 focuses on what I have, for ease of reference, called ‘sociolinguistic’ concepts. 4 I have chosen those concepts that I believe to be important to any debate about World Englishes. 5 I have called them ‘sociolinguistic’ to distinguish them from the ‘linguistic’ terms that are covered in Chapter 2. 6 Chapter 3 provides an overview of the theories behind World Englishes.

7 The terms and issues that I shall discuss in Chapter 1 are:

Native varieties vs. nativised varieties vs. *lingua franca* Englishes

The native speaker vs. the non-native speaker

The functions of language and the ‘identity-communication continuum’

Pidgins vs. creoles vs. varieties of English

Linguistic prejudice

#### 2 Native varieties vs. nativised varieties vs. *lingua franca* Englishes

8 It is customary to distinguish between native and nativised varieties of English (cf. McArthur, 1998). 9 The ‘traditional’ varieties of British, American and Australian English are said to be native varieties and spoken by native speakers. 10 Nativised varieties are newer varieties that have developed in places where English was not originally spoken and which have been influenced by local languages and cultures. 11 Whether speakers of nativised varieties are native speakers or non-native speakers is debated and I discuss these terms below. 12 Here I point out that the distinction between native and nativised varieties of English can be questioned. 13 After all, other languages preceded English in England and the British varieties of English have certainly been influenced by local languages and cultures. 14 The same can be said of American and Australian varieties of English. 15 Other languages were spoken in America and Australia before English arrived there and the Englishes that have developed in both places have been influenced by local languages and cultures. 16 I shall give specific examples of the ways local cultures and languages have influenced their respective Englishes through part B.

**ACTIVITY:**

Directions: Using the textbook selection above, answer the questions below as fully as possible.

Q1: Sentences 1-7 provide the structure for what the writer will do in Part A of this chapter (Chapter 3), yet it does not have any **frame markers** as discussed above. What does this writer use in place of frame markers (hint—look at the subject and verbs of these sentences).

Q2: In sentence 8, the author uses an evidential. What do you think the purpose of this specific evidential is?

Q3: Sentences 8-11 and 13-15 are all in the passive voice. Who “distinguishes”? Who “says”? What “has influenced”? Who “debates”? What does the use of passive voice help the writer to establish?

Q4: The writer defines native and nativised varieties. In what sentences does she provide code glosses?

Q5: Line 12 can be seen as having a kind of frame marker (Here I point out...), but it also reveals something about the writer’s point of view. Does the writer believe that “native” and “nativised” are good ways to characterize varieties of English?

Q6: The author clearly uses “I” throughout. Why do you think he does this?

Q7: Can you identify any attitude markers the author uses? How would you express the author’s attitude to the particular information?

## Language Characteristics of Textbooks

### Five devices to guide readers through a text & their functions:

Logical connectives—These are mainly conjunctions (for example, *and*, *but*, *so*) and adverbial phrases (for example, *consequently*, *in addition*, *on the other hand*) to help readers understand relations between ideas. The relationship between ideas can be additive, contrastive, or resultive. See the handout entitled Chart of Transitions for some examples of how writers show relationships between ideas using different language and grammatical choices.

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Code glosses—These supply additional information by explaining further what the author has written. It is difficult to judge what a reader of a textbook knows. Often, textbook writers assume that the reader has little knowledge of the subject matter. Thus, the writer tries to explain ideas in different ways to help the reader to understand. This is often done through phrases like *in other words*, *this is called*.

### Four devices that reveal what textbook writers think about the information or ways they try to interact with readers

Hedges and Boosters—These represent the degree of commitment or certainty a writer makes toward particular information, for example *it is possible*, *might*, *clearly*.

Attitude markers—These represent the writer's feelings toward information rather than what they know about it. For example, a writer might express surprise, importance, obligation, agreement, etc. (*surprisingly*, *most importantly*, *it is necessary*)

Relational markers—These are devices that a writer uses to kind of connect with a reader, to create a relationship. These sometimes give textbooks a kind of conversational tone. These devices try to, in a sense, encourage reader participation by using *second person pronouns* (*you*), *imperative* (*Look at the illustration...Let's turn to...*), *questions*, and *asides*.

Person markers—This refers to how much the author explicitly refers to him or herself in the text through, for example, the use of *first person pronouns* (*I*) and *possessive adjectives* (*my*).

## DAY 4 (9/11, R)

**Introduction to textbooks as a specific kind of genre:** This session further develops students understanding of the teaching purpose of textbooks and how writers use specific language features to guide and engage the reader. It also helps them to understand basic characteristics of textbook structure.

**Objective:** Students will be able 1)to identify the textual language features that guide a reader through a text, 2)to identify the interpersonal language features that a writer uses to engage the reader and to show his or her attitude or stance to the information he or she is writing, 3) to identify that textbooks use a great deal of repetition (headings, key term highlighting, glosses, defining, paraphrasing, introduction of key ideas in introductory paragraph, summary of key ideas in summary paragraph)

### Prepare:

Students should have copies of handout on textual and interpersonal language features for students who did not download from ANGEL.

Copies of Kirkpatrick (2007) textbook selection on Native Speaker.

An overhead or handout of possible answers for Kirkpatrick article.

### Procedure:

#### Activity 1: Group Activity

Students should compare their results from their homework. Each group should be given 1 or 2 questions to prepare answers for the class.

Come back as a class and go over what students found.

#### Activity 2: Brainstorming Activity

Ask students to come up with the various ways that textbook writers repeat information. Put this on the board. Be sure to make clear that textbook writers do this repetition to help explain ideas and make relationships between ideas clear.

#### Activity 3: Writing Activity—Who is a native speaker? Who is a nonnative speaker?

Using the two readings (Cook & Kirkpatrick), students should write short responses to the following questions:

What, or who, is a *native speaker*?

Why has the term *native speaker* become noticeably problematic?

Why do the terms *native speaker* and *nonnative speaker* of English seem to have a racial bias built in?

What is a good example of someone who seems to be neither a native nor a nonnative speaker of English?

**YOUR REACTION:** Would you categorize yourself as a nonnative speaker of English? Explain. Do you feel that there is any negative connotation to how you categorize yourself?

### **Homework:**

Finish writing activity 3: Write a 2 pg document addressing the questions in Activity 3;  
and submit an electronic copy to ANGEL by 11 pm Sunday

Read Ringbom (2001) – this is a reading for Thursday class

### **DAY 5 (9/16, T)**

**Introduction to summary genre:** Present exemplars of summary genre. This class session focuses on reading as groundwork for summary writing in the next session. Students will be introduced to reading strategies.

