The Problems of Communicative Language Teaching for Chinese Student Teachers in an American TESOL Practicum and Our Post-Lesson Dialogue for Solutions

By

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For Dilin, Chaoxing, Jun, Liying, Tom, and Molly,

and your contributions to education.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

DEDICATION ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS iii
LIST OF TABLES viii
LIST OF FIGURES ix
ABBREVIATIONS x

Chapter

1. Introduction 1

Statement of the Research Problem 1
Research Questions 6
Overview of the Dissertation 7

2. Theoretical Framework and Literature Review 9

Theoretical Framework 9
Transnational Movement between Activity Systems of Education 9
Teacher Change to Break the Apprenticeship of Observation 12
The Sociocultural Turn in Second Language Teacher Education 16
A Student Teacher's Role as an Apprentice 17
Dialogue for Knowledge Building 19
Discussion 23
Literature Review 23
English Language Teaching in China 24
The Gaokao 24
Common English Instructional Practices in China 25
Pre-service Teacher Beliefs and Practices 30
Pre-service Teacher Practicums 32
Discussion 35
Preparation for Practicum Teaching in Western TESOL Programs 37
Western TESOL Practicum Preparation 37
Chinese Student Teaching in American TESOL Practicums 41
Discussion 45
Further Practicum Findings 46
Discussion 51
Conclusion 51

3. Research Methodology 53

Research Context, Study Design, Sites, and Participants 53
Research Context 53
Study Design and Rationale 54
The Weldon College MA TESOL Program 55
Participants 56
Supervisor 60
The Practicum and Practicum Sites 61
Mentor Teachers 63
Data Collected 65
Data Analysis 66
Phase1 68
Analysis of Type 1 CLT Problems and Successes 69
Analysis of Type 2 Problems with Communication 73
Phase 2 77
Phase 3 80

4. Findings 82

Part 1: Problems and Successes in Practicing CLT 82

Communication Problems: Cultural Practices and Communicative Teaching Intent 83
Problems Interfering with Student Communication and CLT across Lessons 83
Problems in Enacting Practices that are Common in China's Classrooms 87
Dilin's First Lesson 88
Chaoxing's Third Lesson 89
Problems showing Communicative Teaching Intent 90
Chaoxing's First Lesson 92
Discussion 93
CLT Success 93
Jun's Second Lesson 94
Liying's Third Lesson 95
The Effect of Attending to Student Interests 95
Weighing the Cultural Demands of What it Means to be a Good Teacher 100
Discussion of Part 1 103

Part 2: Post-lesson Dialogue to Solve CLT Problems 106

How we Disagreed on Teaching Vocabulary 108

Dilin's Focus on Using the Language, but Not Activities for its Use 110
Chaoxing's Struggle to Balance Tradition and CLT 115
Discussion 118
The Process of Addressing Communicative Problems 119
Stage 1: Opening Assessments on the Lesson 121
Stage 2: Building Assessments 124
Stage 3: Focusing on a Problematic Part 126
Stage 4: Agreeing on the Problem 129
Differences between Chaoxing and Dilin in Reconstructing Lesson Parts 130
Stage 5: Searching for a Solution, or a Redo-Fix 132
Jun: Puzzling Over Problems to Crack the CLT Code 137
Stage 6: Supervisor Coaching of the Redo-Fix 140
Discussion 142
The Dialogical Moves Driving Change 143
Responsively Following the Supervisor or Mentor Teacher 144
How Liying Hung in There to Find a Solution 145
Dilin's Inability to Responsively Follow his Supervisor and Mentor 147
Giving the Specific Fix to a CLT Problem and Believing in it 149
How Chaoxing Gave Specific Fixes with a Can-do Attitude 149
Discussion 153
How Dialogue through the Stages Influenced Appropriation.....................................154
Discussion 160
Conclusion to Part 2 160

5. Discussion 163

Summary and Discussion of Findings 164
RQ1: What problems of practice interfered with student communication in practicum lessons and how did student teachers successfully implement CLT? 164
RQ2: In post-lesson reflections, how did we interact in seeking solutions to problems that interfered with student communication? 169
Contributions, Limitations, and Directions for Future Research 175
Contributions 175
Limitations 179
Directions for Future Research 180
Policy Implications 182
Conclusion 183

Appendix 185

A. Coded Minutes from Chaoxing's First Lesson on a PowerPoint slide of her Story Map..185
B. Feedback from Chaoxing's First Lesson 186
C. Keenan observing a lesson while writing Minutes, with Feedback on his left 187
D. Narrative Descriptions of the Lessons 188
E. Bloome and Egan-Robertson (1993) Heuristic for investigating the Social Construction of Intertextuality..212
F. A page from my Modified Version of the Bloome and Egan-Robertson (1993) Heuristic..213
G. Theoretical Questions to ask of the Reflective Dialogues..214
H. Instances of Moves 218
I. Analytic Memo: Findings: A 1st Lesson Pattern or Process 220
J. Coding to Discover Moves in the Stages of our Dialogical Process 227
K. Tables of Problem Initiation and Agreement from First Reflections 236

REFERENCES 238

LIST OF TABLES

Table

1. Codes Categorized in a Communicative Language Teaching Activity System 72

2. Key Study Concordance: Chinese Resistance to CLT 74

3. Codes Categorized in an Activity System of ELT like that Found in China 75

4. Key Passages to Investigate the Social Significance of our Dialogical Interactions 78

5. Problems Interfering with Student Communication and CLT across Lessons 84

6. Categories of Problems Interfering with Student Communication 86

7. Did STs Largely Attend or Not Attend to Student Interests and How? 97

8. Instances of Dialogical Moves across Key Passages in First Reflections 113

9. Problems that Student Teachers Discussed in Opening Assessments 124

10. Searching for a Solution or a Redo-Fix: Instances, Problems, Initiations, and Time Frame...133

11. Student Teacher (ST) Fix Idea, Supervisor Recognition, Amount of Scaffolding, Fix Type...136

12. Purposes we Accomplished and did not Accomplish in Stages of Dialogue 155

13. Student Teacher Appropriation of Ideas for CLT from Dialogue...............................159

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure

1. An Activity System 11

2. Model for movement across Chinese EFL and American ESL Activity Systems........ 12

3. Arnetha Ball's (2009) Model of Generative Change 13

4. Phases of Data Analysis... 67

5. Categories in a classroom with a CLT Activity System.. 71

6. Categories in an Activity System of ELT like that Found in China............................. 76

7. One of Chaoxing's three handouts for Round Robin Reading of vocabulary 90

8. One example of Chaoxing's paired complaint cards... 92

9. Material for Chaoxing's second lesson, information gap activity 197

10. Material for Dilin's second lesson...201

11. Material for Dilin's third lesson 207

ABBREVIATIONS

ACTFL	American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages
BA	Bachelor of Arts
CHC	Confucius-heritage culture
CLD	culturally and linguistically diverse
CLT	communicative language teaching
e.g.	for example
i.e.	that is
EFL	English as a foreign language
ELT	English language teaching or English language teacher
ESL	English as a second language
MA	Master of Arts
MOE	Ministry of Education
NNES	Non-native English speaking or speaker
NNEST	Non-native English-speaking teacher
Ph.D.	Doctor of Philosophy
PPT	PowerPoint
PRC	People's Republic of China
R1	Reflection 1; R2 = Reflection 2; R3 = Reflection 3
RQ1	Research Question 1; RQ2 = Research Question 2
S	supervisor
Ss	students
SLTE	second language teacher education
ST	student teacher
SWBAT	Students will be able to
TEFL	Teaching English as a foreign language
TESL	Teaching English as a second language
TESOL	Teaching English to Students of Other Languages
US	United States

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This dissertation reports how four student teachers from mainland China implemented communicative language teaching in their American, MA (Master of Arts) TESOL practicums. It also reports how we discussed problems in this implementation. As their supervisor, I witnessed their teaching and discussed it with them in audiotaped post-lesson reflections. Our discussions shed light on their problems of practice that interfered with student communication and our differing conceptions of English language teaching, ELT. Since their conceptions were formed as students in China, I will introduce the research problem that their implementation posed from a Chinese standpoint by noting the circumstances of communicative language teaching in their home country.

Statement of the Research Problem

From the end of the Cultural Revolution in 1976, China has become the country with the most English students and teachers in the world. There has been an "explosion in the [country's] demand for English" (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996, p. 61; Yang, 2006; Sun, 2014; Wang & Lam, 2009). China's increases in English student numbers fulfill decades-old government plans to accelerate modernization and development through education, particularly English education (Yang, 2006; Cortazzi & Jin, 1996). From 1979, the Chinese Ministry of Education (MOE) began launching numerous English foreign language (EFL) teacher training programs (Penner, 1995) that brought in a large contingent of the 20,000 foreign education experts who taught at 400 institutions from 1980-1985 during China's open-door policy (Cheng, 1988). Many of the foreign trainers of EFL

teachers emphasized the current approach sweeping TESOL[1], communicative language teaching, or CLT (Penner, 1995). This approach influenced Chinese Ministry of Education (MOE) top-down education policies that were soon mandated for the nation's schools (Penner, 1995). Liming Yu (2001) tells how the State Education Development Commission, which had "taken the place" of the MOE from 1985-1998 (Li, 2010, p. 439), moved to change the English curriculum.

> *In 1992 the State Education Development Commission (SEDC) replaced the 1981 structure-based national unified syllabus with a new one that set communication as the teaching aim. The 1992 syllabus called for training in listening, speaking, reading, and writing to enable students to "gain basic knowledge of English and competence to use English for communication" (SEDC, 1992, p. 1).* (p. 195)

Wang and Lam (2009) affirm that with the 1993 implementation of the "*Quanrizhi Gaoji Zhongxue Yingyu Jiaoxue Dagang* [English Language Syllabus for Full-time Senior Secondary School]…the communicative approach was adopted for the first time in the history of English language education in China" (p. 70). By this time, communicative language teaching had become the large TESOL field's professional approach (Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Brown, 2001; Wong, 2006). In describing CLT and its historical place in English language teaching, Brown (2001) remarked, "No one these days would admit to a disbelief in principles of CLT; they would be marked as a heretic" (p. 44).

While "no single model of CLT is universally accepted as authoritative…, CLT starts with a theory of language as communication, and its goal is to develop learners' communicative

[1] TESOL stands for Teaching English to Students of Other Languages and is also a major international professional organization that dominates the field of English language teaching (Canagarajah,1999; Liu, 1998).

competence" (Rao, 2002, p.87; Richards & Rogers, 2001). In communicative language teaching, Diane Larsen-Freeman (2000) explains that "almost everything that is done is done with a communicative intent" (p. 129). By the CLT approach, teachers implement communicative activities whereby students must exchange information using targeted structures to complete a task (Brown, 2001). A key principle of this practice is to "maximize the time allotted to each student for learning to negotiate meaning" and to minimize teacher talk (Rao, 2002). Students often share information with partners or in small groups throughout an activity (Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Rao, 2002). In this way, CLT is student-centered (Brown, 2001). Students have numerous opportunities to use the language to complete simulated, game-like tasks of the kind they are likely to encounter outside the classroom (Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Brown, 2001). Most importantly in this regard, tasks have the motivating elements of unrehearsed spontaneity and suspense (Brown, 2001). "Activities that are truly communicative, according to Morrow (in Johnson and Morrow, 1981) have three features in common: information gap, choice, and feedback" (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, p. 129). Just as in real life, students in CLT classes are cast into situations with outcomes unknown. They are often involved in a purposeful chase to seize objectives (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). Students get up from their seats and move. "Games, role plays, simulations, and problem-solving tasks" are frequently enacted (Rao, 2002, p. 87; Larsen-Freeman, 2000). During activities, the teacher is largely an observer who monitors activity and "acts as an advisor" when questions arise (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, p.128). If task-based, communicative language teaching were implemented in Chinese schools, activities would have these features.

But Guangwei Hu and Eunice Lai-Yiu Tang argue that a historically entrenched "Chinese culture of learning" makes China unreceptive to CLT (Hu, 2002, p. 96). Tang (2004) refers to

this as a “Confucius-heritage culture (CHC) style in the Asian classroom” (Tang, Lee, & Chun, 2012, p. 103). Public school English teachers believe CLT is “showy” and a waste of class time that could be better spent preparing students to get the right answers on China’s college admissions test, the *Gaokao* (Fang & Clarke, 2014, p.111; Li, 2010). Teacher input has been minimal in the waves of top-down reform policies mandating CLT (Li, 2010). And though university English language teaching programs advocate communicative language teaching, several studies show that Chinese student teachers (STs) don’t believe in CLT and have difficulty practicing it (Peacock, 2001; Tang, Lee, & Chun, 2012; Edwards & Tsui, 2009; Fang & Clarke, 2014; Gan, 2013; Yan & He, 2015).

Chinese student teachers experience tensions in struggling to implement CLT (Yan & He, 2015). Fang and Clarke (2014), Lopez-real, Law, and Tang (2009), and Edwards and Tsui (2009) explore tensions between supervisors, mentor teachers, and student teachers in post-lesson reflective sessions. Tensions swirl around identifying CLT problems and moving student teachers to take up CLT practice. Prominent learning theorists believe that tension and conflict is essential to learning (Bakhtin, 1981; Gutierrez & Stone, 2000; Ball, 2000; Freedman & Ball, 2004). But these Chinese studies show that CLT problems and practicum tensions do little to move student teacher appropriation of this practice. Most participants in these studies remain wedded to apprenticed Confucian practices favoring grammar-translation for exam preparation.

However, many Chinese are now studying TESOL outside of China in international programs. Outside of a Confucian culture of education, in dialogical Western university TESOL programs whose practices align with communicative teaching (Wong, 2006), one could reasonably hypothesize that Chinese student teachers would show a stronger affinity for communicative language teaching in practicums. But we know almost nothing about the

problems of Chinese student teachers in enacting CLT in the West, though their numbers continue to increase. There are very few studies on any student teachers in TESOL practicums here, much less international or Chinese STs (Gan, 2013; Chiang, 2008; Crookes, 2003; Farrell, 2003; Freeman, 2002; Freeman & Johnson, 1998). We have only glimpses of how their problems are negotiated in post-lesson reflections. And what little we know about their learning and development in Western programs comes from the narrative dissertation studies of East Asian women by Lu (2005) and Park (2006).

To better support the professional development of these student teachers we need to know what problems interfere with their implementation of CLT. We need to see what their initial teaching looks like. Does it look like the Confucius-heritage classroom practices found in the studies by Tang, Lee, and Chun; Fang and Clarke; and Amy Tsui and colleagues? What are the competing perspectives on initial lessons held by student teachers, supervisors, and mentors? And from post-lesson reflections we need to know more about how dialogue with supervisors and mentor teachers affects successive CLT implementation. How do Chinese student teachers react to this dialogue? Do they appropriate ideas from it to enact CLT? And what are their views of communicative language teaching? Answers to these questions would be an important contribution to TESOL internationally, an area of the field rightly criticized for not working in the cultural and economic interests of students and teachers from the periphery, like those from East Asia (Canagarajah, 1999; Liu, 1999; Braine, 1999; Phillipson, 1992).

This dissertation study seeks answers to address this knowledge gap through the examination of data I collected in supervising four Chinese student teachers in their American TESOL practicums. The study examines lesson plans, emails, class material, and the written Minutes and Feedback from lesson observations to identify pedagogical problems in their

struggles to take up communicative language teaching. Audiotaped post-lesson reflections were the primary data source to confirm identified problems and to further identify student teacher perceptions of what was problematic. I transcribed this audiotape, selected key passages in which we were discussing problems that interfered with student communication, and then subjected these passages to intertextual microanalysis to investigate the social significance of our dialogical actions and reactions (Bloome & Egan-Robertson, 1993). Action and reaction occurred during dialogue, and also afterwards in how student teachers appropriated and implemented CLT ideas we had discussed. Data collected from lesson planning sessions, fieldnotes, mentor teacher interviews, and a member check added important insights on the dynamics of practicum experiences.

From these rich data sources, my study investigated Chinese student teacher practicum efforts to implement CLT in a Western TESOL program through these two research questions.

Research Questions

(1) What problems of practice interfered with student communication in practicum lessons and how did student teachers successfully implement CLT?

(2) In post-lesson reflections, how did we interact in seeking solutions to problems that interfered with student communication?

I employed the term *problems* because we naturally used it in reflections and because it is used in the literature. Lampert (1985) wrote of tough choices in solving “a particular pedagogical problem” (p. 179). Johnson (2006) argues that a major teacher task is solving “problems of practice” in situated classrooms through reflective practice (p. 242). And Ball (2009) maintains that “it is imperative” that “teachers in diverse classrooms…become generative in their pedagogical problem-solving skills” (p. 68).

The problems of this study are those for learning, building knowledge, and professional growth. My use of this term and critique of some cultural practices that interfere with educational opportunity should not be interpreted as indicative of a deficit perspective. The participants of this study are very smart, capable, and thoughtful prospective teachers. I highly respect them and Chinese culture as I use hundreds of borrowed words from Chinese each day in speaking, reading, and writing Korean, while also teaching at a Buddhist university. I held high expectations of each student teacher throughout their practicum work and believe that each will become an exemplary teacher who contributes greatly to student lives.

Overview of the Dissertation

This dissertation is divided into five chapters. The first chapter just introduced the problems under investigation and the questions of this study. Chapter 2 contextualizes these problems in a review of both theoretical and empirical literature. Studies from the empirical literature inform this study and demonstrate the knowledge gap it addresses.

Chapter 3 details the origins of this study and its qualitative design. It then introduces the participants, sites, collected data, and phases of data analysis.

Chapter 4 reports the Findings of my study in two parts. Part 1 reports findings from the first phase of data analysis in response to Research Question 1 (RQ1). It identifies the problems and successes that the four student teachers experienced in implementing CLT. It examines the characteristics of problems and what influenced lesson outcomes. And it explores how student teachers negotiated the conflicts between this new CLT approach and the familiar teaching practices of home. Part 2 reports findings from my second phase of analysis. These findings show how we acted and reacted to each other in seeking solutions to CLT problems of practice per RQ2. Analysis explores how our biggest disagreements concerned their vocabulary teaching

practices. It reports our process of dialogue through stages to bridge differing conceptions of practice. Dialogical moves and qualities that facilitated knowledge building of TESOL practice are highlighted through examples. And this part reports how achieving interactional purposes in stages of dialogue influenced appropriation of ideas for CLT implementation.

Chapter 5 discusses the important findings from this investigation of CLT implementation and dialogical interaction. It then discusses how these findings contribute to fields of research, TESOL, and English language teacher education. Afterwards, it notes limitations, suggests areas for future research, considers policy implications, and concludes with final thoughts.

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature relevant to this study is both theoretically oriented and research-based, so this chapter has two sections. The first section delineates the sociocultural and constructivist perspectives that guided analysis. These theoretical perspectives follow work that has stemmed from Vygotsky and Bakhtin and consider cultural activity through systems of practice. They examine professional development through the conception of apprenticeship. And they outline how dialogical processes function in moving apprentices to more legitimate participation and professional work. These theoretical conceptions fit, or form a *praxis* with (Vygotsky, 2004), the student teacher role as an apprentice in practicum teaching.

The second section summarizes pertinent research-based findings on the cultural activity system of English second language education in China, practicum teaching within it, Western TESOL programs, what Chinese student teachers do in American TESOL practicums, and TESOL practicum findings in general.

Theoretical Framework

In this section I report the sociocultural and constructivist theory that guided this study. This theory is examined in subsections on transnational movement between activity systems of education; how teacher change can break the apprenticeship of observation; the sociocultural turn in second language teacher education; a student teacher's role as an apprentice; and dialogue for knowledge building.

Transnational Movement between Activity Systems of Education

In considering theoretical concepts and frames to chart findings on Chinese ESL teacher learning and development, a researcher confronts the multi-dimensional, transnational movement

of language, conceptions of teaching and learning (approaches and methods), narrative ideologies, and the movement of teachers and students (Jimenez, Smith, & Teague, 2009; Tsui, 2005; Gutierrez, 2007). These things and people move in to culturally situated places like China, with educational practices that go back millennia, and America, with strong institutional practices formed in a matter of centuries. English, for example, has spread from an inner circle of English-speaking countries to an outer circle of colonized lands and their people, and then to an expanded circle of peripheral countries, like China, Japan, and South Korea, where English has never been a national language and has only recently been taken up (Kachru, 1985). The spread of the language has been both imposed (Phillipson, 1992) and imported (Hu, 2005).