**Objective:** Students will be able to 1) use reading strategies; 2) select main points in the reading; and 3) write a précis.

#### **Prepare:**

Précis handouts

Copies of summary text and questions

Vocabulary and grammar exercise handouts

Procedure:

#### **Activity 1: In-class writing (10 minutes)**

Write a short essay responding to the following questions:

What do you think are important characteristics of a summary?

In what kinds of writing would you use summaries?

Is the language of summary different from the language of other genres, for example a narrative or a list? How?

Give a brief overview of ‘PRÉCIS’. Teachers can go over the handout, the ‘strategies of précis writing’.

The précis (pronounced pray-see) is a type of summarizing that insists on an exact reproduction of the logic, organization, and emphasis of the original texts. It is of particular use in situations in which you want to detail the relative order, proportions, and relationships of the original parts of a text. An effective précis retains the logic, development, and argument of the original in much shorter form. Thus, a précis is useful

when you are dealing with lengthy passages that demand careful attention to the logic and organization of an argument.

(Source: <http://web.ics.purdue.edu/~pbawa/421/precis%20writing.htm>)

**Activity 2: Reading to write a summary (20 minutes)**

(Adapted from Hamp-Lyons & Heasley, 2006, p. 129)

Give the copy of the text and question sheet and read the text with students

Discuss the main points of the text with students. Refresh student's memory of genre feature analysis; ask them to identify the genre, the purpose of the author, and audience.

Read the text below and choose the best answer from the options that follow the text.

- (1) It is well known that girls face sharp discrimination in access to education, which means millions of them are prevented from going to school.
- (2) Furthermore, the lack of gender equality in education is an important obstacle to social and economic progress.
- (3) In many developing countries, particularly in South Asia and sub-Saharan Africa, there are only seven girls in primary school for every 10 boys.
- (4) In the world's two most populous countries, India and China, boys continue to outnumber girls in schools.
- (5) The annual Education for All report by UNESCO says the proportion of girls in school did rise slightly in the past decade.
- (6) Nevertheless more than half of the 104 million children out of school are still females, making gender parity in education a distant goal in more than 50 countries.
- (7) The UN says that in many countries, high school fees, early marriage, and economic pressure to put children to work early block again girls from school.

	definition classification <u>introducing the situation</u>
	Reinforcing the situation Contrasting Introducing a problem
	Comparison Example of the situation Contrast
	reinforcement classification definition
	Comparison A change in the situation

	Comparison A change in the situation Further example of the situation
	Support for the original situation Reinforcement of the change Comparison with 50 countries
	The problem defined

\* Having read the text above, think about how the sentences and ideas relate to each other. Notice sentences have a number before them. Choose the best

answer from the options for each numbered sentence. The first one is done for you.

Answers for teachers:

1. c    2. a    3. b    4. a    5. b    6. a    7. a

### **Activity 3: Formal vocabulary and grammar style**

Give handouts from Swales & Feak (2004)

Have students discuss what ‘academic texts’ mean to them; ask how the academic texts and their audiences are different from ‘ordinary’ genres such as post cards and complaint letters.

Go over the examples in the handout and show how academic texts use lexicogrammar to realize their textual conventions and to address the audience as other genres do;

Have students solve a few problems by themselves, and check / compare / discuss answers; Emphasize that formality is only a general tendency in academic writing and not a rigid rule that can be applied to all academic texts.

#### Homework

##### 1. Complete Fill-in-the-blank summary

Read the summary text from the class again and fill in the blanks: In the left column of the table below, write the sentence numbers that you think must be included in your summary of this text and In the right column of the table, give a reason (or *annotate*) why you selected those numbers in one sentence.

Sentence numbers that you selected	Rationale of selection
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•</li> <li>•</li> <li>•</li> </ul>	

When you have filled out all blanks, write a 30 word summary (précis) of the whole paragraph

Submit your work to homework drop box, ANGEL by 11 pm, Sunday.

2. Read Cook (2005, p. 47-50) and circle the words you don't understand.

3. Bring Cook (2005) and Ringbom (2001) to the next class. If you haven't read Ringbom (2001) yet, you really need to read it!

## ALL ABOUT PRÉCIS WRITING

A précis is a shortening, in your own words, of a text of written work. You are to describe as accurately and briefly as possible the substance or main ideas contained in a text.

One of the first (if not the first) difficulties to overcome in writing a précis is getting the facts straight. You should make no statements unsupported by the text. Make sure that all you say about the text is factually correct.

Another difficulty is putting the material into your own words. To do so, read the work carefully at least three times, put the work aside, then begin writing. This will force you to use your own words without the temptation of borrowing directly from the original.

Selecting the most effective details is also a difficulty. Work to pick out those details that are of greatest significance. Some details are more important than others, and you must choose details according to the scale of importance.

Do not make any conclusions about the original, its audience, or anything relating to the text. Your job is to provide your reader an accurate, but brief, map of the original and what you think about the writing or the topic of the text is not relevant here.

The précis (pronounced pray-see) is a type of summarizing that insists on an exact reproduction of the logic, organization, and emphasis of the original texts. It is of particular use in situations in which you want to detail the relative order, proportions, and relationships of the original parts of a text. An effective précis retains the logic, development, and argument of the original in much shorter form. Thus, a précis is useful when you are dealing with lengthy passages that demand careful attention to the logic and organization of an argument.

To write an effective précis, read the passage several times for a full understanding. Note key points. It may, in fact, be helpful to underline these words. Restate each paragraph in one or two sentences. In cases where there are very short paragraphs, combine them in your restatement. Make sure that you retain the precise order of the original points, and combine the sentences into one or more smooth paragraphs. Finally, check your précis against the original to be sure that it is exact and retains the order, proportions, and relationships of the original.

### **What is the essence of a précis?**

It is a short summary of the essential ideas of a longer composition; the basic thought of a passage is reproduced in miniature, retaining the mood and tone of the original. No interpretation or comment should be interjected. It must possess clear, emphatic diction and effective sentence construction. Its unity and coherence should be emphasized through smooth, unobtrusive transitions. Your summary must be intelligible to a reader who has not seen the original and should have solid compositional worth. 100 - 200 words is the desired length of a précis, unless otherwise specified.

### **How to write a précis?**

First, write an outline of the main ideas – those you see as most important. Think of it this way – you are summarizing the lecture for a friend who missed the class and the material will be on an upcoming test. Also, you may want to include a brief statement about the tone, audience, or purpose of the article.

Second, put your outline into sentence/paragraph form.

Third, count the number of words and make necessary changes.

**Do's and Don'ts of Précis Writing**

Start your précis by creating context (setting) and stating the main idea of the piece. Then you should begin presenting the method that the author used to defend this thesis.

Always state the name of the article/document, the author and the source (is it from a magazine, book, encyclopedia, etc.)

Do not use the words "in this article." Use the style "Crane argues that the most significant contribution of the Czechs was . . ."

When writing about history, use the past tense.

Do not use abbreviations or contractions.

When looking at primary sources, you should make note of the origin, purpose, value, and limitations of the document. (See website on Evaluation of sources)

Count your "ands."

Avoid words like big, good, bad, little, and a lot. Also, do not use the phrase "throughout history." This is cliché.

Titles of texts should be put in italics OR underlined.

(Source: <http://web.ics.purdue.edu/~pbawa/421/precis%20writing.htm>)

**DAY 6 (9/18, R)**

**Comparative summary:** Unlike précis which reproduces the main points and logical structure of the original texts, this section requires students' maintain distance from the author by assuming their own voices as an author through lexico-grammar devices such as reporting verbs.

**Objective:** Student will be able to 1) understand the difference between précis and (comparative ) summary; 2) objectify the voices of the authors, or *persona* using **reporting verbs**.

**Prepare:**

Matsuda (2003) copies

For teacher's reference, a copy of Cook (2005) and Ringbom (2001)

Procedure:

**Activity 1: In-class writing** (10 minutes)

What was your initial reaction to Ringbom (2001)? Do you identify with him? Why or why not? How was your learning experience as a non-native speaker similar or different from Ringbom (2001)?

**Activity 2:**

Content building and discussion:

- Review Cook (2005, p. 47-50) with students; check the vocabulary they don't understand
- Discuss main points of the text; raise questions about his suggestions; Ask them if they have noticed any generic features – structure and language; Have them reflect on what they wrote for in-class writing and Cook (2005, p. 47-50)

Matsuda handouts:

- Ask students to read the following excerpt from Matsuda (2003); ask them to circle the words that you don't know; and encourage them to underline, highlight, and take notes
- While reading, circle the numbers that will be included in your summary. Also make comments on the right column summarizing each paragraph

After reading, think about how Matsuda differs from Cook's position in terms of genre, content, tone, and language use.

Excerpts from *Proud to be a Nonnative English Speaker* by Paul Kei Matsuda, *TESOL Matters* (2003)

TEXT	One sentence summary
(1) A few years ago, at one of the TESOL leadership meetings, someone from another caucus	

<p>asked me which caucus I represented.</p> <p>(2) "NNEST," I replied, "which stands for Nonnative English Speakers in TESOL."</p> <p>(3) With an expression of sympathy on her face, she responded, "What an unfortunate name."</p> <p>(4) The conversation came to an abrupt conclusion as the voice from the podium demanded our attention, but I knew it would have ended even if the meeting had not begun.</p> <p>(5) I just did not know what to say.</p>	
<p>(6) I have been keenly aware for quite some time that the name of our caucus has been a topic of debate.</p> <p>(7) It was being contested when the NNEST caucus was first established, and even after its inception, a speaker at one of the TESOL sessions argued strenuously against the use of the term <i>nonnative English speaker</i>.</p> <p>(8) I can see how some people might consider the term to be an unfortunate choice because, as the argument goes, it defines a group of people for what they are not.</p> <p>(9) But at the same time, I am troubled by the assumption people are implicitly accepting when they respond negatively to the term <i>nonnative</i>—the assumption that the term <i>native</i> is somehow a positive one.</p>	
<p>(10) Few people would admit that they embrace such an assumption.</p> <p>(11) But I doubt that those who find the term <i>nonnative</i> unfortunate would react in the same way to terms such as <i>nondairy products</i>, <i>nonalcoholic beverages</i>, or even <i>nontoxic chemicals</i>.</p> <p>(12) It cannot be the combination of the prefix non- with a human referent that bothers them, either, especially if you consider examples such as <i>nontraditional students</i>, <i>nonsmokers</i>, <i>noncriminals</i>, and <i>nonfascists</i>.</p>	
<p>(13) It is not really the <i>non-</i> part that people find unfortunate, For <i>nonnative</i> to be a pejorative term, its counterpart would have to be positive.</p> <p>(14) <i>Nonnative</i> is unfortunate because <i>native</i> is supposed to be fortunate.</p> <p>(15) <i>Nonnative</i> is marked, whereas <i>native</i> is unmarked. <i>Nonnative</i> is marginal, and <i>native</i> is dominant. <i>Nonnative</i> is negative, and <i>native</i> is positive.</p>	

<p>(16) If anything needs to be changed, I do not think it is the term <i>nonnative</i>.</p> <p>(17) Rather, it is the assumption that <i>native</i> is somehow more positive than <i>nonnative</i> that needs to be challenged.</p> <p>(18) In fact, I keep coming back to the term <i>nonnative English speaker</i> precisely because it helps expose the very issue that the NNEST caucus has been trying to address.</p>	
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### Activity 3: Reporting verbs

Introduce reporting verbs and their usage with the handout from Swales & Feak (2004, p. 162-163); handout (hard copy)

Go over the handout from <http://www.utoronto.ca/writing/reporting.html> (see Appendix)

Ask student to circle reporting verbs that they do not know the meaning of **Circle reporting verbs** in the following sentences (source: Chinnery, 2008):

- 1) More globally, it has been argued that sites ranked highest by Google tend to remain the most popular, thereby restricting public exposure to new sites, essentially a rich-get-richer phenomenon or ‘googlearchy’ (Hindman, Tsioutsoulouklis, & Johnson, 2003).
- 2) Furthermore, these findings have been disputed by others who portray the search engine as more of an egalitarian ‘googleocracy’ (Menczer, Fortunato, Flammini, & Vespignani, 2006).

**Now consider the example:**

Researchers \_\_\_\_\_ that global warming has a detrimental effect on the environment.

1. Choose a reporting verb for the blank:  
a. found                      b. showed              c. concluded      d. argued              e. implied
2. How does the reporting verb change the attitude as well as meaning of the text? List the five verbs above in terms of the degree of certainty. Discuss your rationale.
3. Look at the Google sentence #1 and discuss how certain the author was about the statement that “sites ranked highest by Google tend to remain the most popular”

**Choosing reporting verbs:**

(adapted from  
<http://www.humanities.bham.ac.uk/handbook/student/AcademicWriting/mar06/7Referring.htm>)

Reporting verbs may be selected according to the author's interpretation of reported statement as factual, or neutral (keeping a distance), or disproved (negative).