Along with the spread of English came teachers from the West, as we read earlier. In their transnational movement they carried the communicative language teaching approach. Chinese education policy makers for the schools and university English language teaching (ELT) programs adopted this methodological approach, so that they now adhere to global values of professionalism. This supports the argument of Baker and LeTendre (2005) that we live in a *world culture* of education.

> *Schooling is shaped and changed by a world culture of values about education that sometimes mixes with (and other times flattens) national and local cultures on a massive scale, producing remarkable similarities in what is taught and learned in schools all around the world. Yet there are striking differences from nation to nation, and form place to place within nations, that help us understand how the institution of schooling is evolving.* (p. xii)

In this world culture, many Chinese students of TESOL also move from East to West. They move from the periphery of English use (Phillipson, 1992, Canagarajah, 1999), to inner-

circle colleges of education in America to more professionally legitimize their developing teacher practices (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998). These students bring home-language and culture that also move in to the new educational communities in which they are enrolled.

In considering how international people and things move in to situated places where people are engaged in practical activity, the theoretical concept of a community of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998) informs this study's understanding of place and profession. Wenger (1998) described a community of practice as a setting where people are engaged in a shared enterprise using common tools, divisions of labor, and rules for collaboration. To examine how these aspects, or points, work together in communities with common objectives, Engestrom (1987) created the heuristic of an activity system (see *Figure 1*). Activity systems frame analysis of how these points may function to create outcomes (Cole & Engestrom, 1993) and are used as a theoretical tool for analysis in this study (Gutierrez, 2007).

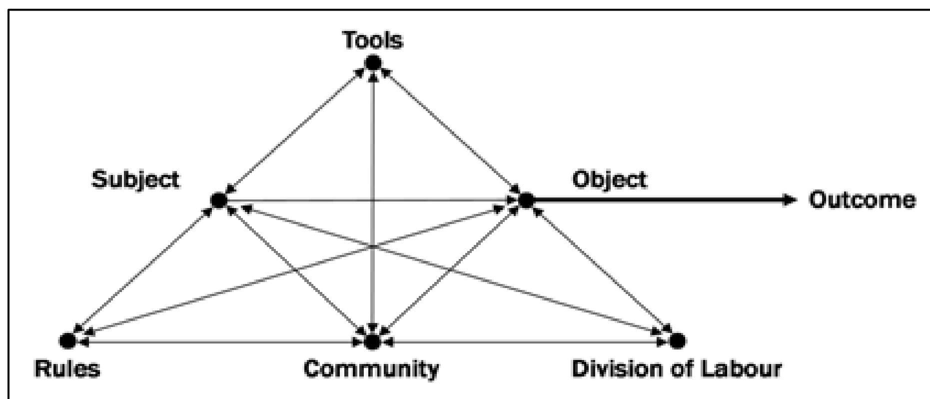

Figure 1. An Activity System (Engestrom, 1987; Cole and Engestrom, 1993)

While my participants were enrolled in an American TESOL program's community of practice, their teacher learning was "built on a history of relationships and influences, both local and distal" (Gutierrez, 2007, p. 116). For example, the conceptual lenses through which they viewed American practices were formed through years of schooling in China. Their respective Chinese viewpoints, and the repertoires of practice they brought with them, strongly influenced

their participation in our program. I therefore agree with Engestrom (2005) that influences on their practicum teaching must be examined across two activity systems (see *Figure 2*) to "focus analysis on what takes hold as [these] youth move within and across tasks, contexts, and spatial, linguistic, and sociocultural borders" (Gutierrez, 2007, p. 116). In looking across these two systems, my study follows educational research precedents to investigate how schools and communities influence participant learning and development (Coleman et al., 1966; Heyneman, 1976; Heyneman & Loxley, 1983).

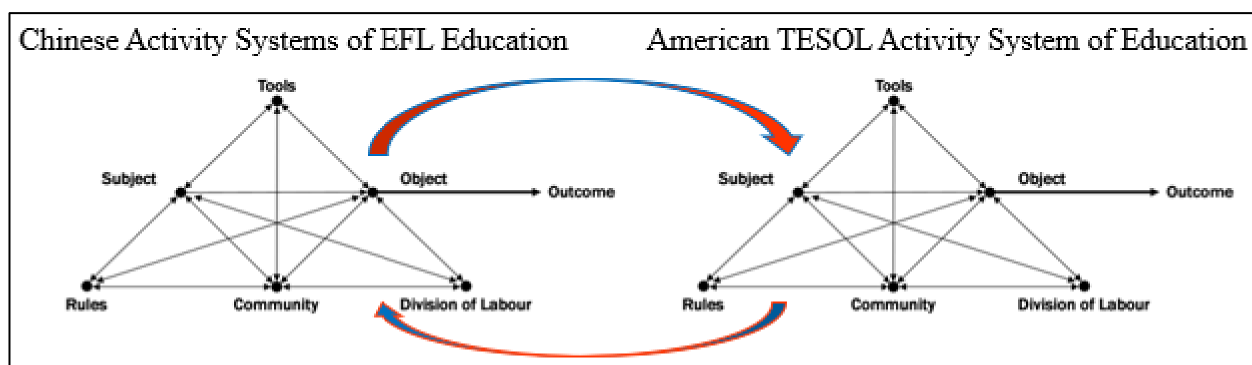

Figure 2. Model for charting movement across Chinese and American Activity Systems of English education, built on the work of Engestrom (1987); Gutierrez and Stone (2000); and Gutierrez (2007).

Teacher Change to Break the Apprenticeship of Observation

To analyze what takes hold for individual teachers[2] across these borders, this study also utilizes Arnetha Ball's (2000, 2009) model of generative change (see *Figure 3*). Ball used this model to chart stages of teacher development as her classes "familiarized prospective and working teachers with theoretical perspectives and best practices for using reading, writing, and multiple literacies to teach effectively in multilingual and multicultural classrooms" (Ball, 2009, p. 51). This study uses the stages to consider whether student teachers were gaining the committed, ideological intent (Bakhtin, 1981) to enact the new CLT perspectives and practices

[2] An individual student teacher is a subject in the triangle of an activity system.

they were learning. At the heart of these CLT perspectives, too, is a commitment to advocate for multicultural students "to effect positive change in the[ir] lives" (Ball, 2009, p. 50).

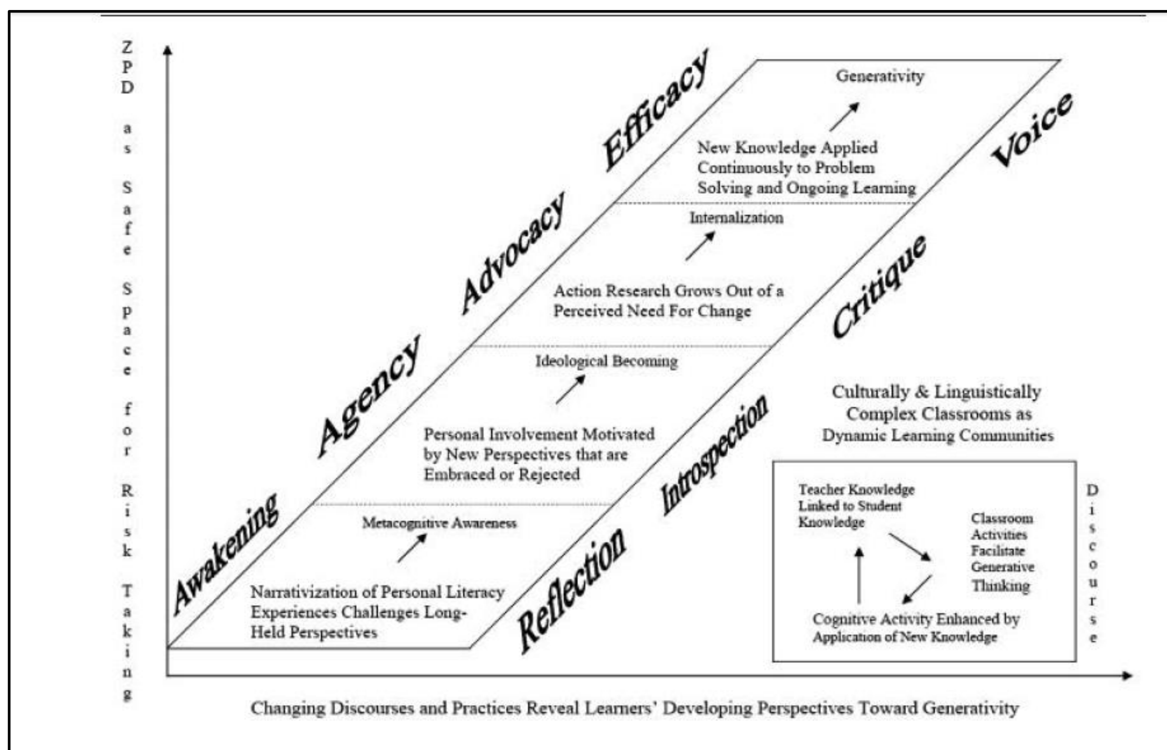

Figure 3. Arnetha Ball's (2009) Model of Generative Change

To begin effecting this change, teachers must come to value cultural differences and language varieties as communicatively rich resources for learning (Jimenez, David, Fagan, Risko, Pacheco, Pray & Gonzales, 2015), though these varieties, dialects, and interlanguages may not be considered correct in dominant discourse communities (Delpit, 1995). To move up Ball's *ladder*, as I call it, developing teachers must move away from the habit, or habitus (Bourdieu, 1991), of continuously correcting culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) students who have not acquired dominant language forms. This correction often implies the attitude that the students "are not capable of learning" (Ball, 2000, p. 229). Instead of continuously correcting, teachers must start hearing student voices and listening to what they have to say. "It is their responsibility to explore with students the tasks that will hold their attention in the learning

process" (Ball, 2000, p. 229). Instead of just lecturing, developing teachers must create an environment that allows students a full range of expression. This would include working together in groups to negotiate how to solve tasks through the linguistic and cultural resources they possess. This is essentially the CLT approach.

Ball found that to effect this change, teachers must be encouraged to question their own culturally ingrained notions of literacy, language learning, and correctitude. This questioning comes through challenges presented by education program reading, instruction, dialogue, and writing (Lee, 2007; Clark & Medina, 2000). Through challenges, teacher trainees experience the potential to break from preconceptions to begin to internalize or adopt commitments to implement more professional practices for engaging CLD students.

Selection of Ball's model was based on the robust, universal finding that despite the influence of teacher education programs, teachers are most likely to teach the way their teachers taught while they were growing up in schools (Lortie, 1975; Grossman, 1991; Borg, 2004). Lortie (1975) coined this "the apprenticeship of observation," and it stands as an axiomatic concept in education (Wright, 20010, p. 268). The cultural teaching practices that young students experience in schools become habitually formed conceptions of teaching imbued with symbolic, linguistic, and institutional power (Bourdieu, 1991). In other words, student teachers begin their apprenticeships not in their teacher education programs, but well before that as impressionable youngsters forming normative views on how teaching and language should look. The cultural constraints of apprenticed conceptions have an overpowering quality that reproduce the same monotonous teaching across generations in schools. Such historical institutionalization becomes what Cole and Engestrom (1993, p. 8) call "cultural practices."

> *Another important feature of activity as a basic unit of analysis of human behavior is that when activities become institutionalized, they are rather robust and enduring. Once they gain the status of cultural practices, they often have radically longer half-lives than an individual goal-directed action. In fact, activity systems such as those that take place in schools and doctors' offices for example appear to reproduce similar actions and outcomes over and over again in a seemingly monotonous and repetitive manner that gives cultural constraints on action a seemingly overpowering quality.* (Cole & Engestrom, 1993, p. 8).

From this discussion, an activity system in a community of practice has the appearance of a well-oiled factory churning out similar products. It points to how difficult it is for a student teacher who has grown up in a certain culture of education to break from experienced, apprenticed practices.

However, another robust finding in education is that the reproducing cycle of the apprenticeship can be broken if student teachers are able to draw on prior learning experience to reflect on possibilities for new instructional practice with mediated assistance from mentors and peers (Ball, 2000, 2009). Pennycook (2004, p. 334) believes this mediation provides opportunity "to reconcile" past experiences and new learnings. Following Vygotsky (1978), Ball and the many socioculturalists cited in this section theorize that spontaneous conceptions of culture, like those formed through the apprenticeship, need to be drawn upon for scientific, school-based, and professional conceptions of teaching to take hold and develop. We must then ask how TESOL programs allow trainees to dialogically reflect on both past and present learning experiences. Without this first opportunity on Ball's (2009) generative ladder, we may question their chances for professional teacher development.

The Sociocultural Turn in Second Language Teacher Education

It is also fitting that this study draws on sociocultural theory because the profession of second language teacher education, SLTE (which includes TESOL), has taken a sociocultural turn (Johnson, 2006; Freeman & Johnson, 1998). Up to Britten's (1985) SLTE review, teacher knowledge was largely transmitted from SLTE programs to students (Wright, 2010). Students were told what they needed to know and what they needed to do to be good teachers. Unlike the pedagogy of Ball, there was little consideration of how their background may affect the transmission and uptake of this knowledge. Instead, SLTE programs conceptualized these funds as readily deposited in student heads. The funds were considered universally applicable in any classroom, no matter the cultural practices of the community or its activity system of education.

Freeman and Johnson's 1998 watershed paper signaled the sociocultural turn (Wright, 2010). It called for SLTE to turn away from this banking conception of education to one where students learned how to teach through teaching practice. By teaching real classroom students with the assistance of mentoring teachers, student teachers would be privy to the thinking processes of professional teachers for assisted pedagogical problem solving. This teacher cognition is something not observed in the apprenticeship of observation (Lortie, 1975). Shared post-lesson reflection with mentors and fellow students would deepen understanding (Donald Freeman, personal communications, School for International Training, 1998-1999). Developing the habit of reflective practice (Dewey, 1933) would allow teachers to respond flexibly for pedagogical problem solving in myriad cultural contexts throughout their careers. Freeman and Johnson (1998) called for TESOL programs to prioritize practical experience in situated schools and classrooms (Freeman & Johnson, 1998).

> *In our view, schools and classrooms function as frameworks of value and interpretation in which language teachers must learn to work effectively. They are the sociocultural terrain in which the work of teaching is thought about, carried out, and evaluated. Studying, understanding, and learning how to negotiate the dynamics of these powerful environments, in which some actions and ways of being are valued and encouraged whereas others are downplayed, ignored, and even silenced, is critical to constructing effective teacher education. (p. 408-409)*

According to this conception, the job of practicum student teachers is to reproduce practices that are valued in their schools. Because these powerful institutional environments reinforce valued cultural practices and frown upon disapproved ones, the student teacher is more likely to adopt approved practices. This conception of Freeman and Johnson (1998) helps explain why student teachers in China take after their mentors in resisting CLT. But it also suggests that in a practicum classroom with an activity system of CLT, trainees would be more likely to adopt this new approach. My study breaks ground in exploring this likelihood.

A Student Teacher's Role as an Apprentice

Learning how to do negotiated work in schools speaks to a practicum student teacher's role as an apprentice. Apprenticeship is a form of Vygotskyan learning through "guided participation" and "participatory appropriation" (Rogoff, 1995, p. 142). According to Rogoff, "the *guidance* referred to in guided participation involves the direction offered by cultural and social values, as well as social partners; the *participation*…refers to observation, as well as hands-on involvement in an activity" (p. 142). Through this involvement, apprentices begin to take up, or appropriate, valued cultural practices in their communities.

Participatory appropriation is the personal process by which…individuals change and handle a later situation in ways prepared by their own participation in the previous situation. This is a process of becoming, rather than acquisition…[or] internalization of some external event or technique. (Rogoff, 1995, p. 142, 153)

Rogoff argues that by watching others use cultural tools to do work, talking to them about how it is done, and then giving it a try, people begin to appropriate job skills. As they begin to successfully take on jobs, they move from peripheral members of a community of practice to more legitimate members (Rogoff, 1995; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998). Barbara Rogoff (1995) provides a working definition of this process of appropriation and movement in apprenticeship that fits a teaching practicum.

In apprenticeship, newcomers to a community of practice advance their skill and understanding through participation with others in culturally organized activities (Bruner, 1983; Dewey, 1916; Goody, 1989; John-Steiner, 1985; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Rogoff, 1990). The metaphor focuses attention on the active roles of newcomers and others in arranging activities and support for developing participation, as well as on the cultural/institutional practices and goals of the activities to which they contribute. (p. 142-143)

In this manner, apprenticing student teachers advance their teaching skill according to the goals of their given classes with the support of mentor teachers, supervisors, and even classroom students who know the routines. Rogoff importantly notes that through these "interpersonal involvements and arrangements…apprentices become more responsible participants" (p. 143).

Of course, when an apprentice, student teacher, or someone new to a field, is learning the tricks of the trade from an old hand, their work may not be that well-crafted to the professional

eye. The question then becomes whether their work is recognized as moving in a professional direction while also making a small contribution to job completion (Gee, 2011). This learning on the job is part of what constitutes the Lave and Wenger (1991) concept of *legitimate peripheral participation*. Is the newcomer's work moving in the direction of legitimacy? In a practicum, legitimate peripheral participation for a student teacher constitutes making at least a small contribution to student learning according to class objectives. It also means moving toward greater understanding of how to enact the professional practices of the teaching field.

Dialogue for Knowledge Building

Vygotskyan socioculturalists postulate that this greater understanding of professional practice is dialogically constructed. "When interaction across generations are successful and the mentor conveys his or her style of thought to the learner, their joint activity is meaningful to both parties. It provides renewal for the mentor and shared knowledge for the novice" (John-Steiner & Meehan, 2000, p. 37). The student teacher appropriates mentor thought and the mentor gains deeper insights while perpetuating her field. Practicum dialogue involves such "construction of meaning through collaborative inquiry" (Lee & Smagorinsky, 2000, title).

Following the work of Bereiter (1994), Wells (2000) calls this inquiry "progressive discourse" for "knowledge building" whereby "dialogue…is focused on the object of the activity and aimed at making an answer to a question or a solution to a problem" (p. 75). This requires a spirit of inquiry from the student teacher. "Inquiry is as much about being open to wondering and puzzlement, and trying to construct and test explanations of the phenomena that evoked those feelings" (Wells, 2000, p. 63). The apprentice must have "*real* questions" about how to improve her chosen work (p. 63). Bettencourt (1991) writes, "A real question expresses a desire to

understand. This desire is what moves the questioner to pursue the question until an answer has been made" (p. 63).

However, a real question does not have to originate with the apprenticing student teacher. It can come from the mentoring teacher in dialogue through guided participation.

> *Teacher's questions…can become equally real if they correspond to or awaken a wondering on the part of the student. What is at issue here is the student attitude to the question rather than where it originated; for it to motivate genuine inquiry, the question must be taken over and "owned" by the student.* (Wells, 2000, p. 64-65)

This is an example of what Bakhtin means by saying "Internally persuasive discourse - as opposed to one that is externally authoritative - is, as it is affirmed through assimilation,…half-ours and half-someone else's" (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 345-346).

Wells (2000) points out that *owned* questions often arise after some work has been done and then discussed with the mentoring teacher. The mentor may call into question a professional problem with the apprentice's work of which he or she was not aware.

> *The key characteristic of investigatory activities of this kind is that they take as object the influential and often problematic features of the students' experience and environment and have as their intended outcome the growth of the students' understanding, that is, not simply factual knowledge, but knowledge growing out of, and oriented to, socially relevant and productive action (Cohen, McLaughlin, & Talbert, 1993).* (Wells, 2000, p. 63)

Applying this argument to this study's practicum classrooms, where class objectives were to develop student communicative skills for use in the broader community, the teaching *object* would be to get the ESL students talking in functional activities that had practical applications

outside of class. Student teacher (ST) moves that failed to facilitate this practical student communication would be *problematic features of the student teachers experience*. Post-lesson reflections that addressed how problematic ST moves may have been more *socially relevant* could lead to the *growth of student teacher understanding* and potential CLT implementation in future lessons.