Positive (factive)	Neutral	Neutral to negative
show	conclude	argue

In which of the three columns would you put the following verbs? Write down the numbers.

1. report 2. find 3. suggest 4. claim 5. conclude 6. identify 7. indicate 8. prove 9. state 10. declare 11. point out 12. contend 13. say

#### Homework

1. Write a comparative summary of Cook (2005, p. 47-50) and Matsuda (2003) using reporting verbs. Due 11 pm Sunday, ANGEL

## Appendix: Reporting verbs (Utoronto)

### Verbs for Referring to Sources

You can indicate your attitude to the sources you cite by choosing specific verbs to refer to them. Don't just keep repeating "Smith says." There is a wide choice of such verbs in English. Use a dictionary to check that you have chosen a verb with the nuance you intend.

Here are some grammatical patterns to follow in using these verbs:

#### Pattern 1: reporting verb + that + subject + verb

acknowledge	admit	agree	allege	argue	
assert	assume	believe	claim	conclude	
consider	decide	demonstrate	deny	determine	
discover	doubt	emphasize	explain	find	
hypothesize	imply	indicate	infer	note	
object	observe	point out	prove	reveal	
say	show	state	suggest	think	

- (a) Da Souza argues that previous researchers have misinterpreted the data.
- (b) Researchers have demonstrated that the procedure is harmful.
- (c) Positivists find that social disorders are exacerbated by class factors.
- (d) Singh infers that both states are essential.

Note that these verbs all differ in meaning—they cannot be used interchangeably. For example, the verb *argue* in sample sentence (a) indicates your judgment that the author's conclusion is based on evidence and reasoning, but that other conclusions might be possible. The verb *demonstrate* in sentence (b) indicates your judgment that the researchers' evidence and reasoning are so convincing that no other conclusion is possible.

Beware of using the verbs *discuss* or *express* followed by *that*. For example, it is incorrect to write, "The reviewer expressed that the movie is not worth seeing." You can, however, write the following: "The reviewer expressed the view that the movie is not worth seeing."

N.B.: Verbs in this category may also appear in a subordinate clause beginning with *As*:

- (e) As Da Souza argues, misinterpretations by previous researchers need to be corrected.
- (f) As researchers have demonstrated, the procedure is harmful.

#### Pattern 2: reporting verb + somebody/something + for + noun/gerund

applaud      blame    censure      criticize      disparage  
 fault    praise    ridicule      single out      thank

- (a) Smith criticized Jones for his use of incomplete data (OR for using incomplete data).
- (b) Both Smith and Jones condemn previous researchers for distorting the data.
- (c) Banting thanked Best for his contribution to the discovery of insulin.

**Pattern 3: reporting verb + somebody/something + as + noun/gerund/adjective**

appraise      assess    characterize    class    classify  
 define    depict    describe      evaluate      identify  
 interpret      portray      present      refer    view

- (a) Jones describes the findings as resting on irrefutable evidence.
- (b) Smith identifies the open window as a source of contamination.
- (c) Smith and Jones both present their data as conclusive.

**DAY 7 (9/23, T)**

**Reaction paper I:** Introduce students to (less formal) reaction paper genre

**Objective:** Students will be able to 1) understand the general structure of a reaction paper 2) identify evaluative language in reaction papers

Prepare:

Handouts from reaction paper, Swales & Feak (2004, p. 210-212)

Handouts from evaluative language, Swales & Feak (2004, p. 195-196)

Procedure:

**Activity 1: Identifying components and structure of reaction paper**

Handouts: Read reaction paper examples from Swales and Feak (2004, p. 210-212). Compare two papers:

Make a list of all the personal expressions used in the reaction papers

In which sentence(s) do the authors make effective use of their experiences?

How is the reaction organized in each paper? Problem – Solution? General to specific?

Identify the major components of a reaction paper

What is the purpose of writing a reaction paper?

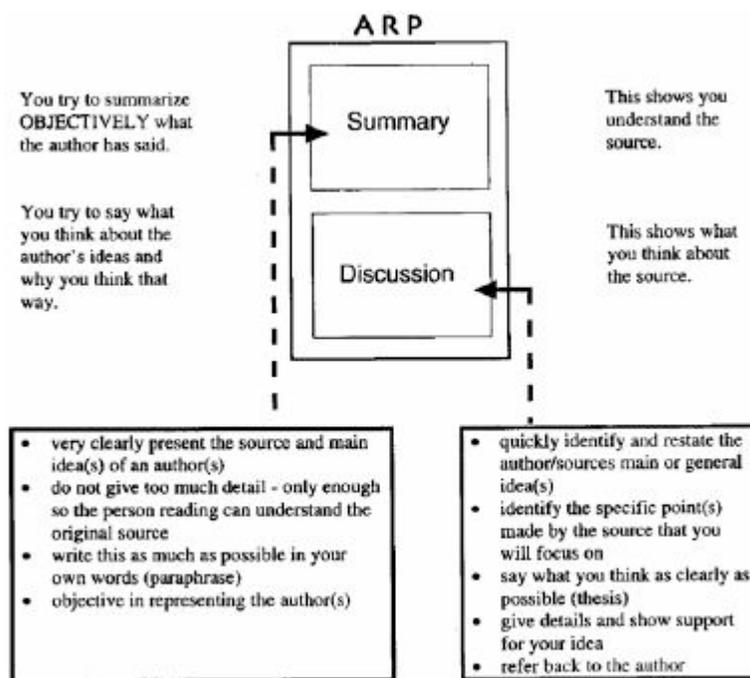
How long? What is the format?

What is the tone of the author?

As the example in Swales & Feak (2004) is a less formal version of reaction paper, it should be accessible to students; However, make sure they understand that the reaction paper genre exists on an informal-to-formal continuum, and that they need to decide on the formality according to the audience expectations; (they will see a more formal version in the next class).

Ask students whether they can guess the instructor's prompt the authors were responding to.

Have students draw a diagram of the components and structure of a reaction paper; an example may look like this:



## Activity 2: Evaluative language

Explain the concept of evaluation in academic texts using examples from handouts

Do Task Eight in Swales & Feak (2004, p. 195-196).

Have students identify evaluative language in two reaction paper examples and compare:

What are frequent devices of evaluation – e.g., adverb?

How does the use of modal verbs differ in two texts?

What are grammatical patterns co-occurring with the evaluative components? For example, does evaluation occur with “ I think . . . “ I believe . . . “, or “there is . . . “?

Homework

1. Write a comparative analysis of two reaction papers (in Swales & Feak, 2004): Compare components, structure and language features of two reaction papers: How are they different? What components can you identify? What language features are found in two texts?

Submit your analysis in ANGEL, by 11 pm Wednesday

2. Bring Swales's reaction papers to the next class

**DAY 8 (9/25, R)**

**Reaction paper II:** Introduce students to the academic reaction paper (ARP) genre

**Objective:** Student will be able to 1) analyze ARP exemplars and identify structure and language features; and 2) create a structural and linguistic description of reaction paper in the local context

Prepare:

Copies of Mei's ARP and Yamada's ARP

For teacher's reference:

ARP - Bayne, R.B., & Fearn, F. (2004)

SFL Schematic structure (Adapted from Macken-Horarik, 2002)

For teacher's reference, read excerpts from Bayne, R.B., & Fearn, F. (2004):

**Academic reaction paper (ARP)**

The reaction paper is found in a wide range of academic disciplines and is also referred to as a response paper, a reflection paper, a reflection and reaction paper or a summary and response paper. Although each of these is imprecisely defined, all stress the notion of personal response. As Swales and Feak (1986) note, the reaction paper is "a more personal and informal style of writing" wherein "students are encouraged to draw on their own experiences, feelings, and ideas as well as make methodological and analytical comments" (p. 148). Based on a cross-section of the numerous Internet sites referring to reaction paper, among the possible elements recognized are:

- an emotional, informal, personal response, reaction, or reflection
- a certain level of analysis
- limited summary of source (sometimes not required)
- limited length (almost universal, 1~2 pages being the norm)
- fairly rigid and short time to submission
- no agreement on academic features

In the authors' EAP<sup>12</sup> classrooms, the informality and personal nature of reaction papers noted above was felt to be inappropriate to the academic needs of our students. Instead, a more prescriptive approach was felt to be required, one emphasizing both the development of critical thinking skills and the development of writing skills appropriately academic in style, format, and convention. Hence the preference for the term Academic Reaction Paper (ARP).

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<sup>12</sup> English for Academic Purposes

ARPs are made up of two parts, a Summary and a Discussion. The Summary represents the key ideas of a given source(s). These must be read and then related in an objective, non-judgmental way. The Summary is one paragraph in length and forms no more than a quarter or a third of the whole paper. The Discussion must then respond to the source. This satisfies two key demands of academia, one, that students be able to digest information and understand it, and two, that this understanding is confirmed and an opinion of it held, the basis of critical thinking. The Discussion may have one or more paragraphs and vary in length depending on the level of demand made and the ability of the students. In total an ARP should be between 375 and 550 words in length. Additionally both Summary and Discussion should be written in a way that enables them to stand independently.

Procedure:

### **Activity 1: Analyzing an ARP (Yamada's paper)**

Introduce ARP and discuss with students:

Content: what is it about?

Audience and purpose

Ask students to explicitly identify (or write a list of):

Components of two papers

Structure: how are they organized?

Language features: reporting verbs, connectives, pronouns, formality, etc.

Compare Yamada's paper with the Swales's examples. Discuss why the generic features vary; and what role instructors' expectations play;

Ask them to identify indispensable components in an ARP;

Have them categorize and group components in 'moves' and 'steps'.

Optionally, introduce SFL<sup>13</sup> convention of describing schema structure (See schema structure handout):

### **Summary^Discussion^(References)**

### **Activity 2: Annotating an ARP– Mei's ARP on Cook (2005)**

Introduce "annotation" activity:

Writing comments on text

More emphasis on 'why' question than 'what': e.g., Why does the author begin his or her sentence with a noun phrase rather than a verb phrase?

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<sup>13</sup> Systemic Functional Linguistics

By doing this activity, students practice critical reading by taking a viewpoint of a writer – ‘*writerly-reading*’.

Development of students’ meta-awareness and an ability to detach themselves from the voices in the texts (or *persona*) is the goal of this activity.

(For more discussion, see *Connecting Reading and Writing in Second Language Writing* by Alan Hirvela, 2004)

Show an example of annotation:

(Leo was a student in ESL [course number – deleted] last semester. He wrote an annotation on an author’s argumentative text on Wal-Mart controversy. Leo shows not only ‘what’ but also how and **why** the author used language in this way; He points out that there is a rhetorical strategy of framing the scene in a biblical metaphor to make his claim hard to denounce.)

Text	Annotation / (comments on what / why / how)
<p>“But isn’t Wal- Mart really being punished for our sins? After all, it's not as if Wal-Mart's founder, Sam Walton, and his successors created the world's largest retailer by putting a gun to our heads and forcing us to shop there”</p>	<p>Reich points out that consumers should share responsibilities. The rhetorical question with the religious connotation (‘sins’) conjures the image of a scapegoat, and touches on our sympathy. This metaphorically frames the whole scene where WM represents the capitalist economy which we can’t deny. By presenting this metaphor the author makes it very hard to ‘blame’ WM.</p>

Read Mei’s ARP with students;

Ask students to take one paragraph from Mei’s paper and write an annotation by asking questions

- What is the author doing (content)?
- How does she sequence her arguments and why? (structure)
- How does the author achieve the purpose (rhetorical strategies)
- Why did author write the text this way and not the other ways (Purpose)
- Did the author achieve her purpose successfully? Why or why not? (Evaluation)

Share the annotation in the class and further discuss structure and language features:

**DRAW STUDENTS ATTENTION AWAY FROM THE CONTENT (WHAT) AND EMPHASIZE ‘WHY’ QUESTION TO ESTABLISH THE LINK BETWEEN TEXT AND COMMUNICATIVE PURPOSE.**

Further questions to consider:

- What is her strategy or the pattern of beginning each sentence and paragraph?
- What modal verbs frequently appear?
- How does Mei present her critiques?

Homework

Write an annotation on Mei's reaction paper

Draw a table and annotate on how the author used texts; consider a) components and b) structure ; and c) language features

Due 11 pm Sunday in ANGEL

Review Cook (2005, p. 47-50)

Bring Mei's paper and Cook (2005, p. 47-50) to the next class

**DAY 9 (9/30, T)**

**Writing Reaction paper:** Use the content knowledge, genre awareness, and the writing process to pre-write a reaction paper. Students need to transfer their genre knowledge to performance in this stage.