Dialogue leading to new understanding can be challenging and conflictual. The processes of a student teacher and supervisor, or mentor teacher, reconstructing and co-constructing knowledge about what happened in a practicum lesson and why, is no simple matter. John-Steiner and Meehan (2000) write that, “Such reconstruction can occur as the outcome of positive shared dialogue and joint activities. It is also a consequence of criticism, rejection and resistance to events that occur on the social level” (p. 35). Bakhtin (1981) discusses this critical side as an ideological struggle for hegemony which he calls “heteroglossic,” as conflicting voices vie for an individual’s beliefs (Bakhtin, 1981; Holland et.al, 1998, p. 178). “The importance of struggling with another’s discourse, its influence in the history of an individual’s coming to ideological consciousness, is enormous” (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 348). Applied to post-lesson reflection, we may ask, what ideas about the lesson will eventually win out with the student teacher: her own, the mentor’s, or the supervisor’s? According to Bakhtin (1981), “Our ideological development is just such an intense struggle within us for hegemony among various available verbal and ideological points of view, approaches, directions, and values” (p. 345-346). But in this “dynamic tension” of conflicting ideas can come transformation: creative responses that lead to new and innovative solutions (John-Steiner & Meehan, 2000, p. 35).

As it occurs in the moment of dialogue, Bereiter (1994) defined this transformational aspect of knowledge building as coming to “a new understanding that everyone involved agrees

is superior to their own previous understanding" (p. 6). For this successful joint activity, Bereiter (1994) wrote that there must be "four commitments" to "progressive knowledge building" (p. 6). I present them here in the form of my questions for analyzing post-lesson reflections (refer to Appendix G):

- *Do we "work toward a common understanding that is satisfactory to all" of us? Is there understanding?*
- *Do we "frame questions and propositions in ways that allow evidence to be brought to bear on them?"*
- *Do we "expand the body of collectively valid propositions?"*
- *Do we "allow any belief to be subjected to criticism if it will advance the discourse?"* (Wells, 2000, p. 73).

Wells (2000) and Bereiter believe that "responsivity and the attempt to achieve enhanced understanding" are keys to dialogue for knowledge building (p. 75). These two features work hand-in-hand in a process that Wells (2000) describes.

> *Speakers have to interpret the preceding contribution(s) in terms of the information it introduces, as well as their own stance toward that information; compare that interpretation with their own current understanding of the issue under discussion, based on their experience and any other relevant information of which they are aware; and then formulate a contribution that will, in some relevant way, add to the common understanding achieved in the discourse so far by extending, questioning, or qualifying what someone else has said. It is frequently in this effort to make their understanding meaningful for others that speakers have the feeling of reaching a fuller and clearer understanding for themselves.* (p. 73-74)

In other words, speakers must comprehend and build on each other's statements to construct deeper understanding. This understanding may become manifest in later actions. Vygotsky and Bakhtin saw dialogue as having an extended influence on ensuing courses of action over time. For a student teacher, understandings gained through responsive dialogue with a supervisor or mentor teacher may be applied to creating future lesson activities that capture student interest.

Discussion

In summary, the theoretical premises guiding this study are that (1) my participants are coming from a different activity system of ELT cultural practices, (2) they bring knowledge of these practices and conceptions of teaching formed in this system, (3) these practices and conceptions can be resistant to change, (4) but student teachers can learn professional TESOL practices through apprenticeship in practicum teaching if embedded in classrooms that value CLT, like those of this study. (5) For this learning to occur, it is necessary to have a spirit of inquiry and to responsively follow dialogical guidance from professional mentor teachers and the supervisor. (6) Thereby, student teachers may appropriate ideas to design and implement meaningful lessons that have a positive impact on classroom communication and student lives.

Literature Review

We know that institutionalized, cultural practices of teaching are resistant to change (Cole & Engestrom, 1993) and that teachers are likely to teach much like the teachers that they observed as students growing up (Lortie, 1975). To therefore analyze the CLT problems and successes that my participants experienced, it is important to understand the cultural practices of English language teaching (ELT) in China. This review of the empirical literature therefore begins with a section on ELT in China. Following this, I review the few studies that I could find on Western TESOL programs and how they prepare international students for teaching. This

relatively small collection of studies, points to the knowledge gap that my study addresses. I conclude Chapter 2 with some general practicum findings that are relevant to this study.

English Language Teaching in China

The literature from China reviewed in the next three sections shows a nation-wide system of contradictions wherein the MOE mandates CLT, but teachers resist it (Hu, 2002; Li, 2010; Qi, 2005) to instead engage in traditional cultural practices of lecturing to a state exam, the Gaokao. The four student teachers of my study reported being schooled in these traditional practices. And while China's ELT and TESOL training programs advocate the CLT approach as a professional standard, studies show that it is very difficult for practicum trainees to implement it. If my participants experienced very strong effects from the apprenticeship of observation (Lortie, 1975), we can also expect that they would perform much like the teachers described in the studies below.

The Gaokao

Traditionally, the object of formal education in China is to prepare students for state exams. In the Tang, Sung, and Ching dynasties, institutes prepared men to pass the state exam to become government officials and join the class of the literati (Lee, 1989). Currently, schools prepare students for the Gaokao, China's SAT, or college entrance exam, with an English section of 150/750 points (Qi, 2005). This high-stakes examination is a "rite of passage" for students, parents, and teachers across the nation (Sun, 2013). Secondary school students spend at least 932 hours in English classrooms prepping for the Gaokao (Rao, 2002). It is "common" for high school students to "spend over 12 hours per day studying for the test," including weekends (Sun, 2013). Students "must achieve a high Gaokao score to attend top colleges and universities" and thereby have the best opportunities in the country's competitive workplace (Sun, 2013). A high

score can propel poor families out of poverty, which keeps even rural society invested in Gaokao study. Equality is ensured by keeping the test multiple choice, with no English-speaking component for evaluation. This helps maintain the cultural belief that success is the result of hard work and not innate intelligence (Hu, 2002). Millions of students sit for this exam every year, 9.15 million in 2012 alone (Sun, 2013). And students are not the only ones sweating this exam.

> *Both teachers and parents experience excessive pressures from the* Gaokao. *Teachers watch the number of their students admitted to highly ranked universities; and parents hope their children gain admission to a top school. During the three-day examination, thousands and thousands of parents anxiously await outside the exam entrances while students scribble in hushed silence until the last second.* (Sun, 2013)

Parenting skills are judged on test scores, and the Gaokao is also a test for teachers as they are evaluated on the number of their students entering highly ranked universities. For these reasons, teaching and learning for the Gaokao is the pressing concern of Chinese society. Teachers ignore MOE mandates for CLT to instead teach to the test (Li, 2010; Qi, 2005; Pan & Block, 2011; Fang & Clark, 2014; Edwards & Tsui, 2009). This common test therefore results in the common English language teaching practices across China that are reported below.

Common English Instructional Practices in China

To teach to the Gaokao, China's common English instructional practices are to lecture, explain vocabulary and grammar, usually in Chinese, often by the grammar translation and audiolingual methods, and to drill students for this exam through teacher-centered IRF (Initiation-Response-Feedback) loops in which teachers quiz the students to give feedback on whether their responses are correct (Hu, 2002, 2005; Qi, 2005; Li, 2010; Pan & Block, 2011; Tang & Nesi, 2003; Peacock, 2001; Fang & Clark, 2014; Tang, Lee, & Chun, 2012; Edwards &

Tsui, 2009; Gu, 2003; Cortazzi & Jin, 1996; Jin & Cortazzi, 1998; Li & Walsh, 2011; Tang & Absalom, 1998; Yan & He, 2015). Teachers assign students the task of memorizing thousands of vocabulary words. The teaching is described as skill-based and rule-based, with few opportunities to exercise function-based CLT activities (Tang et al., 2012). In China, English learning is a "serious undertaking" and not the fun and "games" of CLT (Hu, 2002, p. 97).

Guangwei Hu (2002, 2005) tells us that these common practices are from a "Chinese culture of learning" with "classroom practices that CLT strives to avoid" (p. 93-103). It is "a curious combination of the grammar-translation method[3] and audiolingualism"[4] (p. 93). EFL teaching in China, Hu (2002) tells us, is

> *characterized by systematic and detailed study of grammar, extensive use of cross-linguistic comparison and translation, memorization of structural patterns and vocabulary, painstaking effort to form good verbal habits, an emphasis on written language, and a preference for literary classics.* (p. 93)

Numerous studies back Hu's (2002, 2005) claims. Qi (2005) observed 24 classes of seven English teachers to find that "34.6% of class time was spent on grammar and vocabulary, 57.1% on…[Gaokao] drilling, and only 7.3% on language use" (p. 148). In two of the seven teachers' classes that Qi observed, "students were made to rote learn a vocabulary list" (p. 157). Lu (2005) found that memorizing lists of thousands of vocabulary words was common in Taiwan, too. In a

[3] In grammar-translation, the teacher commonly presents a short reading passage (preferably from literature or a mock test passage) for a teacher-directed, or teacher-centered, class to translate words and grammar into their home language (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). Student knowledge is tested in Initiation-Response-Feedback sequences and quiz-like drills, including fill-in-the-blank exercises. Grammar-translation was once known as the "Classical Method" for the study of Latin and Greek (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, p. 12). Most work through this method is done in the students' first language.

[4] In the audiolingual method, a passage of second language conversation is presented for students to imitate accurately through repetition and "intensive oral drilling" of words and grammatical patterns (Richards & Rogers, 2001, p. 52). After accuracy is achieved, students are given some productive freedom to substitute words in the learned dialogue to make limited conversation with partners. Most work is done in the second, or target, language.

Hong Kong classroom and a Guangzhou classroom, Tang and Nesi (2003) found that vocabulary was "explicitly taught" and that the teachers "provided almost no opportunities, however, for modified (negotiated) output on the part of the learners, despite the fact that the syllabuses in both Hong Kong and Guangzhou are described as 'communicative'" (p. 65). Fang & Clark (2014) reported similar practice in three 10th grade classes of 60 students to a room in the best high school in a rural northeastern Chinese city of three million. They followed practicum student teachers into these classrooms to observe three mentor teachers teaching words and isolated, complex sentences that lacked a contextual frame by the grammar translation method. As the mentors lectured, they would ask students questions and answer these before the students had a chance to respond.

Teaching in IRF (Initiation-Response-Feedback) or IRE (Initiation-Response-Evaluation) sequences is a common practice in Chinese classrooms of EFL/ESL (Fang & Clark, 2014; Jin & Cortazzi, 1998; Li & Walsh, 2011). In these sequences "the teacher plays the role of expert, whose primary instructional task is to elicit information from the students to ascertain whether they know the material" (Hall & Walsch, 2002, p. 188; Cazden, 1988). Li and Walsh (2011) found misalignment in a beginning EFL teacher's beliefs in CLT and how he dominated class with culturally engrained IRF sequences. Jin and Cortazzi (1998) believe that the Chinese approach of a teacher lecturing to a large class in IRFRFRF sequences (initiation, response, feedback…), even if only one student is responding, constitutes a Vygotskyan practice of social learning because they observed that the students listen attentively.

Listening to, respecting, and being agreeable with one's teacher is a student duty to promote harmonious hierarchical relationships in the Chinese culture of learning (Hu, 2002). The teacher has a reciprocal moral responsibility to be a model of learning who holds knowledge and

passes it down to students (Hu, 2002). The teacher must be “a virtuoso of learning” (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996) who “has all the correct answers at all times” (Hu, 2002, p. 99), and constantly exerts complete directive control over the class (Tang & Absalom, 1998). This cultural conception of a teacher’s responsibilities has passed mouth to ear for centuries in the old maxim, “‘To give students a bowl of water, the teacher must have a bucket of water to dispense’” (Hu, 2002, p. 98).

While Chinese students are not entirely satisfied with this teacher-centered instruction and enjoy being active in communicative activity (Pan & Block, 2011; Littlewood, 1999, 2007; Littlewood & Liu, 1996; Cheng, 2000; Ho & Crookall, 1995), Confucius-heritage cultural practices are a comfortable norm. Rao (2002) surveyed 30 Jiangxi Normal University English majors to find that 25 believed CHC learning styles made CLT activities difficult to perform. One student said,

> *“I was taught to behave traditionally in classroom the first day I went to school. Since then, I have started forming my own learning habits, which have brought me more or less success so far. I feel it awkward to change my classroom behaviors at my age in the English class.”* (Rao, 2002, p. 96)

Another participant was bothered by the chaos of mixing with other students in small classrooms during CLT activities. Twenty three of the 30 mentioned that the EFL learning environment in China made CLT activities difficult. Three other studies support their opinion. Carless (2004) found three primary school Hong Kong teachers struggling to maintain discipline for group work because students didn’t regard it as serious study and reverted to their mother tongue. Student teachers in Tang et al. (2012) did not have “personal agency beliefs” to manage students in Hong Kong’s large classes to implement CLT (p. 99). And Yan and He (2015) found EFL student

teachers in central China who had difficulty managing disruptive pupils in classrooms with 60-70 students. These impediments demonstrate how CLT conflicts with traditional practices and classroom conditions (Hu, 2002, 2005; Tang et al., 2012).

Teacher participants in Li's (2010) study provide further evidence for this conflict in reporting that the division of labor in China's educational community is fractured. One said that the new English curriculum designers "had no idea about how English has been taught and learned in most Chinese schools!" Another complained, "The experts are not teaching, people who are teaching are not experts! We are just people from two different worlds!" (p. 445). Despite an authoritarian government that mandates CLT for China's own good (Liao, 2004), a teacher in Li's (2010) study reveals that teachers are the actual policy makers.

> *When we find that the new curriculum is not practical in classroom teaching, but there is no way to let policy makers know about our opinion, we just ignore the instructions in it. We just follow those we think suitable.* (p. 444)

Another teacher in Li's (2010) study tells how colleagues fake CLT practice when a coming visit by an inspecting educational leader is announced: "Then we'll have to prepare some stuff they want to see, showing what we have done, whether or not we have done so. This is what is happening everywhere, fiddling with the facts and then reporting to the higher-level leaders" (p. 447).

Chinese teachers also follow CHC practices to maintain face in their esteemed role of "explaining knowledge in a masterly manner" (Hu, 2002, p. 99). The creative and simultaneous language production that is generated in CLT puts a teacher at "risk of losing face" because CLT requires a "high level of proficiency in the target language…which they lack" (Hu, 2002, p. 99). Therefore, very little English is spoken and almost none in conversation. A British teacher

observed that English in China was being taught like a "dead language" (Gu, 2003, p. 19). A Chinese MA TESOL student teacher in Tseng's (2013) dissertation study summarized this by saying, "In China, English is taught as if it stands alone...language is learned through imitation. We didn't apply it in real life, nor did we experience it in real life…Students seldom have access to those English-speaking teachers" (p. 103). The 388 teachers that Qi surveyed suggest a reason why Chinese is the primary language of English instruction: only 2.2% of had spent more than three months in an English-speaking country.

Pre-service Teacher Beliefs and Practices

These apprenticed (Lortie, 1975), cultural practices (Cole & Engestrom, 1993) are so powerful that pre-service teachers of English come to believe in their applicability across classrooms (Peacock, 2001; Tang et al., 2012; Rao, 2002; Li, 2003; Littlewood, 2007). Even the university ELT and TESL[5] programs reproduce these practices and beliefs, though they advocate CLT and their students have already taken the Gaokao (Hu, 2005).

Studies by Peacock (2001), Rao (2002) and Tang et al. (2012) show that their ELT programs had little effect in changing apprenticed beliefs and conceptions of teaching. Peacock (2001) surveyed the beliefs of his 146 TESL students at the beginning and end of a three-year BA training program at City University of Hong Kong. Disturbingly, there was little change in their beliefs. He found students exiting his TESL program with two prominent beliefs: "learning a second language means learning a lot of vocabulary and grammar rules," and those who can speak more than one language well are very intelligent (Peacock, 2001, p. 186-187). With the first belief, Peacock fears that these graduates will emphasize traditional practices of Chinese

[5] To professional English language teachers, there is little difference between the many acronyms that describe ELT training programs, their general curriculum, and their training practices. Differences do exist between these programs and ELL, or English Language Learning, programs for US public school teaching. For examples, ELL programs also emphasize academic content learning i.e. learning math and science standards through English.

teaching and neglect task-based CLT. Zheng's (2009) literature review found this fear justified: "A pre-service teacher, for example, who believes that learning a foreign language primarily involves learning vocabulary will spend most of his energy to teach vocabulary (Horwitz, 1988)" (p. 76).

One student graduating from a bachelor's ELT program in Rao (2002) reported that she needed to teach her students "plenty of vocabulary, a wide range of grammar knowledge and a solid foundation in reading and translation" so they could do well on the Gaokao's English section (p. 95). The belief that CLT excluded the learning of language structures was a misconception of many of the 164 People's Republic of China (PRC) teachers in C. Y. Li's (2003) study. Littlewood (2007, p. 246) found this PRC teacher misconception, too.

Tang et al. (2012) found that students completing the first year of their ELT program in Hong Kong believed in the CLT approach the program was advocating. But in the students' third and fourth years, the researchers were surprised to find that the students preferred rule-based lessons with explicit grammar teaching and a great deal of oral and written repetition of vocabulary. Their findings are detailed in the next section.

Hu's (2005) insider, 50-page report on ELT education in China points to structural problems in programs that may prevent Chinese student teachers from changing their beliefs. In three-year English teacher education programs, 77% of contact hours are classes for improving English proficiency. EFL teaching pedagogy, educational psychology, and methods and materials courses account for only 168 program hours. The practicum is a mere six out of the 126 weeks of a program. The curriculum, which Hu flatly states is similar across the country, lacks courses in second language acquisition, bilingual education, and sociolinguistics. With this narrow curriculum, Hu reasons it is difficult for STs to develop a rich contextual knowledge of

language teaching (p. 672). Furthermore, in the preponderance of English learning classes, the modelled pedagogy is traditional and teacher-centered with lecturers planning and delivering meticulous explanations of minor grammar points down to the last detail (Hu, 2005; Cortazzi & Jin, 1996). These courses therefore continue to reinforce the apprenticeship but with the higher authority of a university program. In these programs "education is seen more as a process of knowledge accumulation than of creation and use of knowledge" (Hu, 2005, p. 677). Programs package principles and methods as being context-free and are hostile to constructivist pedagogical approaches to teacher education. The reliability of Hu's (2005) report is strengthened by his candid admission that this was the pedagogy in which he was socialized and "embarrassingly followed for years in my own teaching" (p. 677).

Pre-service Teacher Practicums

Few studies in English have focused on the TESOL or ELT practicum in China, but five excellent studies (Fang & Clarke, 2014; Edwards & Tsui, 2009; Lopez-Real, Law, & Tang, 2009; Tang, Lee, & Chun, 2012; Gan, 2013) show that student teachers follow mentor teachers in reproducing China's common instructional practices

Fang and Clark (2014) and Edwards and Tsui (2009) explored whether educational reform measures to promote communicative language teaching helped student teachers adopt this approach in their practicums. Both studies found that because student teachers were embedded in classrooms whose priority was teaching for the Gaokao, the student teachers had difficulty enacting task-based CLT and assuming the roles that this approach requires.

Fang and Clark (2014) report on the practicums of 10 student teachers from Northeast Normal University. As part of an MOE reform, special curricula had been constructed for their ELT program that advocated constructivist, student-centered, inquiry-based, communicative

language teaching. They had multiple practicums over a six-month period. And these ten (along with students in the same program at six other normal universities) were granted free tuition with the agreement that they teach for ten years in the public schools.

Though Professor Liu, the university supervisor, saw the practicum as a chance to enact reform learnings, only three of the ten student teachers did so. Two student teachers "surrender," a disheartened Professor Liu reported, and imitate the "polluted…teaching practices" at the high school (Fang & Clarke, 2014, p. 113). Five sought a middle path to resolve their dilemma. While Liu wanted to help STs gain critical understandings of teaching and learning, they asked advice on marking papers and preparing quizzes. Being a young and inexperienced professor with only practicum teaching experience herself, she told student teachers to be highly respectful of mentoring teachers, which they were. When pedagogical disagreements arose between the supervisor and the mentors, the student teachers quickly sided with the mentors. Fang reported that maintaining face was a priority for all parties.

Fang and Clarke (2014) conclude with the suggestion that universities and schools work together to create a common professional learning community where members establish healthy relationships and can offer critical views on areas where change is needed. They should not be communities where the goal of members is to look pleasant and maintain face.

Edwards and Tsui (2009), along with colleagues at the University of Hong Kong, worked to create such a university and school learning community through the Unified Professional Development Project in Hong Kong. A purpose of the alignment was to bridge the "two different worlds" of the universities and the public schools (Li, 2010, p.445; Fang & Clarke, 2014; Tang, Lee, & Chun, 2012) into a new community of practice to provide "a richer learning environment" for student teacher practicums and to develop school teaching staff (Tsui,

Edwards, Lopez- Real, 2009, p. 22). The pilot project started out with three schools, but the Hong Kong Government's Quality Education Fund expanded the project to over 100 schools; 1/3rd of these were closely involved with the University of Hong Kong.

While managing and acting as key players in the project, Amy Tsui's team wrote a volume of eight studies on its activity from a sociocultural perspective. In one study, Edwards and Tsui (2009) looked at the confluence between the identities of three practicum student teachers and their status as members in their schools and in the university program. They found that it was very challenging for student teachers to enact CLT and to be recognized as legitimate participants in both the schools and their university programs (Lave & Wenger, 1991).

A survey from Tsui et al.'s volume by Lopez-Real, Law, & Tang (2009) found little participation from student teachers in the tripartite post-lesson observation conferences between the university supervisors (13 surveyed), the student teachers (97), and the mentor teachers (43). In one set of four recorded conferences, the student teacher in question took the initiative only once to elicit a response from the supervisor. The student teachers were polite to their respected superiors instead of being proactive in exploring real questions to improve their budding practice (Wells, 2000; Bereiter, 1994; Bettencourt, 1991).

Tang, Lee, and Chun (2012) followed four Chinese pre-service teachers through a four-year ESL teacher education program in a Hong Kong college that advocated CLT through a functional approach (Littlewood, 1981), only to find that "they taught in the same [traditional] way as they were taught as ESL learners with no particular sign of or impact from the new teaching approach introduced in the teacher education programme" (Tang et al., 2012, p. 103). In their senior year, a randomly selected practicum lesson of each pre-service teacher was videotaped and coded by two raters and the pre-service teachers. All raters were in 100%

agreement that the most dominant teaching approach practiced was skill-based or behavioral. They observed a great deal of oral and written repetition of vocabulary, sentence structure, pattern drills, and exercises for memorization. Two of the pre-service teachers reported adding authentic materials and CLT features for the supervisor observations, the same type of professional exhibition to high leaders that Li (2010) reported.

The four reported that they practiced this skill-based teaching because their students were too young, with low language proficiency, and not cognitively mature enough to learn through a functional CLT approach. They cited a lack of time coupled with the need to follow the syllabus. Another stated reason was to maintain discipline. Some student teachers were not satisfied with their ability to manage the large classes or deliver instruction. Supporting these beliefs, Gan (2013) found undergraduate ELT student teachers in Hong Kong public schools who were tormented by management problems which prevented them from implementing task-based CLT.

Tang et al. (2012) concluded that new teachers do not make decisions in accordance with learned theories of ELT pedagogy, but through "personal agency beliefs," or beliefs in their teacher efficacy (p. 99). Due to conflicts, tension, and uncertainty, these beginning teachers were incapable of carrying out innovative teaching ideas and fell back on the traditional approaches that they experienced as learners. Tang et al. (2012) determine that for pre-service teachers to take up innovative teaching approaches like CLT, they must have continual opportunities to try them and discuss their use. They conjecture that only by integrating innovations like CLT through existing schema will student teachers gain the motivation to "recognize the need for change" despite low personal agency beliefs (p. 104).

Discussion

These studies show that the cultural activity system of education in China reproduces

common English language teaching practices (Cole & Engestrom, 1993). At the teacher-centered front of these practices is the lecturing and explaining of vocabulary and grammar to attentive students who listen quietly to absorb the knowledge that their respected teachers give. This knowledge giving often occurs in Chinese through the grammar-translation method. IRF or IRE sequences are commonly heard. But it is not infrequent for teachers to answer their own questions in these sequences, cutting off student opportunities to speak. Teachers rush through lectures, believing that there is a limited amount of time to cover essential English for the Gaokao. They drill students with mock test questions. They distribute lists with thousands of words for students to memorize. When students get a chance to speak, it is often through imitating and repeating words and sentences on tapes or that the teachers have read through the audiolingual method. The object is accuracy in basic pronunciation and grammar from these authoritative sources (Hu, 2002).

The apprenticeship of observation (Lortie, 1975) acts so strongly that these practices become normalized conceptions of what good teaching looks like for pre-service teachers in ELT or TESOL programs. In practicum teaching they have a strong tendency to respectfully follow mentor teachers in reproducing these practices, even though their university programs have emphasized the professional standard of CLT (Tang et al., 2012; Fang & Clarke, 2014; Edwards & Tsui, 2009; Lopez-real, Law, & Tang, 2009; Hu, 2002, 2005).

If my participants experienced very strong effects from their apprenticeships (Lortie, 1975), we can expect that they would perform much like the teachers described in these studies. However, because the literature shows that Chinese student teachers have a strong disposition to respectfully follow mentor teachers, my analysis might find that this study's participants followed their CLT practicing mentors to also implement this approach in practicum lessons.

Unfortunately, I found no studies from China wherein student teachers were placed with mentor teachers who also practiced CLT. In the numerous studies that I examined, mentor teachers valued and implemented the common Confucius-heritage cultural (CHC) practices reported in this review (Tang et al., 2012; Freeman & Johnson, 1998). My study therefore provides new insight into whether Chinese student teachers will respectfully follow mentor teachers who practice CLT to also implement this approach in their practicum teaching. Yet to follow mentors practicing CLT, they may need to more fully engage in reflective, dialogical practices (Lopez-Real, Law, & Tang, 2009; Fang & Clark, 2014; Edwards & Tsui, 2009).

Preparation for Practicum Teaching in Western TESOL Programs

Studies on Western ELT programs tell us very little about what Chinese student teachers do in practicum teaching. I could find only five studies, including my own conference paper, that give mere glimpses of their practicum work. With many Chinese students in Western ELT and TESOL programs, this constitutes a wide information gap, which this dissertation addresses.

This section begins by examining literature that tells us a little about how Western TESOL programs prepare international students for practicum teaching. It then references what little is known about the practicum teaching of Chinese student teachers.

Western TESOL Practicum Preparation

Several studies show that Western TESOL programs are poor at preparing international students for ESL teaching practicums (Baecher, 2012; Nemtchinova, 2005; Tseng, 2013; Johnson, 1996). Surveying 77 graduates of an American TESOL program, Baecher (2012, p. 587) found a persistent "disconnect between [TESOL] university preparation programs and teacher readiness for ESL instruction." Graduates reported "both redundancy of information being presented across classes and significant gaps in the application of theory" (p. 585).

In a survey by Nemtchinova (2005), mentoring teachers reported deficiencies in the practicum teaching of both native and nonnative English speaking pre-service ESL teachers because neither group receives practical experience until the end of their program. A graduate from Baecher's (2012) program concurred with this in saying, "I would have liked to have spent more time on learning how to plan a lesson that celebrates diversity and less time being told how I need to celebrate diversity!" (p. 585). Sharon, a successful Chinese student from Tseng's (2013) dissertation study elaborated on this wish.

> *Our program is really theory oriented….But for us who plan to go back to teach in our own countries, I want to be equipped with some real-deal and hands-on knowledge….I wish there is a class where they show you "real things" that happen in classroom…the questions and problems that…teachers actually encounter and…how they solve them… like what teaching strategies we can apply.* (Sharon, p. 104)

The ELT programs of these three studies are not getting students into situated classrooms soon enough, with real-deal, hands-on knowledge to apply (Freeman & Johnson, 1998).

But in comparing the stark contrast between a student teacher's pre-practicum vision of an ESL class and the reality of the poorly designed lessons she observed, Johnson (1996) questions the view that the reality of ESL teaching can only be learned on the job. Like colleagues across the Pacific (Tang, Chun, and Lee, 2012; Fang and Clarke, 2014; and Tsui et al., 2009), Johnson (1996) believes programs need to better prepare students for the contradictions they will face when they enter classrooms.

Grossman, Compton, Igra, Ronfeldt, Shahan, & Williamson (2009) do, too. They suggest that teacher education provide more opportunity for hands-on rehearsals, or approximations of practice. They found that education for the clergy and clinical psychology employed more

interactive rehearsals, such as role plays, than did teacher education. Instead of rehearsals, teacher trainees performed more pre-active practice, like lesson planning, than did their counterparts in these other relational professions. But as Grossman et al. (2009) argue, a teacher trainee has little idea of how a lesson will go until there is an opportunity to approximate it in rehearsal. And often there is some particularly challenging part, like modelling an activity or giving instructions, that needs teacher educator *decomposition of practice* whereby its component parts are broken down (p. 2069). This highlighting makes these parts visible to student teachers so that they can be more professionally approximated in further rehearsals (Goodwin, 1994). In such decomposed, or deconstructed rehearsals, trainees learn to avoid pitfalls that could stymie future practice.

Other studies find that Western TESOL programs are designed for Western schools and not the international schools where many trainees are likely to teach. Phillipson (1992), Canagarajah (1999), and Liu (1998) complain that TESOL program curricula ignore the English educational needs of millions of international students. Dilin Liu (1998) wrote, “Our failure in training international TESOL students to distinguish between teaching practice in [Western]… and other countries reflects a disregard for differences in socio-economic conditions, educational ideologies and systems, and other factors that help define teaching conventions” (p. 4). McKay (2000) reports five Japanese student teachers concurring that the expertise they gained in a US TESOL program and practicum may not be valued in Japan. One said that traditionally-minded Japanese teachers may think that they are “naughty…if they talk about CLT” or try to implement CLT practices (p. 62). And Chinese student teachers in an Australian TESOL program said that nothing they learned would transfer to future teaching in China (Liyanage & Bartlett, 2008).

These are ironic circumstances because many of these programs advocate drawing on student background knowledge for learning (Gonzalez, Moll, & Amanti, 1995), yet fail to draw on international student knowledge of home country teaching practices and the applicability of CLT. This is hardly educational and warrants Dilin Liu's (1998) charge that Western TESOL programs are ethnocentric. These programs deserve criticism because drawing on background knowledge is a basic tenet of constructivist conceptions of learning (Vygotsky, 1978; Gonzalez et al., 1995; Ball, 2000, 2009), and is a central practice in TESOL's professional approach of communicative language teaching (Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Brown 2001; Wong, 2006).

Numerous studies have also found that Chinese students experience a great deal of culture shock and difficulties with the dialogical practices of Western universities. Some of these studies attribute Chinese difficulties to Confucian cultural predispositions (Liu, 2001; Cheng & Erben, 2012; Huang, 2009; Tweed & Lehman, 2002; Skinner & Abbott, 2013). Other studies show that this culture shock lies in linguistically imperial, Western university practices (Singh & Han, 2010; Lu, 2005; Park, 2006). These latter studies evidence a cruel irony: international students were invited to participate and better learn how to communicatively teach English to students like themselves, but are then cast as communicatively deficient (Canagarajah, 1999).

However, several studies have also found that Chinese students of TESOL possess a great deal of autonomous resilience in overcoming this injustice (Lu, 2005; Park, 2006; Liu, 2011; Tseng, 2011). On their own initiative they engage in extra-curricular activities to improve their English and their ability to participate in class dialogue. I argue that Chinese students draw on Confucian strengths to overcome obstacles in learning Western practices. Foremost amongst these strengths is the "strong belief that everyone is educable," and that the "determinants of educational achievement…[are] effort, determination, steadfastness of purpose, perseverance,

and patience" (Hu, 2002, p.98). Through determined effort, East Asians believe they can overcome adverse circumstance and achieve lofty goals.

Chinese Student Teaching in American TESOL Practicums

Besides my unpublished paper, I could find only four studies on Chinese student teachers in Western TESOL practicums. From these, I found only two reported problems with CLT in Brinton's (2004) study. One problem was using too much Chinese to help Chinese students understand grammar. The other problem was student teacher explanation in reaction to student silence. Explaining was also a problem found in my paper, which I regarded as a preliminary finding for further examination in this dissertation study. So other than these slim findings, we know almost nothing about the CLT problems and successes that Chinese student teachers experience in Western practicums. And these five studies tell very little about how STs interact with their supervisors in discussing problems of practice. Here is what the five studies tell us.

Skinner and Abbott (2013, p. 241) examined the culture bumps (Archer, 1986) that four Chinese students experienced in their TESOL practicums. Bumps occurred in post-lesson reflection. Rather than wanting to reflect for improvement, all four student teachers wanted their supervisor to tell them how to improve. One student teacher complained, "The supervisors do not give you exactly the right answers. It seems that there are no right answers. We just have to listen to everyone's questions and opinions…just want the teacher to tell me how to improve" (p. 238). The researchers note that in China, the reigning authority holds knowledge, and that the student teachers expected to receive this knowledge before offering their own opinions or asking questions. Student teacher difficulty in freely expressing themselves was exacerbated by the informality of the reflective sessions and the symmetrical relations of power they suggested. When a home country trainee disagreed with supervisor advice, one ST expressed shock, "In my

country it is very rude to show your displeasure in public and never in front of your teacher…. Chinese students always show great respect for their teachers because they are superior" (p. 236).

Skinner and Abbott (2013, p. 237) agree with Trandis and Gelfand (1998) that more effective communication may have occurred in a vertical relationship in which the supervisor led the conversations. But only one of the four student teachers received clear and direct feedback from the supervisor, though all four appreciated receiving this from their host teachers. Student teachers remarked that the mentor teachers stood up and demonstrated what they should do. By the end of the practicum they were convinced that their mentors had relevant backgrounds in ESL, but were "less convinced that the supervisors did" (Skinner & Abbott, 2013, p. 236).

For Chinese student teachers to realize developmental potential, Skinner and Abbott conclude that TESOL programs must be more sensitive to Chinese culture and that the Chinese students need to adapt to Western learning styles. Teacher educators and student teachers must become aware of three notions. The first is that differences cannot be glossed over, but must be embraced in active dialogue. The second notion is to recognize that achieving cross-cultural competence for effective teaching and learning in TESOL programs requires hard work. The third is that culture bumps allow opportunities for creating a "liminal space of *becoming* (Manathunga, 2006, p. 8) in which students can migrate away from old conceptions in developing new possibilities for future pedagogy" (Skinner & Abbott, 2013, p. 241).

Brinton (2004) studied the shared email, reflective dialogue journal entries of 14 nonnative English speaking (NNES) student teachers on their TESOL practicum course at UCLA. Six were international students and two highlighted below were of Chinese background. They reported lack of confidence, inadequate linguistic skills, methodological issues, and cultural dilemmas. All the international STs reported being tongue-tied when students asked and

debated language points on the spot. One trying to practice CLT couldn't get students to talk and so filled the silence with "teacher-delivered explanation, an approach she was accustomed to from her own EFL classes in her home country of Taiwan" (Brinton, 2004, p. 198). A non-native English speaking (NNES) mentor teacher was glad that a Chinese student teacher could help her class's many Chinese students in their first language after all English grammar instruction had failed. But the trainee provided too much, irritated her mentor, and Brinton, who supervised the practicum, had to intervene in the ensuing dispute.

A paper I presented on the first practicum lessons of six Chinese student teachers (including Jun and Chaoxing, two participants of this dissertation study) found numerous CLT problems (Fagan, 2015). These problems included lecturing; focusing on teaching language and not functional language use; inability to plan or set up a meaningful, game-like communicative task; and not being able to give clear instructions. The problems suggested that the student teachers lacked familiarity with ways to implement CLT activities and techniques. I regarded these problem identifications as preliminary findings for further analysis in this study.

The narrative dissertation studies of Lu (2005) and Park (2006) found that Chinese TESOL student teachers experienced a turning point when they began actual work in the schools. Student teacher focus shifted from their own troubles to the struggles of their ESL students. Lu, Wen-Lin, and Xia Wang realized that through their own life and ESL learning struggles, they had a great deal to offer their students (Medgyes, 1992, 1994, 1999). Wen-Lin, who had previously tried to fake a native speaker identity, came to embrace her NNES identity after beginning full-time teaching in a public school (Lu, 2005). She realized that students needed more than just language. They needed a teacher who could empathize with their struggles.

> *As an ESL learner, I encountered the experience of being shamed, denied, rejected, and misunderstood. So, I realized that as an ESL teacher, it's important to be able to empathize with the student's experiences and help them solve emotional problems. I think the strength of being an NNES is that I can relate to my students and I can share my experience with them.* (Wen-Lin, from Lu, 2005, p. 113)

Wen-Lin's negative, apprenticed ESL learning experiences in Taiwan helped her avoid perpetuating these on students. For example, she didn't make students memorize thousands of vocabulary words out of context.

To be a real scholar and achieve her goal of getting into a Ph.D. TESOL program, Xia Wang thought it necessary to have teaching experience from two practicums (Park, 2006). She grappled with the fear that her English wasn't good enough to be an ESL teacher. But from her first practicum mentor, Ms. Tomoko, who was an NNES teacher, she learned that good teaching was more about caring for students and touching their lives than speaking perfect English. Partly due to the audiolingual, grammar-focused English classes that she experienced in China, she had difficulty with communicative teaching. But through reflection, she began to draw on learnings from TESOL program classes for practical application. For example, she came to view her bilingual identity as a great asset in working with culturally and linguistically diverse students. Her story illustrates how Chinese student teachers can transform in ideological becoming once they begin teaching (Manathunga, 2006; Bakhtin, 1981).

These examples also show how concern shifts from self to others when student teachers start teaching. This shift seems to open space for reflective learning, critical thinking, the gaining of agency, and finding voice through new identity formation: crucial steps in Ball's (2000, 2009) model. Lu (2005) and Park (2006) show that Chinese student teachers in Western TESOL

programs can discover their own deep funds of knowledge to apply to communicative teaching (Gonzalez, Moll, & Amanti,1995) when they exit dialogical TESOL classes (Wong, 2006) to enter the multicultural and multilingual schools (Ball, 2009).

Discussion

These studies on Western TESOL programs provide few answers to the important questions of my study. They suggest that my participants could be unprepared for practicum teaching (Nemtchinova, 2005; Baecher, 2012; Tseng, 2013); that they may be confused about the application of learning to practice (Fagan, 2015); and that they may not have had enough opportunity to rehearse the finer, but common, points of teaching that need highlighting by trainers (Grossman et al., 2009). But these studies say little about what CLT problems Chinese student teachers may experience.

Skinner and Abbott (2013) mirror findings from China that student teachers will struggle to participate in meaningful reflection. But the literature tells us little about how student teachers interact with supervisors to solve specific CLT problems. And we don't know how Chinese student teachers will reflect with a supervisor who they know well, and already have a dialogical relationship with, as is the case for my study's participants.

However, the findings of Lu (2005) and Park (2006) provide a broader avenue for investigation. They show that as Chinese student teachers begin attending to their students' needs, they gain agency and efficacy (Ball, 2009) to appropriate TESOL program learnings to meet student needs (Rogoff, 1995). This finding shows the potential for my participants to draw on learning from their American TESOL program classes to implement CLT activities per their practicum class objectives.

Further Practicum Findings

And finally, this dissertation is informed by general findings on TESOL practicums that point to the importance of hands-on learning, the vulnerability of the student teacher, how language is used to negotiate the challenges of post-lesson reflections, and mentor and supervisor assistance in lesson planning and directing student teachers to attend to others.