**Objective:** Student will be able to 1) read critically, 2) summarize; 3) structure; and 4) organize their arguments for their ARP.

Prepare:

Copies of Hedging tasks 6 and 8 Hamp-Lyons (p. 63-66)

For teacher's reference, Bayne & Fearn (2003, 2004)

Procedure:

- What was the most difficult moment in your experiences as a language learner and nonnative speaker of English?

- Have you heard of the words, 'non-native speaker', or 'native speaker'? What do they mean to you? How are they used or meant in your home country?

**Activity 1: Using writing process to pre-write a reaction paper**

Review process of writing with students:

Critical reading

Making notes (on the margin or a note), highlighting, underscoring

Making a list of major arguments/ points

Writing a summary – expanding from a list

Writing a critique (or 'Discussion') discussion on weakness and strength of a text, presenting a synthesis or a new perspective

(optionally) Use Yamada paper to refresh the process

Have students review Cook (2005, p. 47-50)

Ask students to discuss arguments from the text

What are the major arguments and concepts?

Do you support the author's idea?

Do you support the examples or evidences in the text?

What alternative perspectives can you present?

Make a list of Cook's main ideas / arguments (List for summary)

The make another list of students' own arguments (List for discussion)

Review the components and schema of academic reaction paper (ARP)

Have them work in pair. Have students organize the list into a diagram or in a table (see Bayne & Fearn), then ask them to write their own texts into the diagram or the table:

“Using the margin in the diagram or the right column of the table, make notes or write a simple sentence expanding from each item in the list. You can either write an actual sentence for your reaction paper, or make notes to write sentences later.”

When students are ready with ask them what stage of the writing process they found difficult; (e.g., critiquing, changing arguments into actual words, etc.), and how they develop their list an summary into a full-fledged reaction paper.

### **Activity 2: Language feature: Hedging**

Introduce the concept of ‘hedging’ by Hamp-Lyons’s tasks 6 and 8.

Discuss why hedging can be important in academic writing; Optionally, introduce ‘stance’ in academic writing (see Hyland’s articles). Explain how stance is important in academic writing then review the concept and language of hedging; Discuss with students a) ways to make decisions about author’s stance and why

Some information on hedging in academic writing is found in a webpage of U. of London:

#### **To ‘hedge’:**

- To use an intentionally noncommittal or ambiguous statement
- To use evasive or deliberately vague language
- To avoid fulfilling or answering a question completely
- To be confidently uncertain
- To use verbal and adverbial expressions such as *can*, *perhaps*, *may*, *suggest*, which deal with degrees of probability

In order to distinguish between facts and claims, writers often use tentative language such as *it seems likely that...* or *arguably...*. This technique is called *hedging* or *vague language*. Hedging is crucial in academic discourse, and hedge words account for approximately 1 word in every 100 in scientific articles.

Example: “Our results *seem to suggest* that in less industrialised countries the extensive use of land to grow exportation products *tends* to impoverish these countries’ populations even more”.

It is often believed that academic writing, particularly scientific writing, is factual. However an important feature of academic writing is the concept of cautious language, or “hedging”. It is necessary to make decisions about your stance on a particular subject, or the strength of the claims you are making. The appropriate use of hedging strategies for academic argumentation is a significant resource for student writers and plays an important part in demonstrating competence in a specialist register.

### **Four reasons to hedge**

By hedging, authors tone down their statements in order to **reduce the risk of opposition**. This position associates hedges with scientific imprecision and defines them as linguistic cues of bias which avoid personal accountability for statements.

Writers want their readers to know that they do not claim to have the final word on the subject. Expressing a lack of certainty does not necessarily show confusion or vagueness. One could consider hedges as **ways of being more precise in reporting results**. Hedging may present the true state of the writers' understanding and may be used to negotiate an accurate representation of the state of the knowledge under discussion. In fact, academic writers may well wish to reduce the strength of claims simply because stronger statements would not be justified by the data or evidence presented.

Hedges may be understood as **positive or negative politeness strategies** in which the writer tries to appear humble rather than arrogant or all-knowing. Hedging is a rational interpersonal strategy which supports the writer's position, builds writer-reader (speaker/listener) relationships and guarantees a certain level of acceptability in a community. Once a claim becomes widely accepted, it is then possible to present it without a hedge.

A certain degree of hedging has become conventionalized; hedging now functions to conform to an **established writing style in English**.

### Language used in hedging

Modal auxiliary verbs	<i>may, might, can, could, would, should</i>	‘Such a measure <i>might</i> be more sensitive to changes in health after specialist treatment.’
Modal lexical verbs doubting and evaluating rather than merely describing	<i>to seem, to appear (epistemic verbs), to believe, to assume, to suggest, to estimate, to tend, to think, to argue, to indicate, to propose, to speculate</i>	‘In spite of its limitations, the study <i>appears</i> to have a number of important strengths.’
Probability adjectives	<i>possible, probable, un/likely</i>	‘It is <i>likely</i> to result in failure.’
Nouns	<i>assumption, claim, possibility, estimate, suggestion</i>	‘We <i>estimate</i> that one in five marriages end in divorce.’
Adverbs	<i>perhaps, possibly, probably, practically, likely, presumably, virtually, apparently</i>	‘There is, <i>perhaps</i> , a good reason why she chose to write in the first person.’
Approximators of degree, quantity, frequency and time	<i>approximately, roughly, about, often, occasionally, generally, usually, somewhat, somehow, a lot of</i>	‘Fever is present in <i>about</i> a third of cases.’
Introductory phrases	<i>believe, to our knowledge, it is our view that, we feel that</i>	‘ <i>We believe</i> that there is no simple explanation.’
“If” clauses	<i>if true, if anything</i>	‘ <i>If true</i> , our study contradicts the myth that men make better managers than women.’
Compound hedges	<i>seems reasonable, looks probable</i>	Such compound hedges can be double hedges (it <i>may suggest</i> that; it <i>seems likely</i> that; it <i>would indicate</i> that; this <i>probably indicates</i> ); treble hedges (it <i>seems reasonable</i> to assume that); quadruple hedges (it <i>would seem somewhat unlikely</i> that, it <i>may appear somewhat speculative</i> that) and so on.

Have students go over Mei's paper and circle / underscore hedging devices in the text, and compare their findings.