Following the learn-to-teach-by-teaching view of Donald Freeman and Karen Johnson (1998), 82 of 115 students in a Canadian survey by Faez and Valeo (2012) considered practice teaching the "most useful feature of their TESOL programs" (p. 463). Participants said the practicum helped them "really get a feel for the classroom," learn a "hands-on approach to how to structure an ESL classroom…[with] personal teaching methodologies," and enabled "a smooth transition to be an ESL teacher" (p. 463). Like Sharon, the Chinese student in Tseng's (2013) study, many agreed that emphasis on theory in coursework was the least useful aspect of their programs. In the 14 years since the Freeman and Johnson (1998) study, Faez and Valeo (2012) show that TESOL programs are still not getting student teachers into classrooms soon enough. They conclude that TESOL programs also need to prepare "teachers to join a professional community, not just a classroom" (p. 466).

In a practicum placement, Farrell (2001) points out that a student teacher is in a "vulnerable position," unsure of "who controls his or her development. For example, should the school, or the teacher training institution (the supervisor) be responsible?" (p. 58). Then there are questions about the degree of control that supervisors can and should exert with student teachers in the practicum (Fang & Clarke, 2014; Edwards & Tsui, 2009; Lopez-Real, et al. (2009); Ishihara, 2013; Farrell, 2001; Kagan, 1992; Freeman, 1990). Farrell (2001) cites Kagan's (1992) reminder to supervisors that student teachers usually focus more on themselves than their

students' needs. Kagan says this is natural and that it is "counterproductive" for them to be rushed out of this (p. 155). Instead they should be given space to gradually change their focus.

However, two studies disagree. Daniel and Conlin (2015) suggest that an assessment protocol widely used by supervisors for ST evaluation named SIOP, the sheltered instructional observation protocol (Short & Echevarria, 1999), "shift attention back to students" (p. 169). The protocol - which my student teachers referred to in making practicum lesson plans from SIOP templates - is a checklist of things that teachers must do to help English language learners simultaneously learn language and content objectives.[6] While acknowledging the usefulness of SIOP, Daniel And Conlin (2015) observe that of the

> *30 features of the SIOP, 25 focus solely on teacher actions (e.g., clear explanation of academic tasks, scaffolding techniques consistently used, language objectives clearly supported by lesson delivery)…Only 3 of the 30 features focus on what students do in the classroom (e.g., ample opportunities for students to clarify key concepts in L1 as needed with aide, peer, or L1 text and students engaged approximately 90% to 100% of the time).* (p. 173).

They argue that the protocol "may unwittingly" work to prevent developing teachers from focusing on what students do and lead them to "enact teacher-centered practices" (p. 173). Daniel and Conlin modify existing items on the SIOP with question prompts that focus attention back on student activity, e.g. "When I gave students opportunities to interact during this lesson (Item 16), how rich were their interactions?" (p. 180). Their proposed shift to hearing and seeing

[6] These objectives are framed in Language SWBATs and Content SWBATs. SWBAT means *Students will be able to* do something in a lesson. Teachers write lesson objectives in SWBATs, emphasizing that professional teaching involves the students in activity. In TESOL, a Content SWBAT is usually referred to as a Functional SWBAT. Functions are activities which involve students in communicative language use, like ordering in a restaurant, complaining about a problem, or scheduling an appointment. Functional SWBATs are often enacted through information gaps and role plays, e.g. *SWBAT read a real menu to order food in a restaurant role play*.

students, rather than a teacher-centered focus, constitutes a professional disposition (Ball, 2000, 2009) that aligns with CLT's emphasis on student dialogical activity as a learning tool.

In the other study that contradicts Kagan's (1992) position, Ishihara (2013) explicitly told her Japanese practicum student teacher to attend to those around her in collaboration. This direction initiated understanding of practicum expectations and criteria for success. This student teacher had been struggling, focused on worries about not knowing what to do or how to proceed. She had expected supervisors and mentors to be critical and tell her what to do. She was comforted and in culturally familiar territory when her supervisor explicitly told her to pay attention to others and that she was expected to be proactive in seeking help.

Freeman (1990) proposes ways for the supervisor to engage with the student teacher in post-lesson reflections to effect change. Pennycook (2004) summarizes these ways.

> *Freeman (1990) discusses various modes of intervention: the directive - where the purpose is to "improve the student teacher's performance according to the educator's criteria" (p. 108); the alternatives option, in which the aim is to "develop the student teacher's awareness of the choices involved in deciding what and how to teach, and, more importantly, to develop the ability to establish and articulate the criteria that inform those decisions" (p. 109); and, finally, the nondirective option, the purpose of which is to "provide the student teacher with a forum to clarify perceptions of what he or she is doing in teaching and for the educator to fully understand, although not necessarily to accept or agree with, those perceptions" (p. 112).*
>
> *All of this is well and good as far as it goes.* (Pennycook, 2004, p. 334)

But the foremost concern of Pennycook (2004) as a supervisor is to look for the critical, transformative moments in a practicum. Pennycook believes that critical moments arise more

often from the "everyday" (p. 342) through the *nondirective option* whereby perspectives are clarified. He tells of how taking this option with a student teacher led to important considerations of dialects, prescriptiveness, and the power dynamics at play in teaching and learning language.

Two studies discuss the importance of supervisor or mentor help in co-planning practicum lessons (Johnson, 1996; Crookes, 2003). Johnson (1996) supervised Maja, a student teacher whose idealistic vision of teaching did not match the realities of her public-school practicum. Maja was ready to quit until the mentor teacher allowed her to "teach whatever she wanted in the advanced level ESL literature class as long as the students read some literature and wrote about it" (p. 40). With a great deal of assistance from Johnson, Maja planned "meaning-based instruction" (p. 41) on the biographies of historical figures from World War II, beginning with Anne Frank. At the end of the five-week unit, student presentations with "lively discussions" (p. 44) showed Maja that "in the short time that I've been teaching them, this whole packet and my whole system has really fallen into place" (p. 47). Johnson concluded that as Maja got to know her students and changed focus from herself to them (Kagan, 1992), she "came to terms with the realities of teaching, she began to develop strategies to cope with them" (p. 47).

And Crookes (2003) notes the important role that mentor teachers play as co-planners of lessons. He quotes Fieman-Nemser and Beasley (1997, p. 110) who describe this co-planning as "joint participation in an authentic activity" (Crookes, 2003, p. 109).

Several studies explore linguistic usage in ELT practicum post-lesson reflections through recordings in two corpora. As supervisors, Vasquez and Reppen (2004) recorded a corpus of post-observation reflections with four student teachers in an intensive American ELT program. Initial findings showed that supervisors did most of the talking while the STs tended to be passive (O'Keeffe, McCarthy, & Carter, 2007). They drew on these findings to change the way

they positioned student teachers at the beginning of reflections to achieve more equal distributions of talk (Vasquez & Reppen, 2007).

In an Irish MA ELT program, Fiona Farr recorded 12 post-lesson reflections from several student teacher practicums. From this POTTI corpus of just over 70,000 words, Farr (2003, 2005) examined how trainers (supervisors) and trainees (student teachers) showed that they were relating and listening to each other. Farr (2005) found that supervisors engaged in solidarity strategies to create symmetrical relations and to include the trainees in the community of English language teachers. They did this by engaging in small talk; using the inclusive pronoun "we;" depersonalizing criticism by referring to authoritative texts like the video of the lesson; addressing student teachers by name; and drawing on "shared socio-cultural references" (p. 222).

Farr and McCarthy (2002) examined *if*-clauses in POTTI to find that most were "uttered by the teacher trainers," and many were used to modify or hedge directives to the student teachers on "how to solve current problems and how to act in future lessons" (O'Keefe et al, 2007, pp. 128, 130). Some were in the form of "if I were in your place" (p. 129). They found more than 30 patterns of if-clauses, with many being "grammatically anomalous" and not fitting any pattern that is considered grammatically correct (p. 129). Nonetheless, they found these were comprehensible to the participants because "the POTTI interactions spend a good deal of their time drifting in and out of *irrealis* worlds, exploring what could have been, what might have been, what was not, or what should have been" (O'Keefe et al., 2007, p. 130). The authors report that this "*irrealis* mode" is also negotiated through modal expressions, vagueness, and negation (p. 130). Studies from both corpora show that language is used in reflections to soften professional criticism while establishing the student teacher as a legitimate peripheral participant in the community of TESOL practitioners (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998).

Discussion

These studies provided several sensitizing concepts (Charmaz, 2006, p. 16: Blumer, 1969) to guide my study. (1) One was to seek transformative moments in the hands-on learning opportunities that the practicum provides (Pennycook, 2004). (2) Another was to examine how student teachers reacted to supervisor acts (Freeman, 1990; Pennycook, 2004; Farrell, 2001; Kagan, 1992). (3) A third was to look to how student teachers attend to students, mentors, and supervisors (Daniel & Conlin, 2015; Ishihara, 2013). (4) Yet another was to explore the role of mentor and supervisor assistance in planning successful lessons (Johnson, 1996; Crookes, 2003). (5) And a final was to attend to how language is used in post-lesson reflections to navigate the *irrealis* worlds of pedagogical problem solving (Farr studies).

Conclusion

Theoretical and empirical findings from this review guided my analysis to investigate unanswered questions about what CLT problems and successes Chinese student teachers might experience in an American TESOL practicum and how they would interact with their supervisor in post-lesson reflections to solve problems of practice. Several propositions from these findings guided my study:

(1) Student teachers might exhibit cultural conceptions and perform practices like those found in China that would oppose the CLT practices of their practicum classrooms (Cole & Engestrom, 1993; Lortie, 1975; Gutierrez & Stone, 2000; Hu, 2002; Fang & Clark, 2014; Tang et al., 2012).

(2) I expected to find lecturing on vocabulary and grammar in early lessons (Fagan, 2015; Qi, 2005; Tang & Nesi, 2003; Tang et al., 2012; Cortazzi & Jin, 1996).

(3) Another proposition was that these home-cultural conceptions and practices would be resistant to change (Cole & Engestrom, 1993; Lortie, 1975; Tang et al., 2012).

(4) Furthermore, the literature suggested the likelihood that the student teachers would be challenged by the dialogical, reflective practices that are necessary for appropriating CLT ideas (Rogoff, 1995; Ball, 2000, 2009; Bakhtin, 1981; Wells, 2000; Bereiter, 1994; Skinner & Abbott, 2013; Edwards & Tsui, 2009; Lopez-Real, Law, & Tang, 2009; Farr, 2005).

(5) Yet, I expected that they would try to respect and follow their mentors and supervisor per Confucian values reported in the literature, (Fang & Clark, 2009; Hu, 2002, 2005; Skinner & Abbott, 2013; Rao, 2002). And several studies suggested that my participants might align their practices with the communicative values of our program and their classroom communities (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998; Edwards & Tsui, 2009; Lopez-Real, Law, & Tang, 2009; Fang & Clark, 2014; Lu, 2005; Park, 2006). However, their ability to follow us and align practices depended on the unknown factor of how strongly the apprenticeship of observation (Lortie, 1975) operated on their conceptions of ELT.

(6) And finally, despite initial practicum struggles (Nemtchinova, 2005; Baecher, 2012; Fagan, 2015; Brinton, 2004), I looked to whether my participants would respond like student teachers in the studies by Lu (2005) and Park (2006). These student teachers had difficult beginnings in Western TESOL program classes and practicums, much like other international students (Canagarajah, 1999; Liyanage & Bartlett, 2008; Liu, 1998). But as they begin to direct attention to their practicum student's needs (Daniel & Conlin, 2015), they started to relate to, care for, and empathetically communicate with students to positively impact their learning experiences (Ball, 2000, 2009).

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This qualitative study examines the problems and successes in communicative language teaching that Chinese student teachers experienced in an American TESOL practicum and the reasons for these. It also examines their post-lesson reflections with me, their supervisor, to find solutions to pedagogical problems that interfered with student communication. Specifically, it addresses the following research questions.

1. What problems of practice interfered with student communication in practicum lessons and how did student teachers successfully implement CLT?
2. In post-lesson reflections, how did we interact in seeking solutions to problems that interfered with student communication?

In this chapter, I first describe the research context, study design, sites, and participants. Next, I detail the methods for data collection, the data sources, and the methods used for data analysis.

Research Context, Study Design, Sites, and Participants

Research Context

This study is part of a broader ethnographic and longitudinal study that I conducted for nearly four years on the learning and development of Chinese student teachers in a TESOL Master of Arts (MA) program at Weldon College of Human Development.[7] For this study I consented more than 30 Chinese student teachers in four different cohorts and collected a large assortment of data on their work throughout our program. This data included videotape of the first semester academic workshop that I taught for these students, field notes from observations

[7] This is a pseudonym, as are the places and names of this study, to protect the identity of participants.

in Weldon classes, interviews with them and stakeholders in our program, student papers, artifacts from course work, and data from supervising 15 participants in practicums.

In March 2015, I presented a conference paper on the communicative teaching problems that six of these student teachers experienced in their first practicum lessons of 2013 and 2014 (Fagan, 2015). From this group, Jun and Chaoxing, are primary participants in this study. In April, as the 2015 practicums with six additional Chinese student teachers were finishing, I began designing this study's proposal to research the practicum work of the 10 for which I had audiotape of post-lesson reflections. The proposal was designed to investigate the problems that they experienced in trying to implement communicative language teaching. I also sought to understand our dialogue on these problems in post-lesson reflections.

Study Design and Rationale

My study employs the method of qualitative participant naturalistic inquiry in grounded theory practice (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, 1998; Charmaz, 2006; Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Glaser, 1978; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Corbin & Strauss, 2008). Through this methodology I coded, categorized, and conceptualized data on student teacher lessons and in transcriptions of post-lesson reflections in which we were seeking solutions to problems of CLT practice. I examined consequential incidents, participant conceptions, and processes involved in our interactional practicum work. Corbin and Strauss (2008) point out that this research paradigm was designed for investigating such interaction: "Grounded theory is an action/interactional oriented method of theory building…studied in terms of sequences, or in terms of movement or change over time. The action is oriented toward a goal or purpose for which the actors employ tactics and strategies" (p. 104). This methodology naturally matched our practicum purposes of discussing

and employing new teaching strategies, techniques, and approaches to facilitate more communicative teaching and foster professional development.

The Weldon College MA TESOL Program

Weldon is part of a major research university in the southern United States where I taught an academic skills class for these students and supervised practicums. Weldon is ranked among the top 25 graduate schools of education by *US News and World Report*. Our two-year MA TESOL program was advertised as being aligned with TESOL standards and had required courses typically found in these programs (College web site, November 27, 2014).

The required curriculum for our program resembled those which foreign TESOL experts brought to China (Penner, 1995). There were courses in methods, linguistics, second language acquisition, foundations of ESL education, and assessment. Class sizes were under 30 students and were largely dialogical in nature with pair and group work, whole class discussions, and multiple opportunities to give presentations (Wong, 2006). A first semester class on the foundations of ESL education required communicative teaching in an assignment to lead discussion of a study on the class syllabus. In my academic skills workshop, participants worked on making good questions and rehearsed how to lead these discussions.

Our MA TESOL program shared courses with an MA in ELL program designed to prepare students for teaching ELL or ESL in US public schools. Development of the ELL program preceded that of our TESOL program so courses had a strong emphasis on major areas of interest in American education like literacy and bilingual education. However, during the years of this study, there were only 1-3 students enrolled in the domestic ELL program. The international students in the TESOL program, all of whom were from the People's Republic of

China (PRC), outnumbered those in the domestic strand. My participants were selected from the five Chinese students in the class of 2014 and the 10 PRC students in the class of 2015.

Students in both the domestic and international MA tracks also shared classes with undergraduate students majoring in elementary or secondary education who were learning to teach English learners and were being certified in ELL. Therefore, the percentage of international students in any given class ranged from 30% to 60% of total student enrollment. Chinese students reported that most of class time was devoted to issues of ELL education in the States (TESOL class of 2014, personal communications, December 4, 2012). These reports supported my class observations. This was perhaps fitting because many of these students chose to stay in the States after graduating. Several taught in the United States and several entered Ph.D. programs in the States as well. Students complimented their program curriculum with their choice of elective courses from our college and the larger university.

Participants

I supervised 15 Chinese student teachers from our program and collected data sets on the practicum work of 10. Of these 10, I selected four student teachers by purposeful "maximum variation" sampling (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 102; Patton, 1980). Preliminary analysis of the 10 found that these four were most representative of "the unique variations that…emerged in" their uptake of CLT through the practicums (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 102).

The four representative participants were Jun, Chaoxing, Dilin and Liying. Jun exhibited the greatest change in uptake of CLT. His first lesson was completely teacher-centered, while his final two lessons were excellent examples of communicative language teaching. Chaoxing had back and forth movement through her practicum. She had difficulties implementing CLT in her first lesson, successfully implemented CLT in her second, but implemented non-communicative

practices in her third lesson. Liying consistently implemented communicative teaching practice throughout her practicum. And Dilin showed inabilities to take up professional CLT practices throughout his practicum. These four focal participants were therefore "selected in ways that…provide the broadest range of information possible" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 233).

The four selected participants of this study shared some common characteristics. They received undergraduate degrees from Chinese universities. They were affluent, coming from families that appeared to be upper middle class. This could be inferred by their ability to travel and pay university tuition. They were fluent in English. Their TOEFL scores were 105 or higher. For this fluency, they had taken hundreds of hours of English classes in China. In interviews they reported that these classes were largely taught by the "Chinese culture of learning" practices described by Guangwei Hu (2002, p. 98; 2005). The four participants had also taken my academic workshop in their first semesters, and we had what I would describe as good relations.

Data collected from my broader study provide information to profile the four participants.

Jun was in his mid-twenties. He entered Weldon to be with his wife, who was also from China and studying for a Master of Arts degree at a nearby university. He was calm, friendly, and had a winning smile. He reported that he had worked in a branch of government intelligence in China, and he was skilled with computers. He experienced first semester difficulties adjusting to academic work at Weldon. In rehearsing how to lead discussion of a study in our academic skills workshop, he lectured and didn't give any opportunity for discussion. He did a 4th semester practicum in 2014 alongside his classmate Peter. Their practicums were in the ESL Center of the university with mentor teacher Tom. A practicum goal for Jun was "to better design and apply meaningful activities" (Jun, personal communication, January 27, 2014).

Chaoxing was in her early twenties and entered our program in 2013, immediately after completing a four-year business degree at a university in Shanghai. She was quick-witted, impatient at times, and had excellent control of the English language. An example of these characteristics occurred in Dilin's first semester rehearsal for leading discussion. Chaoxing sternly advised that he cut his talking time.

Chaoxing: You should be precise.

Dilin: Precise? That's not precise?

Chaoxing: Shorten what *you wanna say* and *lead* to the *discussion!*[8]

Chaoxing chose to schedule her practicum in the spring of 2014 during the second semester of her program. Along with her classmate Shuang - who was a close friend and first semester partner in class projects - she was placed with mentor teacher Molly in the ESL Center. Chaoxing and Shuang continued their cooperation by coordinating plans to teach consecutive lessons. One would teach the first half of a lesson and the other would teach the second half of the lesson. The three of us did post-lesson reflections together, focusing on one student teacher's lesson at a time, but collaboratively sharing reflective thoughts throughout. Her practicum goals were to help students learn "conversational English skills and vocabulary…[and] simple and regularly used sentence structures" (Chaoxing, personal communication, January 27, 2014).

Liying was an undergraduate German major, in her early twenties, who had lived for at least a semester abroad in Austria. While enjoying opportunities to make friends from various

[8] Italicized script in transcript excerpts represents that words were emphasized in speech. An ellipsis (…) denotes an interruption in the excerpt above. In other excerpts an ellipsis may also denote a pause in speech or the continuation of speech after an interruption, or simply my deletion of speech for clarity and to save space. Brackets ([ ]) contain supplementary information to help the reader better understand the text. This information includes notes on tone, manner, meaning, or body language. Transcription in this study follows the simple conventions of playwrights. Regarding the alignment of these simple conventions with my study design, Charmaz (2006) notes, "Grounded theorists' writing style typically relies on conventional reporting" (p. 172).

backgrounds at our university, she was also a strong student. She procured an assistant's, or receptionist's job in the office pod of our program professors and had numerous opportunities to converse with them. Liying taught in a 4th semester, 2015 practicum with mentor teacher Fred in the Oakgrove Church's conversational ESL program. In her pre-practicum goals, Liying wrote, "I believe language teaching should be based on a communicative language teaching (CLT classroom…I will be a *guide on the side* instead of a *sage on the stage"* (Lying, personal communication, January 2015). Her writing showed some knowledge of CLT practices.