Discuss how Mei is using hedges to create her stance in text

Is hedging underused/ overused in her text?

What is the most frequent hedging device?

Why does (or does not) the author use hedging?

Ask students how they would create their stance in the reaction paper that they need to write. Optionally, have them read Eunju's reaction paper and compare her stance with Mei's.

Homework

Write an ARP on Cook (2005). To do this,

Review your list and summaries on Cook

Read Cook (2005) in its entirety

Paper is due 11 pm Wednesday in ANGEL

Bring a copy of **your** ARP and Cook (2005) to the next class.

**DAY 10 (10/2, R)**

**Objective:** Student will be able to 1) read critically, 2) summarize; 3) structure; and 4) organize their arguments for, a reaction paper.

Prepare:

Copies of self-annotation examples from Cheng (2007, p. 297)

Procedure:

**Activity 1: Introducing self-annotation activity**

Show an example of self-annotation from Cheng (2007, p. 297)

**Discuss:**

How many moves are in this paragraph?

What are the functions accomplished by each of the ‘moves’ in this example?

How does the author categorize the moves?

Compare two versions of annotations;

Which one do you think is a better example?

What kinds of questions are asked in the examples - What / How / Why?

Can you identify ‘moves’ from your ARP?

**Activity 2: Writing a self-annotation**

Ask students to read their reaction paper draft (esp. Discussion section) and write annotation on one or two paragraphs.

Help them ask questions focusing on **why** (e.g., why is this author, myself, is using language this way and not other ways, why is it an effective strategy to achieve a goal?), not **what** (e.g., the author is raising a question).

Homework

Write a self-annotation (draft 1) on your ARP

Paper is due 11 pm Sunday in ANGEL

Bring a copy of your self-annotation and Cook (2005) to the next class.

**DAY 11 (10/7, T)**

**Citation:** Introduce plagiarism and citation

**Objective:** Student will be able to 1) identify plagiarized texts; 2) use in-text and reference citations; and 3) locate resources to get help using APA citation.

Prepare:

Copies of Plagiarism\_Handout.pdf from PSU Library

Examples from How to Avoid Plagiarism

Copies of APA citation guide from PSU library

<http://www.libraries.psu.edu/instruction/format/apacitation.html>

Procedure:

**Activity 1: Understanding plagiarism**

Ask students how plagiarism is defined in their home countries. This is an important step because most students refer to the practice in their home country rather than look for information on plagiarism as it is defined in US.

Cover the plagiarism handout; give an overview of how plagiarism is defined and can be avoided – Plagiarism & You, PSU:

([http://www.libraries.psu.edu/instruction/infolit/andyou/mod9/plagiarism\\_vb.htm](http://www.libraries.psu.edu/instruction/infolit/andyou/mod9/plagiarism_vb.htm))

Use examples from How to Avoid Plagiarism

(<http://tlt.its.psu.edu/suggestions/cyberplag/cyberplagexamples.html>)

Also misstate offers an introduction with useful examples

(<http://www.ece.msstate.edu/~fowler/Classes/plagiarism.pdf>)

Have students determine whether text is plagiarized or not and discuss their rationale:

The original text from Elaine Tyler May's "Myths and Realities of the American Family" reads as follows:

Because women's wages often continue to reflect the fiction that men earn the family wage, single mothers rarely earn enough to support themselves and their children adequately. And because work is still organized around the assumption that mothers stay home with children, even though few mothers can afford to do so, child-care facilities in the United States remain woefully inadequate.

Version A:

Since women's wages often continue to reflect the mistaken notion that men are the main wage earners in the family, single mothers rarely make enough to support themselves and their children very well. Also, because work is still based on the assumption that mothers stay home with children, facilities for childcare remain woefully inadequate in the United States.

## Version B:

As Elaine Tyler May points out, "women's wages often continue to reflect the fiction that men earn the family wage" (588). Thus many single mothers cannot support themselves and their children adequately. Furthermore, since work is based on the assumption that mothers stay home with children, facilities for day care in this country are still "woefully inadequate." (May 589).

## Version C:

By and large, our economy still operates on the mistaken notion that men are the main breadwinners in the family. Thus, women continue to earn lower wages than men. This means, in effect, that many single mothers cannot earn a decent living. Furthermore, adequate day care is not available in the United States because of the mistaken assumption that mothers remain at home with their children.

## Version D:

Women today still earn less than men — so much less that many single mothers and their children live near or below the poverty line. Elaine Tyler May argues that this situation stems in part from "the fiction that men earn the family wage" (588). May further suggests that the American workplace still operates on the assumption that mothers with children stay home to care for them (589). This assumption, in my opinion, does not have the force it once did. More and more businesses offer in-house day-care facilities. . . .

Compare students' answers with:

**Version A: Plagiarism.** In Version A there is too much direct borrowing in sentence structure and wording. The writer changes some words, drops one phrase, and adds some new language, but the overall text closely resembles May's. Even with a citation, the writer is still plagiarizing because the lack of quotation marks indicates that Version A is a paraphrase, and should thus be in the writer's own language.

**Version B: Plagiarism.** The writer now cites May, so we're closer to telling the truth about our text's relationship to the source, but this text continues to borrow too much language.

**Version C: Plagiarism.** Version C shows good paraphrasing of wording and sentence structure, but May's original ideas are not acknowledged. Some of May's points are common knowledge (women earn less than men, many single mothers live in poverty), but May uses this common knowledge to make a specific and original point and her original conception of this idea is not acknowledged.

**Version D: No Plagiarism.** The writer makes use of the common knowledge in May's work, but acknowledges May's original conclusion and does not try to pass it off as his or her own. The quotation is properly cited, as is a later paraphrase of another of May's ideas.

**Usually, students have found it difficult to understand why Version C is plagiarized.** Make sure students understand paraphrased texts can still be plagiarized.

### **Activity 2: Using citation (APA)**

Ask students to think about a way to cite sources (e.g. authors); Give them a few cases that may force them to think about the way to figure out information structure of APA style. Give students a few data examples and ask for a way to sort the data in a reference page

Why would they use any system like APA at all?

Would they use full names to cite an author – first, middle, and the last name?

What can be an alternative to the author-year system of APA?

What if the same author has more than one publication? And what if the author has multiple publications within a year?

Then discuss a way to integrate the system in the reference page into a document as in-text citation.

Should in-text citation and reference differ? If so, why and how?