Dilin was in his late twenties and the oldest student in his cohort of 10. Because of his age and experience, he positioned himself as a leader. He had spent two four-month periods studying English and culture at reputed American universities. He had earned his bachelor's degree from a prestigious international studies university in China, and a Master of Arts Degree in Business English from a university there, too. Afterwards, he taught English in China at an east coast technical college for four years to very large classes. In Fieldnotes I noted how he frequently reported "his 'trauma,' as he referred to it, in teaching the 'bad students' at the technical college" (Fieldnotes, February 3, 2015). He began a draft of his MA thesis discussing this experience. Dilin loved our university, especially its extra-curricular activities. He worked in the library, held an elected position with the graduate student council, participated in the Chinese student association, translated for visiting Chinese educators, tutored Chinese in the Chinese Department, and hosted a lecture series for this department. The Chinese Department professors strongly approved of his teaching. Before his second practicum lesson, they offered him a job for the coming school year. Dilin and I formed a friendship. He referred to me as his "friend slash mentor" (Dilin, personal communication, August 6, 2018). In his pre-practicum goals, Dilin wrote, "I have read lots of academic papers and articles lauding the communicative language

teaching during the past three semesters. However, I have never tried applying them" (Dilin, personal communication, January 2015). His practicum was in the ESL Center with mentor teacher Tom during his 4th and final semester in 2015. His classmate Feng was also assigned to this practicum class. They taught consecutive first lessons and we reflected together that evening. But Dilin and Feng taught their second and third lessons separately on different days.

Supervisor

I emphasized the communicative language teaching approach in the practicums. This aligned with practicum class purposes to help students develop communicative ability to apply in our community. I am a very strong proponent of CLT because I was trained to implement this approach in a TEFL Certification course in 1991. And from 1992 - 1994, I learned to teach by this approach from close work with experienced expat teachers at a well-reputed academy in Gangnam, Seoul, where I logged more than 2400 hours of teaching. Back then, there were fewer material resources for EFL/ESL teachers. Through the mentoring advice of these older experts, I learned to design communicative lesson materials and implement CLT.

On moving to Sungkyunkwon University in the spring of 1996, I taught over 625 students in 13 required English conversation classes. There were over 50 students in some classrooms with fixed rows of desks. Studies from China have found that such large classes constrain implementation of CLT (Tang et al., 2012; Tang & Nesi, 2003; Littlewood, 2007). But by instructing my students to stand up and find partners for task-based activities, I found that they eagerly communicated with each other in English. I realized that if teachers design meaningful activities, CLT can be implemented in settings that resist this approach (Hu, 2002).

I am also a strong proponent of CLT because I have witnessed the failure of non-communicative teaching approaches during 20 years of teaching in South Korean universities,

and a 2012 summer semester at Shandong University in China. Most students entering my required English classes were not able to make simple conversation and awkwardly stumbled through English greetings. Nearly all reported being schooled in non-communicative, grammar-translation and audiolingual methods in their first languages with limited opportunities to speak English in classes. They were embarrassed by their rudimentary speaking skills after hundreds of hours of English study. They felt cheated and that their time had been stolen.

I did not want the Weldon student teachers that I supervised to return to China and perpetuate ineffective pedagogies on their students. My goal was for student teachers to implement CLT in “at least one part of a lesson,” so we could then consider how CLT could be implemented in their future practice (Keenan, personal communication with Tom, April 15, 2015). In this implementation I expected to see them give the students a clear and meaningful task for discussion in pairs or groups that had functional importance outside the classroom as well. These tasks could include typical CLT activities like information gaps, role plays, activities to find something, and simple pair discussion on topics of interest. I was happy to support the student teachers in designing such activities and often did so to varying degrees.

The Practicum and Practicum Sites

The Weldon TESOL program had a 10-week practicum. Student teachers were required to “participate actively” in their mentor teacher’s classroom for 20-30 hours. They were also required to schedule three lesson observations with a supervisor who would “talk with you about your instructional choices” (Practicum Syllabus, Spring 2015). Assignments in two required courses assisted student teacher practicum work: Material, Methods, and Planning and ELL Assessment. The former class provided lesson planning assignments for practicum lesson observations.

The two practicum sites selected for this study were the university's ESL Center and the Oakgrove Church. Both offered free adult ESL classes. These class sites were selected because they were aligned with the purposes of CLT in that their goals were to develop adult student communication skills for functioning in our large metropolitan area.

The two-hour conversation classes of the ESL Center admitted up to 15 spouses of students attending the university and met once a week. Each year I administered the intake SOLOM test to a small group of these spousal students. Our TESOL student teachers, who were about to be placed in this site, observed these 45-minute conversational assessments. Later, I often observed them teaching these students. Having already assessed student abilities, I had a heightened understanding of the teaching and learning dynamics in these lessons.

Many of these spouses also took the free classes of up to nearly 30 students at Oakgrove Church. There were days when I observed a student being taught by one student teacher in the morning at the church, and then being taught by one or sometimes two student teachers in the evening at the ESL Center. Naturally, I exchanged greetings and small talk with these friendly students. Through this interaction, I had a high degree of familiarity with their English abilities. This helped me assess if student teachers were teaching to their levels. I raised this question in our reflective sessions, though not always to the student teacher's liking.

In general, the adult students in the practicums were women with high levels of education. They spoke English communicatively though not always proficiently, had travelled extensively, concentrated in classes, and were highly literate in first languages and cultures of schooling. Most of them were older than our student teachers. They reported that the English classes were a chance to get out of the house and learn language and culture that would help them in their new communities. The communicative objectives of the classes at both sites were

therefore aligned with their learning goals. Most importantly for this study, they were sites designed for CLT where mentor teachers practiced this approach.

Mentor Teachers

There were three mentor teachers for the student teachers: Tom, Molly, and Fred. Tom and Molly were the two very experienced and professional teachers at the ESL Center. I supervised practicums in their classes from 2013-2015. Molly and I mentored and supervised six Chinese student teachers, including Chaoxing and Shuang in 2014. Tom and I also worked with six Chinese student teachers, including Jun in 2014 and Dilin in 2015.

Both before and after classes, these mentor teachers would discuss lessons with the student teachers. They were available on weekdays to help student teachers with questions and lesson planning. After observed lessons, the student teachers and I would find a quiet place for our reflections. In this way, student teachers were in processes of dialogue with their supervisor and their mentor teachers. Post-practicum interviews with Tom and Molly in the spring of 2015, confirmed my experience that our teaching and reflective practices were aligned.

Like me, Tom had taught for about a quarter century. He had taught in Taiwan for several years and married a Taiwanese woman who now teaches Chinese at a local private high school. He was therefore quite familiar with Chinese culture. Tom enacted student-centered CLT in practice, but also believed in the necessity of teaching grammar and vocabulary from the text book (Tom, personal communication, April 15, 2015). The book selected for these spousal classes – *Touchstone 2* and *3*, by McCarthy, McCarten, and Sandiford – had controlled practice activities which restricted student flexibility to extend conversations. However, Tom encouraged student teachers to design their own lessons on the functions being covered in the book for any

given week. He reported making lesson suggestions to help student teachers think more deeply about what they wanted to achieve and how. Like Molly, he was a very supportive mentor.

Molly was a highly trained ESL teacher originally from Germany, with no detectable German accent. She was a non-native English-speaking teacher (NNEST) who had achieved the fluency that Medgyes (1994) considers essential for professional job satisfaction. Like Tom, Molly wanted to see her student teachers succeed. She did not mind if student teachers used the whole two hours of class to implement communicative teaching.[9] She also advised student teachers to use authentic materials and helped them find these. For example, while several months pregnant on a rainy day in 2015, she drove two student teachers to the tourist information center downtown so they could gather authentic material for a lesson.

The third mentor teacher of this study was an energetic, retired orthopedic surgeon at the Oakgrove Church. Fred had mentored many interns and he applied this experience in mentoring our student teachers. After retiring, he took a Master of Arts in education at a local university, and then audited TESOL program classes at Weldon. While he welcomed the communicative approaches our student teachers attempted to implement (Fred, personal communication, July 2, 2015). Fred favored teacher-centered class work in which students were providing opinions and answers to him and the whole class. He mentored Liying in his vivacious class of nearly thirty students. They possessed intermediate to advanced English skills by ACTFL (American Council for the Teaching of Foreign Language) standards and hailed from all over the world. This class met twice a week for three hours. Fred regretted being unable to spend much time mentoring student teachers because of these longer classes (Fred, personal communication, July 2, 2015).

[9] The lessons I observed at all sites lasted between 25 to 65 minutes.

Data Collected

From frequent data collection for the larger, ethnographic study, the participants in this study were quite used to being video recorded and observed. The small digital audio recorders used in our post-lesson reflections were therefore rather unobtrusive. Audiotaped post lesson reflections and the following data were collected for this study:

- Fieldnotes and analytic notes on important moments in practicum seminars, lesson planning sessions, post-lesson reflections, and the life/study events of the student teachers.
- Written pre-practicum goals from the four selected participants and my email responses.
- All emails of scheduling, questions, conflict resolution, lesson plans, feedback on lessons, and inquiries on teaching.
- Almost all lesson plans. Students often sent an initial draft by email and then a revised draft in response to supervisor and mentor feedback before an observed lesson.
- Most lesson material.
- All pages of Minutes and Feedback written while observing each student teacher's three lessons: 12 sets of Minutes and Feedback. For each lesson there were two or more pages of single-spaced Minutes and one full page of written Feedback (see Appendices A, B, and C).
- Most handouts, some classroom artifacts, and some photos of class work.
- Audiotape of all post-lesson reflections. For each student teacher, these generally lasted about 50 minutes.
- Audiotape of two lesson planning sessions and one 2014 group meeting with student teachers to discuss CLT activities and techniques in the textbook, *English Firsthand 1*.

- All written assessment forms completed at the end of practicums by the student teachers, the mentor teachers, and the supervisor.
- Audiotape of student teacher and supervisor review of the assessment forms and the practicum experience. These review meetings concluded practicums. They generally lasted about an hour and were conducted some days after the third and final lessons.
- Audiotaped post-practicum interviews/conversations with Molly, Tom, and Fred. These constituted a peer debriefing on what had occurred in practicums.
- An audiotaped program exit interview with Chaoxing and Shuang.
- Emailed member checks with Dilin. For one, he listened to a contentious 10+ minute recorded excerpt of our first reflection.
- Peer debriefing with my advisor.

Data Analysis

Data analysis proceeded through three overlapping and recursive phases. Phase 1 sought answers to Research Question 1 (RQ1), on the problems and successes that student teachers experienced in implementing CLT. Phase 2 sought answers to Research Question 2 (RQ2), on how we interacted in post-lesson reflective dialogue to solve problems of practice. Phase 2 analysis focused on five things. One was a microanalysis of passages to describe the specific forms, functions, communicative understandings, and social significance in our dialogical interactions while discussing problems. Another was an investigation of our greatest differences. A third was the identification and analysis of dialogical moves that may have facilitated or impeded knowledge building (Wells, 2000) of CLT practice. The fourth analytic focus investigated how we progressed through a common process of dialogue in working to solve problems. The fifth traced how the student teachers appropriated ideas from dialogue to

successfully implement CLT in successive lessons. In Phase 3, I theoretically integrated the major concepts or categories of findings with essential peer-debriefing insights from my advisor. During these phases, I subjected data to constant comparative and negative case analysis (Strauss & Corbin, 1990; Charmaz, 2006). The phases are shown in *Figure 4* below.

Fall 2016	**Winter 2016-17 to Spring 2018**	**Summer 2018 to Winter 2018-19**
Phase 1: *What problems of practice interfered with student communication in practicum lessons and how did student teachers successfully implement CLT?* **Sources:** Minutes, Feedback, lesson plans, class materials, emails, audiotaped post-lesson reflections, and member checks. **Method:** Constant comparative (Strauss & Corbin, 1998)		
	Phase 2: *In post-lesson reflections, how did we interact in seeking solutions to problems that interfered with student communication?* **Sources:** Audiotaped post-lesson reflections, mentor teacher interviews, Minutes, Feedback, lesson plans, class materials. **Method:** Intertextual Analysis (Bloome & Egan Robertson, 1993); Constant comparative method; Idea Tracing (Jocius, 2015).	
		Phase 3: Conceptual integration of categories in constructing a grounded theory (Charmaz, 2006).

Figure 4. Phases of Data Analysis

Phase 1

Phase 1 analysis sought answers to the first research question (RQ1): *What problems of practice interfered with student communication in practicum lessons and how did student teachers successfully implement CLT?* The primary data sources were the Minutes and Feedback written in lesson observations. Other data sources included emails, lesson plans, class materials, transcripts of audiotaped post-lesson reflections, and mentor teacher interviews. The goals of this phase were to employ my definition of CLT to begin identifying CLT problems and successes, to develop categories for analyzing early codes, and to narratively reconstruct student teacher lessons to identify problems and successes in facilitating student communication.

I began analysis by pasting the Minutes and Feedback onto PowerPoint slides to perform open coding (see Appendices A, B, & C). Because I was already sensitive to CLT problems and successes from my paper, noting them in the Feedback, and discussing them in reflections, line-by-line open coding (Glaser, 1978) worked to ground analysis in the data and to eliminate bias.

These PowerPoint slides began the story maps that I made for each student. On the story map slides, I pasted lesson plans, materials, analytic memos, and other data. The four story maps that I created were documented chronologies of student teacher work throughout their practicums that facilitated coding and analysis (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

I began more focused coding for CLT problems by referring to this study's definition of CLT (stated below) and to the CLT problems identified in my conference paper for Chaoxing and Jun. These problems included lecturing; inability to give clear directions; don't know how to set up an activity; focus on teaching language, not functions; and wanting to always have the right answer to every question.

Early analysis of open and focused codes began to identify two types of problems interfering with student communication and CLT practice which required different analysis. Type 1 CLT Problems were those when student teachers attempted to implement a recognizable CLT activity, like the role plays of Chaoxing and Dilin. Type 2 Problems with Communication were those when there was no recognizable attempt to implement a CLT activity. Analysis of codes describing Type 2 problems was informed by the literature on valued cultural practices in China that oppose CLT practice.

Analysis of Type 1 CLT Problems and Successes

To develop categories for analyzing early codes that were indicative of CLT problems and successes, I employed this study's definition of CLT implementation. I defined CLT according to the professional understandings of our TESOL community of practice (Wenger, 1998). Accordingly, successful implementation of CLT comprised the practicum teacher facilitating student talk in purposive pair or group activity to complete a functional, real-world task (like ordering in a restaurant) by which students had to share information and negotiate meaning in a collaborative classroom community (Larsen-Freeman, 1986, 2000; Brown, 2001; Richards & Rogers, 2001; Ellis, 2012; Rao, 2002; Hu, 2002; Littlewood, 1981; Savignon, 1991; Morrow, 1981). I employed a "weak" definition of CLT (Ellis, 2012, p. 60). The weak version includes some procedures and practices from older methods that are incorporated in CLT, like the Structural-Situational and Audiolingual methods (Ellis, 2012; Richards & Rogers, 2001). These procedures and practices include PPP (Presentation, Practice, and Production) phases of a lesson during which the teacher introduces a situation, language, structures, and scripted dialogues for controlled student practice. Littlewood (1981, p. 86) and Richards and Rogers (2001, p. 171) refer to these *Structural Activities* and *Quasi-communicative activities* (e.g.

controlled practice) as *Pre-communicative activities*. They give students the tools to perform later production activities which they categorize as true *Communicative activities*. Communicative activities – often facilitated with *realia*,[10] or authentic material like a real restaurant menu - provide the students with extended opportunities for freer and more natural language use. Rao (2002) states that this weak version "has become more or less standard practice in China in the past two decades" when CLT is actually implemented (p. 87).

Because professional TESOL practitioners understand that the pre-teaching of language and structures is best accomplished through pair and group activities, I considered teacher lecturing or explaining of language in the presentation phase to represent problems interfering with student communication and CLT practice. Furthermore, I considered controlled practice activities that did not lead to production activities as problematic. Because true communicative activities have high ratios of student talk (ideally one student talking for every student listening in one-on-one work), I considered one student speaking in a group of up to five to still constitute CLT activity. And finally, I considered *wrap-ups* or reviews of completed CLT activities, in which the teacher calls on students to report or demonstrate results to the whole class, as normal CLT practice. These commonly recognized properties of CLT guided preliminary identification of Type 1 problems and successes when student teachers attempted to implement this approach.[11]

I used these properties of CLT to construct categories for Type 1 codes. One category was *Set-up and Facilitate Student Activities*. Another category was *Modified Material (Information Gaps, Role Plays, & Games), Realia, & Language*. In so doing, I noticed that my categories aligned with the points of mediation in an activity system (Engestrom, 1987; Cole &

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[10] Realia is authentic material found in real-world sources outside of texts developed for classes. Further examples of realia include newspaper or website ads for apartments.
[11] CLT is defined as an approach and not a method as there are numerous methodological techniques that can be employed in its implementation (Richards & Rogers, 2001).

Engestrom, 1993). For example, *Set-up and Facilitate Student Activities* was teacher work that was part of the *Division of Labour* in an activity system. *Modified Material (Information Gaps, Role Plays, & Games), Realia, & Language* described the tools that mediate, or facilitate, communication in a CLT system of activity. I therefore aligned categories with these points that mediate activity (see *Figure 5*).

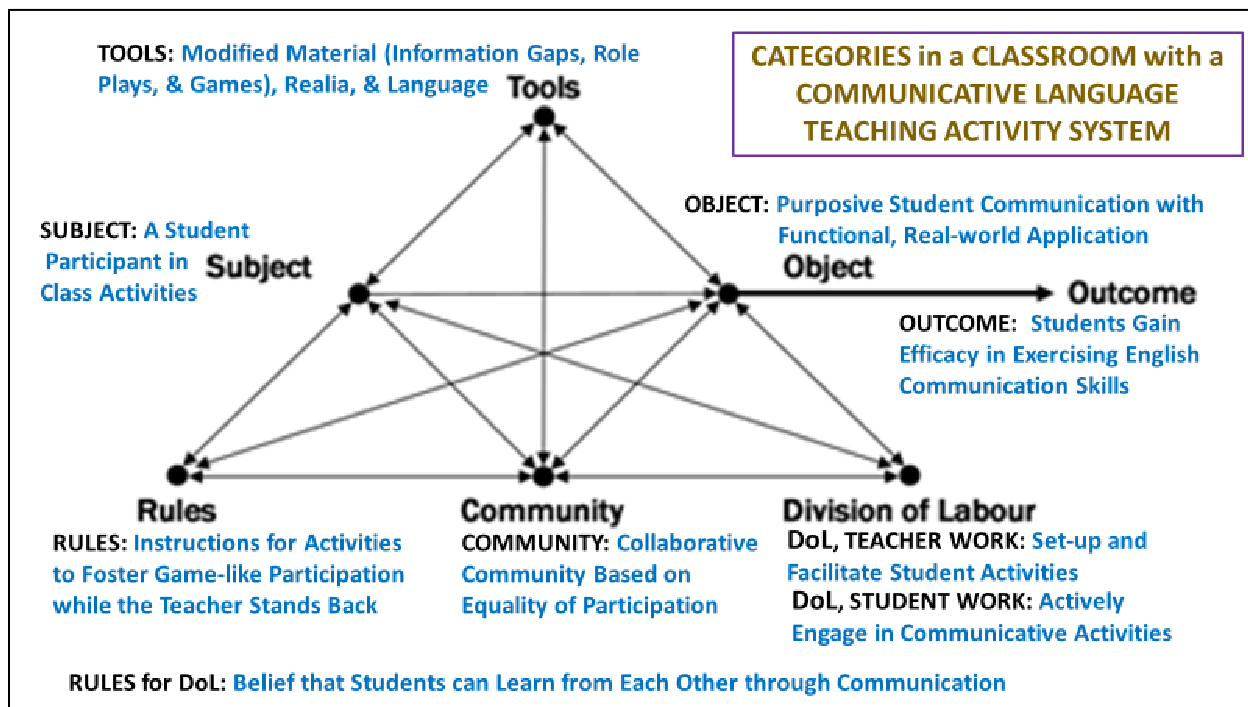

Figure 5: Categories in a Classroom with a CLT Activity System

I then established two core categories, *Successful* and *Problematic* attempts at CLT implementation, per my research questions. I proceeded to categorize grounded initial and focused codes by category and core categories, as seen in Table 1. In categorizing codes as either successful or problematic, I constantly compared (Strauss & Corbin, 1990) codes to my definition of CLT, the properties of categories in a CLT activity system, and to other codes. This analytic work helped to identify the features of problematic and successful attempts at CLT.

Table 1

Codes Categorized in a Communicative Language Teaching Activity System

Categories	Grounded Codes in 2 core categories of Attempted CLT Implementation	
	Successful	Problematic
Division of Labour, DoL, Teacher Work: Set up and facilitate student activities *	Quickly setting context. Giving clear, succinct instructions. Modelling activity. Efficient modelling. Grouping students (Ss). Assigning roles with role cards. Instructing Ss to stand up and find someone. Observing from a distance. Facilitating. Assessing activity. Suggesting partner change. Talking casually to groups.	Telling topic. Introducing too much vocabulary. Answering all questions. Not asking follow-up questions. Giving instructions without modelling. Interrupting instructions to take a vocabulary question. Imploring Ss to talk. Trying to explain the directions again. Not paying attention to student work. Interrupting.
DoL, Student Work: Actively engage in CLT activity (codes are for Ss' actions)	Pair work. Standing. Ss talking loudly to be heard. Ss engaged in task. Asking questions. Changing partners. Playing roles. Exchanging knowledge & opinions. Pointing, gesticulating, leaning forward. Speaking naturally. Writing partner info in organizer. Showing each other tools (cell phones).	Repeatedly questioning how to do the activity. Looking silently at lesson material. Struggling to decide roles. Trying to engage a confused partner. Quiet Ss. Seated Ss, not standing. Ignoring instructions. Giving up. Tuning out.
Rules: Instructions for activities.	ST giving clear instructions. ST modelled activity. Cards for role plays. ST checking if Ss understand the directions. ST giving notice on remaining activity time. ST limiting assistance to Ss.	ST giving unclear directions. Late Instructions. No model. Confusing activity for Ss. ST gives no roles for role plays. Giving Ss freedom instead of assigning roles. Too many activities, too much ST direction.
DoL, Rules: Belief in S-S learning	ST giving Ss learning responsibility. ST thanking Ss for an interesting discussion. ST asking for Ss critical opinions (of cell phones and apps). ST extending the activity's discussion time.	Ss performing for teacher. ST cutting activity discussion time short. Supervisor telling ST that groups haven't finished talking. ST asking for questions from the Ss.
Tools: Modified material, realia, language.	ST choosing simple, obvious material. Role cards. Realia: menus, Ss cell phones. Ss asking if material is authentic. Handouts with questions. Class speaking naturally. ST showing a video clip for group work. ST giving Ss graphic organizers to gather partner information. ST encouraging Ss talk.	Foreign restaurant menu. Ambiguous complaint scenarios. Culturally inappropriate scenarios on dating. White board. ST PowerPointing. Scripts with no spaces for substitution. Unmodified material. No pretend tools (e.g. pretending a chair is a door), ST not telling Ss the source for realia.
Subject: Student Participant	Ss asking partners for more information. Ss reporting accomplishing activity purpose.	Ss reading another class' textbook during activity. Ss asking how to do activity.
Community: Collaborative & Equal	Student enjoyment. Smiling, laughing. Ss learning from each other. ST circulating relaxedly as an equal. ST Learning from Ss. Ss sharing home-cultural practices. Ss clapping at lesson end.	Unengaged Ss. Tuned out Ss. One student talking. Most students silent, watching. Ss doing other class homework.
Object: Purposive, functional communication	Authentic activity. ST purposive & confident. Ss generating language in activity. Functional objective. No pre-teaching vocabulary. ST specifying student task. Class expressing interest in topic. Ss continuing to talk about the topic after the lesson.	ST doesn't give purpose for activity. Ss reading language on handout. ST cutting activity time short. ST hoping that at least the handouts with words and sentences are useful.

ST = Student Teacher * = codes for ST actions Ss = Students S = Supervisor

Analysis of Type 2 Problems with Communication

Type 2 pedagogical problems that interfered with student communication were those in which there was no recognizable attempt to implement CLT. Codes describing this teaching and classroom activity did not fit under *Categories in a CLT Activity System*. These codes included *explaining vocabulary*, *explaining grammar*, *lecturing*, *distancing from students*, *silent students, polite students, reading words from a handout*, and *teaching language from a PowerPoint.* These codes were instead describing practices like those reported in studies on numerous Chinese classrooms.

To therefore categorize these codes, I sought themes from studies on Chinese student teacher practice. Unfortunately, I found only four Western studies with passing references of little consequence to Chinese student teacher practice (Skinner & Abbott, 2013; Brinton, 2004; Lu, 2005; Park, 2006). And perusing Chinese studies, there were few descriptions of teacher or student teacher problems in trying to implement CLT.[12] However, in 14 key studies I found reports of cultural resistance to CLT that corresponded to my codes. I identified eight themes that were essentially recurring reasons for Chinese resistance to CLT. Table 2 maps the agreement between these themes and the key studies.

From these themes I created eight categories of classroom activity under which I categorized open and focused codes that described classroom incidents in which there was no attempt to implement CLT (see Table 3). One of these categories describing teacher work is *Lecture and Explain Vocabulary*. For student work, a category is *Listen and Studiously Attend to the Teacher*. These eight categories also corresponded to the "mediational" points comprising an activity system (Cole & Engestrom, 1993, p. 7) and so I mapped these on to this heuristic

[12] Notably, Carless (2004) found three primary school Hong Kong teachers struggling to maintain discipline in CLT group work, because students didn't regard it as serious study, so they reverted to their mother tongue.

framework (see *Figure 6*). I labeled the core category subsuming these eight categories as *Categories in an Activity System of ELT like that Found in China*. Classifying codes under these categories helped to identify Type 2 pedagogical problems that interfered with student communication and CLT practice.

Table 2

Key Study Concordance: Chinese Resistance to CLT

Themes or Reasons	Lecture on Language & Drill for Tests	Ss Meticulously Repeat & Review for Mastery	Teacher Authority; Polite Students	Maintain Mannered Confucian Hierarchies
Property	Teachers dutifully explain vocabulary and grammar as part of drilling students so they are prepped for the Gaokao.	To memorize language for the Gaokao, students must meticulously[13] follow and review teachings to know even minute details.	The teacher needs to maintain authority and discipline over large classes that need to be polite for serious class work.	According to Confucian educational values, students need to respect their teachers, who must also be models of learning.
Key Study Concordance	2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 13, 14	1, 2, 3, 8, 9, 11, 13, 14	1, 2, 3, 4, 8, 9, 11, 12, 13, 14	1, 2, 4, 8, 10, 13, 14
Themes or Reasons	Serious Study of the English language	Authoritative Texts	Students Learn from the Teacher	Prepped for test, not Communication
Property	Studying the complex mechanics of language is serious work and not the fun and games of CLT. It determines life success	Knowledge is in texts with true knowledge, like the *Analects*, the *Gaokao*, and textbooks chosen for classes.	Students must learn the correct knowledge from the teacher, not from classmates who may give wrong answers.	With time short, students are prepped for the Gaokao, which determines their future; no time for learning how to communicate.
Key Study Concordance	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, 12, 13, 14	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 8, 10, 13, 14	1, 2, 3, 6, 9, 13, 14	3, 4, 5, 8, 9, 10, 12, 13, 14
Key Studies	1. Hu, G. (2002). 2. Hu, G. (2005). 3. Qi, L. (2005). 4. Li, M. (2010). 5. Pan, L. & Block, D. (2011). 6. Tang, E. & Nesi H. (2003) 7. Peacock, M. (2001). 8. Fang, W. & Clark, A. (2014).		9. Tang, E. L. Y., Lee, J. C. K., & Chun, C. K. W. (2012). 10. Edwards, G. & Tsui, A. (2009). 11. Gu, Q. (2003). 12. Tseng, C. (2013). 13. Cortazzi, M. & Jin, L. X. (1996). 14. Tang, D. G. & Absalom, D. (1998).	

[13] Reading to distinguish and comprehend the thousands of Chinese characters requires exacting, meticulous, and serious attention to minute details (Hu, 2002, p. 101).

Table 3

Codes Categorized in an Activity System of ELT like that Found in China

Categories	Grounded Codes
Division of Labour, DoL: Teacher Work: Lecture and Explain Basic Vocabulary & Grammar *(Codes here describe ST action)*	Explicitly telling the topic. Explaining grammar. Explaining vocabulary. Lecturing. Reading words. Giving language. Lots of teacher-talk. Asking/answering own questions. Showing and telling. Random story-telling. Teaching things Ss already know. Supervisor questioning lack of learning opportunity in lecturing. Asking for the correct answers. IRF sequencing. Confirming correct answers. Demonstrating teacher knowledge. Interrupting Ss. Interrupting activity to explain vocabulary. Clarifying differences between words.
DoL: Student Work: Listen and Studiously Attend to the Teacher *(Codes here describe Ss' actions)*	Sitting quietly. Listening. Ss silence. Some Ss hardly talked. One-word answers. Giving the correct answers. Best Ss asking questions repeatedly, monopolizing student talk. Taking photo of PowerPoint. Tuned-out. Unengaged Ss. Rote reciting of vocabulary and definitions. Best student asks a question.
Rules: Teacher Authority. Polite Students	Students sitting politely. Supervisor questioning if sitting politely helps learning. Teacher-centered. Nice professional teacher. ST over-guiding. Boss of the class.
Rules for DoL: Belief that Students Learn from Teacher Knowledge, Not Other Students	No group work. ST not believing the Ss can work autonomously. ST not acknowledging Ss knowledge. ST teaching the basics. ST believing Ss are incompetent. ST not grouping Ss. ST not following up on Ss' experiences. ST calling up the other student teacher for modelling, not a student. Planning teacher-centered lesson.
Tools: Authoritative Texts, Tools, & Tests	Not enough dice. Inauthentic. School Exercise: Board writing. PowerPointing. ST giving a handout with language. Multiple handouts of picture dictionary pages with dozens of words.
Subject: Individual Student work in class	Low-level Ss are quiet. Higher level students talk and show off learning.
Community: Confucian Veneration for Education & Hierarchy	Playing school. ST distancing from Ss. Schoolish lesson. ST asking for questions to answer. Telling Ss to ask the teacher questions. Comfortable Ss asking questions. Ss dutifully following directions. ST favoring the best student. Pleasant. Ss performing for the teacher. Ss politely clap at lesson end.
Object: Serious Study of Language for Success	School work: Outlining. ST giving no lead-in to generate interest. ST needing to teach language. Telling Ss to read. ST discouraging body language because "we're a language class." ST hoping the Ss will use the taught words. Lesson plan covering a unit of material. Throwing the kitchen sink into the lesson plan. ST wanting Ss to know all the words.

Ss = Students ST = Student Teacher ELT = English language teaching

Particular pedagogical problems were described by several codes spanning different categories. For example, Jun's DoL Teacher Work of *lecturing* and *explaining vocabulary* demonstrated how his Object was Serious Study of Language for Success and served to exercise

his Teacher Authority over the *students sitting politely* (Rules) who were *listening* (DoL: Student Work). In identifying the cross-categorical effects of the problem with Jun's lecturing and explaining of vocabulary, I was establishing axial connections between the categories to more fully determine how his teaching had affected his class. In this manner, activity systems were useful heuristics in reconstructing and analyzing what had occurred in lessons.

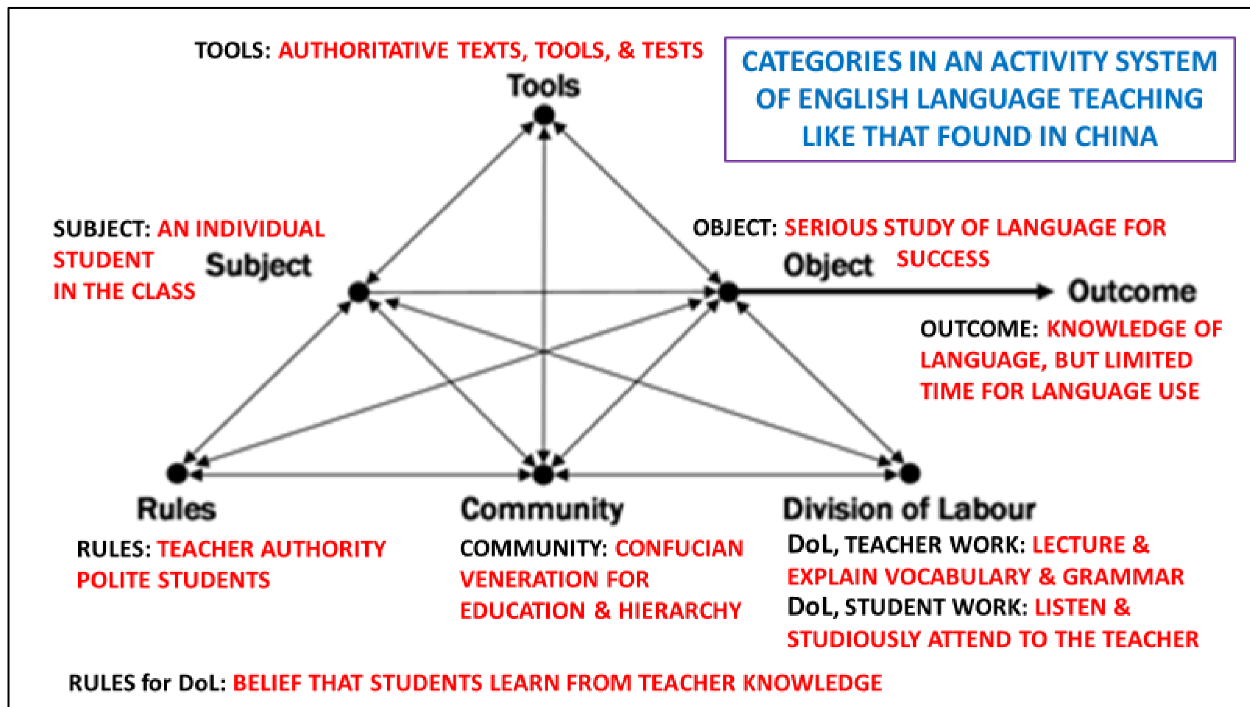

Figure 6: Categories in an Activity System of ELT like that Found in China

Data from audiotaped post-lesson reflections which revealed teacher thinking, conceptions, and reasons for CLT avoidance or resistance were also categorized in this activity system. For example, Dilin stated that he had been *explaining vocabulary* (a coded problem) like a "Chinese teacher" as the "boss of the class," and I assigned this the *in vivo* code *boss of the class*. I categorized this *in vivo* code under Rules, which has the property of Teacher Authority. I then analyzed how *explaining vocabulary* may have been a way for Dilin to maintain teacher authority and fulfill a valued Chinese teacher role.

Because teacher thinking and conceptions like this were often the origins of lesson outcomes, I analyzed statements from post-lesson reflections which revealed thoughts and conceptions to help explain dimensions of the CLT problems and successes that I was identifying.

To add further dimension, I drafted narrative descriptions of the lessons for analysis (See Appendix D). In so doing, I compared the drafts with the data to make revisions that accurately depicted the problems and successes that had occurred in certain lesson parts. (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, 1998). These descriptions include lesson materials, reflective statements, and interview excerpts that provide insight on lesson outcomes, the nature of problems, and how lessons unfolded.

Phase 2

Phase 2 sought answers to the second research question (RQ2): *In post-lesson reflections, how did we interact in seeking solutions to problems that interfered with student communication?* The primary data sources to answer this question were audiotaped post-lesson reflections and mentor teacher interviews with Tom and Molly. Minutes, Feedback, lesson plans, class materials, and member checks with Dilin were data sources used to triangulate and validate findings. The goal of this phase was to discover the social significance of how we interacted through a microanalysis of the specific forms, functions, and communicative understandings in dialogue to find solutions to pedagogical problems that interfered with student communication (Bloome & Egan-Robertson, 1993).

To perform this microanalysis, I selected key passages of post-lesson discussion on these problems for coding in a slightly modified version of the Bloome & Egan-Robertson (1993) heuristic for investigating the social construction of intertextuality (see Appendices E and F).

Because there were long and varied discussions on numerous problems in the first reflections, the selection criterion was that the passages be representative of the whole post-lesson reflection. When the reflection contained both contentious and agreeable discussion, the key passage that I selected also included both types of discussion. Representative key passages were chosen so that actions and reactions across the passages could be compared (Bloome & Egan-Robertson, 1993). Table 4 records the periods, times, and problems discussed in the selected key passages.

Table 4

Key Passages to Investigate the Social Significance of our Dialogical Interactions

	Reflection	Period	Time	Problems Discussed
Chaoxing	1	2:11 – 21:45	19:34	Answering Questions; Unclear Instructions; Modelling; Reading Vocabulary
Jun	1	0:00 – 19:14	19:14	Lecturing; No CLT Activity Students "didn't get it," vocabulary
Dilin	1	43:10 – 1:03:12	20:02	Adapting Menu; Grouping; Most Important Part of Lesson
Liying	1	27:59 – 47:34	19:45	Explaining Vocabulary
Dilin	2	21:50 – 36:53	15:03	Lesson Material Problem; Not Following Lesson Plan
Chaoxing	3	26:32 - 38:31	11:59	Explaining Vocabulary; Reading Words; Focus on Language, not Functions
Dilin	3	15:45 – 34:48	19:03	Unclear Instructions; No Purpose in Activity

These key passages were then subjected to microanalysis in the modified version of the Bloome and Egan-Robertson (1993) heuristic (see Appendix F). I coded the Form, Function, and References of our utterances to determine if we constructed intertextual understanding through Recognition and Acknowledgement of each other's messages. I then analyzed coded intertextual exchanges to investigate their Social Consequence or Significance.

I employed two criteria for identifying social significance in our dialogical interactions: (1) what facilitated student teacher knowledge building and appropriation of CLT ideas for

implementation, and (2) "what really matters" to TESOL educators working with Chinese pre-service teachers (Robert Jimenez, personal communication, May 5, 2018). Through these criteria I determined that there was social significance in the topic of our biggest disagreements, in our process of dialogue through stages, in particular moves and qualities that promoted understanding of CLT, and in how dialogical work influenced appropriation of CLT practice (Rogoff, 1995). I investigated the social significance of these aspects through the methods of constant comparison (Strauss & Corbin, 1990; 1998) and idea tracing (Jocius, 2015).

In analyzing our disagreements on vocabulary teaching, I sought to understand the reasons why participants lectured and explained vocabulary and simple grammar. For this I examined statements revealing their conceptions on these practices. I also sought to understand how our disagreement and reflection on this teaching effected change in subsequent lessons.

Through incident to incident coding of transcript segments, I identified stages of dialogue in discussing CLT problems. Analysis investigated the characteristics and purposes of each stage. I compared our work in these interactional stages through analytic memos (Charmaz, 2006) like that of Appendix I. I engaged in a further phase of coding (Appendix J) to identify key dialogical moves in each stage and axial properties of the stages (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

To gain a deeper understanding of what facilitated knowledge building of CLT, I extracted moves and qualities identified in the sociocultural literature to create questions to ask of dialogue with each student. One of these questions appearing in Appendix G is *Do we "establish ties across time, texts, and events?"* (Putney, 2000, p. 92). Analysis considered the degree to which we were able to exercise these moves and qualities for enhanced understanding. Across the key passages of first reflections I also conducted a frequency count of 29 moves and qualities that affected understanding of CLT (see Appendix H). I compared these counts across

participants and against CLT problems and successes to consider what dialogical moves or qualities most influenced student teacher knowledge building of CLT practices.