Optionally, use APA Quiz to help students further think about text type and citations. See examples below:

### **APA Quick Citation Guide Quiz**

#### **PART 1. Identify the type of publication**

Book by a single author

Book by two authors

Book by three or more authors

Book by a corporate author

Article within a book

Translation

Winne, P. H. Self-regulated learning viewed from models of information processing (2001). In B.J. Zimmerman & D.H. Schunk (Eds.), *Self-regulated learning and academic achievement* (2nd ed.) (pp. 160-192). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Rollin, B. E. (2006). *Science and ethics*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Goodpaster, K. E., Nash, L. L., & de Bettignies, H. (2006). *Business ethics: Policies and persons* (3rd ed.). Boston: McGraw-Hill/Irwin.

American Medical Association. (2004). *American Medical Association family medical guide* (4th ed.). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.

Sherman, C., & Price, G. (2001). *The invisible web: Uncovering information sources search engines can't see*. Medford, NJ: CyberAge Books.

Ans. \_\_\_\_\_ 1: \_\_\_\_\_ 2: \_\_\_\_\_ 3: \_\_\_\_\_ 4: \_\_\_\_\_ 5: \_\_\_\_\_

## PART 11. Identify the type of publication

Article in a magazine

Article in a daily newspaper

Article in a scholarly journal paginated by volume (include volume # after title of publication)

Article in a scholarly journal paginated by issue (include volume & issue # after title of publication)

**Stock, C. D. & Fisher, P. A. (2006). Language delays among foster children: Implications for policy and practice. *Child Welfare*, 85, 445-462.**

Dougherty, R. (2006, January 11). Jury convicts man in drunk driving death. *Centre Daily Times*, p. 1A.

**Will, G. F. (2004, July 5). Waging war on Wal-Mart. *Newsweek*, 144, 64.**

**Fiksel, J. (2006). A framework for sustainable materials management. *JOM*, 58(8), 15-22.**

Swedin, E. G. (2006, May/June). Designing babies: A eugenics race with China? *The Futurist*, 40, 18-21.

Ans. \_\_\_\_\_ 1: \_\_\_\_\_ 2: \_\_\_\_\_ 3: \_\_\_\_\_ 4: \_\_\_\_\_ 5: \_\_\_\_\_

Homework

Continue revising the ARP and the self-annotation using APA style: Work on the reference section and in-text citation.

Bring your reaction and annotation to the next class.

**DAY 12 (10/9, R)****Revision workshop:** Formatting / references / APA

During this workshop session, go over the requirements of the Assignment #1 again, and work with students on finalizing their ARPs.

**ARP**

Have students check the generic schema and language features – reporting verbs, vocabulary, and grammar. Ask them to work in pairs and check the APA citation and formatting.

**Self-annotation**

Review the two versions of self-annotations (Cheng, 2007)

Have students revise their texts asking *why* questions

Redirect students' questions and requests to the resource websites and the course exemplars: Help them find out where to look for answers.

## APPENDIX B

### ARP PROMPT

Assignment #1: Self-annotated academic reaction paper (ARP)

DUE: 11PM, October 12, 2008 (Sunday)

Assignment 1 consists of two components: a) a reaction paper (4-5 pages) and b) a self-annotation (2-3 pages). You will be responsible for both papers.

*Directions:*

ARP (70%):

Having discussed the issues of native/ nonnative speakers, write a paper responding to the arguments in Cook (2005). How are native and nonnative speakers conceptualized? What are the key concepts in Cook's article and what are your thoughts? Finally, present your reaction to the argument ("the native speaker myth") that native speakers are necessarily better teachers of English. Draw on the course readings, your experiences, and library sources.

Organization (20%)

Content knowledge, textual evidence and arguments (20%)

Appropriate use of generic language features (20%)

Mechanics and format (10%)

Self-annotation (30%):

Write a self-annotation on your ARP. Ask *why* questions in considering what your purpose as an author was, and how you used language to achieve the purpose.

Organization (10%)

Content knowledge, textual evidence and arguments (10%)

Appropriate use of generic language features (10%)

Your arguments, evidence, and language should be appropriate for a more "informed" reader, as well as an "academic" audience. You are required to cite at least 3 sources (any of the readings we covered in class AND/OR any outside readings that you find).

- Double spacing; number your pages and put your name on the paper.
- 12-point, Times New Roman font; 1-inch margins
- Proper APA style in-text citation required. All references should be cited using APA formatting in a 'REFERENCE' section at the end of the paper
- Submit two papers as MS word documents in the drop box, ANGEL.

## VITA

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#### Education

The Pennsylvania State University (PSU), University Park, PA  
**Ph.D., Applied Linguistics**, Aug 2010

University of Northern Iowa (UNI), Cedar Falls, IA  
**M.A., Educational Technology**, December 2003  
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#### Publications

- Reis, D. S. (in press). Sociocultural Theory, Identity Development, and Critical Praxis: An NNEST's Journey. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language*.
- Reis, D. S. (in press). Nonnative English-Speaking Teachers (NNESTs) and Professional Legitimacy: Second-Language Teacher Education on a Mission. In K. E. Johnson & P. R. Golombek (Eds.), *Sociocultural Research on Second Language Teacher Education: Exploring the Complexities of Professional Development*. New York: Routledge.
- Reis, D. S. (2009). NEST-NNEST Collaboration: Does It Reinforce a Misleading Dichotomy? *NNEST Newsletter*, 11(1), online at: <http://tinyurl.com/nnest11>
- Reis, D. S. (2009). NNEST-of-the-Month (July 2009), online at: <http://tinyurl.com/NNESTinterview>
- Reis, D. S. (2008). A Vygotskyan Perspective on Non-Native English-Speaking Teachers' Identity. *NNEST Newsletter*, 10(1), online at: <http://tinyurl.com/nnest10>
- Reis, D. S. (2008). Book Review: *Discourse Analysis: Bamberg, De Fina & Schiffrin (2007)*. *The Linguist List*, July 31st 2008, online at: <http://www.linguistlist.org/issues/19/19-2392.html>

#### Conference Presentations

- Professional development for NNESTs: A sociocultural perspective on identity change  
 » TESOL 2010, Boston, MA, Mar 10
- NNESTs and professional legitimacy: A sociocultural theoretical perspective on identity  
 » ISLS 2009, Orlando, FL, Jun 09  
 » LTE 2009, Washington, D.C., May 09  
 » AAAL 2009, Denver, CO, Mar 09
- Sociocultural Theory, Identity Development, and Critical Praxis: An NNEST's Journey  
 » TESOL 2009, Denver, CO, Mar 09