And finally, I investigated how dialogical work influenced appropriation of CLT practice. I asked, *In our discussion of a certain problem, did we jointly (with mutual understanding) accomplish the purpose of each stage?* For example, to determine if we had accomplished the purpose of Stage 4, *Agreeing on the Problem*, I sought statements showing the proposal (or initiation) of a problem, specific references to its properties, and agreement from both parties on the problem. I constructed tables to record what purposes we accomplished in each stage of discussion on specific problems. Appendix K shows tables on whether we could accomplish the purpose of agreement in Stage 4. After recording these results, I sought to discover if jointly accomplishing the purposes of stages influenced the reoccurrence or desistance of a problem in a successive lesson. In this manner, analysis mapped the "conditions, contexts, and consequences" of our interactions to determine what dialogue was accomplishing (Charmaz, 2006, p. 119).

To analyze how dialogical work influenced appropriation of CLT practice (Rogoff, 1995), I traced CLT ideas that we had discussed in our processes of dialogue to student teacher implementation of these ideas in the products of their successive lessons (Jocius, 2015).

And to conclude, I examined important insights that Molly provided on how dialogue with both mentors and their supervisor reinforced student teacher awareness that some of their initial teaching practices were not valued in our community (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998).

Phase 3

Phase 3 sought answers to the question of how I could integrate categories of findings to construct a conceptual "understanding of the studied phenomenon" (Charmaz, 2006, p. 126). The

primary sources were drafts of findings and peer debriefing advice from my advisor (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The goal was to better integrate categories of findings to fully conceptualize what influenced the practicum experiences of these student teachers in trying to implement CLT.

To accomplish this goal, I outlined my findings in various ways and wrote long drafts to let ideas emerge. I sent these to my advisor who sent back valuable advice for revision. Our dialogue “critically examined my categories” so that “each successive draft” of this dissertation grew “more theoretical and comprehensive” (Charmaz, 2006. p. 154)

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

The findings of this study are divided into two parts. Part 1 reports key findings addressing Research Question 1 (RQ1) below. Part 2 reports key findings for RQ2 on our topic of biggest disagreement, our process of dialogue through stages to solve problems, the dialogical moves and qualities that facilitated this process, and how student teachers appropriated ideas to implement CLT.

Part 1: Problems and Successes in Practicing CLT

There are four key findings for RQ1: *What problems of practice interfered with student communication in practicum lessons and how did student teachers successfully implement CLT?* The first is that **(1)** I identified 12 problems of practice that interfered with student communication across the 12 lessons and found that these problems were of two types. One type of problem resulted when the student teachers reproduced common cultural teaching practices like they experienced as youth in the classrooms of China. The other problem type occurred when they attempted to implement CLT activity. This latter problem type demonstrated their communicative teaching intent. The second key finding is that **(2)** The student teachers drew on their "communicative intent" to successfully implement CLT in many lessons (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, p. 129). The third important finding is that **(3)** CLT successes and problems depended on whether they attended to student interests to design and implement meaningful activities. The fourth key finding is that **(4)** The student teachers were weighing the demands of what it means to be a good English language teacher (ELT) from the cultural perspectives of two very different activity systems of education: the ELT classroom activity system of China in which they were enculturated and the new CLT classroom activity system in which they were embedded. This

finding is demonstrated in the awkwardness they felt when implementing more communicative activity and in their satisfaction in facilitating student communication.

Part 1 is divided into four sections which correspond to these findings. The first section is titled *Communication Problems: Cultural Practices and Communicative Teaching Intent*. The second section is *CLT Success*. The third section is titled *The Effect of Attending to Student Interests*. The fourth section is *Weighing the Cultural Demands of Two Different Activity Systems*.

Communication Problems: Cultural Practices and Communicative Teaching Intent

This section reports my identification of the 12 problems of practice which interfered with student communication in practicum lessons and the finding that these problems occurred in two instances. It begins with a subsection introducing these problems that is titled *Problems Interfering with Student Communication and CLT across Lessons*. It then presents the finding that little student communication occurred when student teachers were implementing practices that are common in China. Afterwards, it presents my finding that problems in facilitating communication also occurred in instances when they attempted to implement CLT activity.

Problems Interfering with Student Communication and CLT across Lessons

Across the 12 lessons, I identified 12 problems of practice that interfered with student communication in practicum lessons (refer to Table 5). Employing a constant comparative method (Strauss & Corbin, 1990; Corbin & Strauss, 2008), I grouped problems with similar characteristics into four categories: *Problems with Teaching Language*, *Teacher-centered Problems*, *Problems in Implementing a CLT Activity*, and *Problems in Planning and Execution*. The problems in each category are listed in Table 6.

Table 5

Problems Interfering with Student Communication and CLT across Lessons

	Focus on Language, Not Functions	Explaining Vocabulary	Reading Words or Phrases	Lecturing	No Communicative Activity	Grouping Students	Lesson Material Problem	Unclear Instructions or Directions	No Modelling or Model Lacking	No Purpose or Objective in Activity	Distancing from Students	Not Following Lesson Plan
Chaoxing Lesson 1			✓					✓	✓			
Jun Lesson 1	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	NA	NA	NA	✓	
Dilin Lesson 1		✓		✓		✓	✓	✓	✓			✓
Liying Lesson 1		✓										
Chaoxing Lesson 2												
Jun Lesson 2												
Dilin Lesson 2		✓					✓	✓	✓			✓
Liying Lesson 2												
Chaoxing Lesson 3	✓	✓	✓									
Jun Lesson 3												
Dilin Lesson 3	✓	✓				✓		✓	✓	✓		✓
Liying Lesson 3												

NA = Not applicable

Problems with Teaching Language occurred in each of the seven lessons with little student communication. These problems included *Focus on Language, Not Functions*; *Explaining Vocabulary*; and *Reading Words or Phrases*. The student teachers often focused on teaching language, like vocabulary and minor grammatical points, instead of focusing on the implementation of functional activities as is "emphasized" in CLT (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, p. 131). I categorized some instances of grammar teaching under Explaining Vocabulary because explanations largely treated the phrases or sentences as single chunks of meaning like a

vocabulary word, while avoiding complex teaching of interrelated parts of speech. In their zeal to teach vocabulary, the student teachers sometimes read long lists of words or phrases. In post-lesson reflections, our biggest disagreements concerned their vocabulary teaching practices.

Teacher-centered Problems reinforced the ways that student teachers taught language. These problems were *Lecturing*; *No Communicative Activity*; and *Distancing from Students*. In the first lessons of Jun and Dilin, lecturing was the manner of explaining vocabulary. The time that this work required left little time for communicative activity. There was no recognizable communicative activity in Jun's first lesson. He unwittingly exercised teacher-authority in sitting nearly five meters from students behind a table.

Problems in Implementing a CLT Activity included *Grouping Students*; *Lesson Material Problems*; *Unclear Instructions or Directions*; *No Modelling or Model Lacking*; and *No Purpose or Objective in the Activity*. The modelling problem occurred when the students couldn't perform an activity because the student teacher hadn't shown them how to do it by modelling it in a short exemplary performance. The no purpose problem occurred when the potential for communication was stifled because the student teacher hadn't given the students a clear task. For example, in his third lesson, Dilin instructed students to just talk to their partners instead of following his lesson plan to tell them to "ask 5 of…[your] classmates" about available apartments to choose the best for your family. For his planned but unexecuted purpose of choosing, he had given students a graphic organizer to record information from five classmates (See Dilin's Third Lesson in Appendix D). But in *Not Following his Lesson Plan*, Dilin had fourth category Problems in Planning and Execution. Poor instructions rendered a communicative plan and material irrelevant.

Through analysis it was apparent that Problems with Teaching Language and Teacher-centered Problems were *Problems in Enacting Practices that are Common in China's Classrooms* (Hu, 2002; Tang et al., 2012), and so I created this core category to describe these problematic practices which interfered with student communication (refer to Table 6). It was also clear that Problems in Implementing a CLT Activity and Problems in Planning and Execution were a core category of *Problems showing Communicative Teaching Intent*. Diane Larsen-Freeman (2000) explains that in attempting to implement CLT, "almost everything that is done is done with a communicative intent" (p. 129). I also use *communicative teaching intent* instead of *CLT intent* because student teachers did not fully understand the principles and techniques of this approach. The following two subsections demonstrate these two core categories of problems that interfered with student communication in practicum lessons.

Table 6

Categories of Problems Interfering with Student Communication

Problems in Enacting Practices that are Common in China's Classrooms	**Problems showing Communicative Teaching Intent**
Problems with Teaching Language • Focus on Language, Not Functions • Explaining Vocabulary • Reading Words or Phrases	**Problems in Implementing a CLT Activity** • Grouping Students • Lesson Material Problem • Unclear Instructions or Directions • No Modelling or Model Lacking • No Purpose or Objective in Activity
Teacher-centered Problems • Lecturing • No Communicative Activity • Distancing from Students	**Problems in Planning and Execution** • Not Following Lesson Plan

Problems in Enacting Practices that are Common in China's Classrooms

In their first lessons, the four student teachers performed practices commonly found in China's classrooms. These practices conflicted with CLT (Hu, 2002; Tang et al., 2012) and resulted in two categories of interrelated problems that interfered with student communication: Problems with Teaching Language and Teacher-centered Problems. In enacting these problematic practices, student teachers lectured, explained, and read basic vocabulary, phrases, and sentences at length to students who were largely silent. These practices mirrored those found in studies by Hu (2005), Qi (2005), Fang and Clark (2014), Tang et al., 2012; Tsui & Edwards, 2009; Tang and Nesi (2003), and Cortazzi and Jin (1996, 1998). Because some students already knew this language, we reflected that they were bored or tuned out. Liying thought this teaching "was necessary" even though her practicum goals stated her intent to implement CLT. And Dilin and Chaoxing stated that they were teaching like teachers they had observed in China, which clearly fits Lortie's (1975) definition of apprenticed practice. In a member check, Dilin wrote that his "rigid teacher-centered instruction" was the result of "being immersed in the teacher-centered instructions throughout pretty much all my young and college life…[so that] it almost became my second nature" (Dilin, personal communication, August 14, 2017).

Before I present examples of how Dilin and Chaoxing enacted common home-cultural practices, it is important to point out that *culture* is not the only reason for some practices that I report. For example, though I found that Jun reproduced the common, home-cultural practice of lecturing, it is also common knowledge in our field that "taking too much of the talking time" is the biggest mistake that "all beginner ESL teachers make" (Pesce, n.d., website). Undoubtedly, lack of experience also played a smaller role in Jun's first lesson lecturing. There are obviously an assortment of reasons for given pedagogical problems, which makes "becoming a good

teacher…demanding and difficult" (Robert Jimenez, personal communication, January 13, 2019). However, I maintain that enacting common cultural practices from China was a primary reason for a type of problem that I report in this study. Descriptions of Dilin's first lesson and Chaoxing's third lesson provide examples that show how student teachers enacted practices commonly found in China's classrooms that interfered with student communication.

Dilin's First Lesson

In his first lesson, Dilin explained language by lecturing, especially after presenting a PowerPoint slide with what he called "words you need to know" for "when you order from a menu" (Minutes). To test students' knowledge of these words, Dilin asked Initiation-Response-Evaluation (IRF or IRE) questions like those reported by Li and Walsh (2011) and Jin and Cortazzi (1998). In hearing these, I noted three instances in the Minutes of how Dilin merrily cut short student responses by finishing them himself. He also asked about and explained words that the students already knew.

> *You ask about 'brunch.' A student says a couple of words, you finish the rest of the explanation. You ask about 'entrée,' but then explain it. You glow about 'baklava.' "What does it mean, 'dinner?'" [you ask.] They know. Then you explain the difference between dinner and supper. Your explanations and class are fast-paced, and you are magnetic, charismatic, smiling, seem to feel comfortable, and enjoy explaining, but is this communicative?* (Minutes)

Drawing on four years of "explaining" in his community college in China (Dilin, Reflection 2), Dilin went about his first lesson explaining with professional confidence. In reflection afterwards, he was initially unaware that I viewed these explanations as problematic. He fully owned his explaining as I compared his charismatic style to the way his classmate Feng had taught vocabulary in the preceding lesson. The three of us were reflecting together.

K:…So both of these parts were teacher-centered, but it sounds like there was kind of different strategies, and that your strategy was more of ask questions and see what the students say. And then your strategy was a little bit more of, um, ask questions…

D: Ask questions

K:…but then if you don't get a quick answer, explain it.

D: Explain it. Yeah, right away.

After an ensuing argument on how he had taken a communicative activity out of his lesson to do this explaining, Dilin said that his role had been like that of a "Chinese teacher" as the "boss of the class." (See Appendix D for the narrative description of how this unfolded.)

Chaoxing's Third Lesson

Chaoxing's third lesson is another example of how student teachers enacted practices commonly found in China which interfered with student communication. She attempted to teach over 120 vocabulary words on at least five handouts and through PowerPoint slides. Ninety of these words came from three pages of a picture dictionary (see *Figure 7*). Chaoxing instructed the students to do Round Robin Reading of these words whereby each student read one word in turn until all words had been read. She encouraged vocabulary questions. Her vocal Turkish student asked many questions while other students remained silent after reading their words.

Chaoxing also brought in kitchen utensils, including a whisker and tongs, which she showed and named for students. She reflected that she had to do this teacher show-and-telling for real learning to occur: "I still think I still have to have their attention because I brought the utensils to the class and I want them to see the real stuff." Chaoxing was expressing the cultural belief that for "serious" or real learning to occur, the teacher does the talking (Hu, 2002, p. 97).

Though Chaoxing's class lacked communicative opportunities, my Feedback also noted that "somehow the lesson seems to match the natural rhythm of these patient women and they seem to be pleasantly enjoying it." When I commented in reflection that the atmosphere "seemed

very comfortable, very pleasant," Chaoxing expressed satisfaction in recreating the classroom environment that she liked as a student.

Chaoxing: Yeah. That's kind of the classroom atmosphere I like when I was a student. Yeah, I'm still a student. Haha. Um, so, changing the position I'm the teacher, I want to create that kind of atmosphere for the students so that they're willing to talk. And when I was writing something on the whiteboard for the Taboo game, I heard that they were asking questions as I told them to do. And they were using the words I just introduced, the verbs, the names, and I feel very happy.

Though Chaoxing was very happy with the mood she had created through teacher-centered work, her happiness also stemmed from how the students followed her instructions to use the words in conversation with each other. Besides reproducing common, valued Chinese teaching practices, Chaoxing possessed this communicative teaching intent.

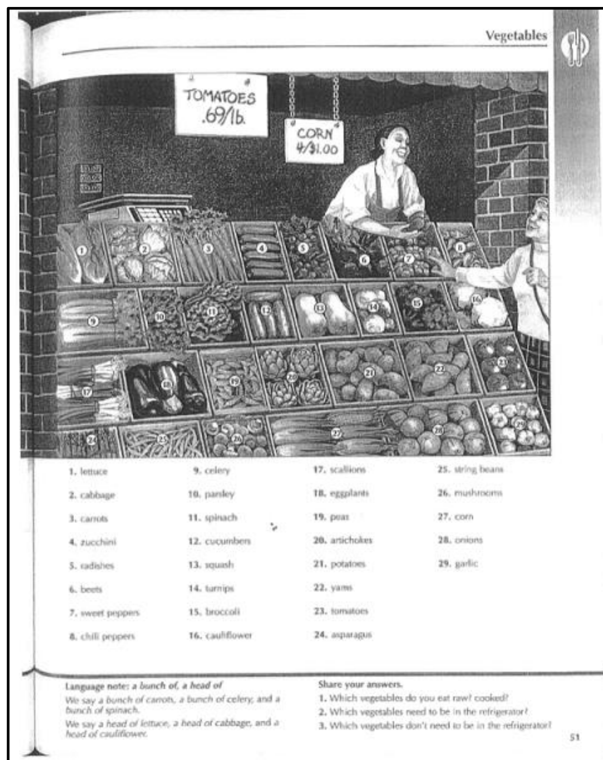

Figure 7. One of Chaoxing's three handouts for Round Robin Reading of vocabulary

Problems showing Communicative Teaching Intent

In all but Jun's first lesson, the student teachers demonstrated communicative teaching intent by attempting to implement typical CLT activities like role plays, information gaps, pair

discussion on subjects of student interest, and activities to find things (hotel rooms, apartments, and weekend events to attend). Jun even expressed communicative teaching intent from the beginning of our reflection on his first lesson in saying, “I feel it’s really terrible…it was just me who was there lecturing, lecturing, lecturing. And there still wasn’t much communication between the students.”

Though Edwards and Tsui (2009), Fang and Clark (2014), and Tang et al. (2012) report some student teachers attempting to enact communicative teaching and then feeling bad when they couldn’t, these studies do not report the strong communicative teaching intent that I found amongst Liying, Jun, and Chaoxing. These three participants expressed a strong desire to foster student-to-student communication in their classes. This communicative intent was also obvious in their lesson plans and practice teaching. It was further evidenced in how Liying, Jun, and Chaoxing eagerly appropriated ideas from dialogue to implement CLT. With this intent they were aligned with Weldon TESOL program teachings, with the objective of their practicum classes to develop student communication skills, and with the practices of their mentor teachers and supervisor.

And though Dilin “didn’t really think that the students could learn from each other” (Dilin, personal communication, August 14, 2017), his lesson plans, reflective statements, and practices also showed a more limited communicative teaching intent. He had communicative activities with great potential in each of his lesson plans but couldn’t follow these plans to successfully implement CLT. However, he acted on his communicative teaching intent in working to give students more voice in his classes, as will be illustrated.

Yet, despite their communicative teaching intent, Jun, Dilin, and Chaoxing were still largely unfamiliar with the techniques and principles to successfully implement communicative

activity as practicums began. (Liying was more familiar and successfully implemented CLT activity in each of her three lessons.) This unfamiliarity led to what I term CLT Problems showing Communicative Teaching Intent. The two most salient problems of this type were Unclear Instructions or Directions and No Model or Model Lacking. These problems worked together to stifle student communication in Chaoxing's first lesson role play and in each of Dilin's lessons, including his first lesson role play. The narrative description of Chaoxing's First Lesson shows what these problems of Unclear Instructions and No Model looked like.

Chaoxing's First Lesson

Chaoxing's first lesson had great communicative potential with a role play activity for neighbors to make complaints. She had created good material in paired complaint cards. Each neighbor in a pair had a card giving their perspective of a complaint situation (see *Figure 8*).

You are having a problem with your neighbor:	Your neighbor is having a problem with you.
Your neighbor in her twenties is a member of a band. She and other band members use the next-door house as a practice room. During the last two months, they often rehearsed late into the night. You could clearly hear the music. However, you have a kid who needs good rest for school in the daytime. He or she is now having trouble sleeping due to the noise. Your husband has complained to the manager and the manager has talked to your neighbor. But it didn't work.	You are the leader of a band in your twenties. You and your band are working really hard to attend an important music festival. Your performance will decide all members' career. You are likely to win a contact with a big company if you do a great job. However, the couple and their son/daughter who live next door have already complained about your late night band practice during the last two months through the manager once.

Figure 8. One example of Chaoxing's paired complaint cards. There are two cards here; one for each neighbor. For CLT, students must be instructed not to show each other their cards.

Yet despite good material, Chaoxing had problems in eliciting student communication due to unclear instructions and no modelling of the activity. After handing out role cards, she made the mistake of telling "students to outline the problem with the main point, facts, and

details” to perform a role play (Minutes). To follow these instructions, the students showed each other their cards. This took the suspense out of the situations. It turned the fun and games of a role play into the valued home practice of serious study (Hu, 2002). In the Minutes I observed, “The students then explain the problems to each other, but they really don’t play roles.” Students were never clearly aware that they needed to play roles. Finally, a Japanese student formulated her own guess: “How can I talk with her? I pretend?!” (Minutes). While observing, I wrote:

> *You go over to Song Hee and her partner, who have been silent, because they don’t know what to do. For some 7-8 minutes, Rozen and her partner have been quiet. The Japanese student still doesn’t understand. She asks questions while you explain. The other students are silent, watching. Song Hee has opened her book and is reading it. She is tuned out. Her partner yawns. Rozen and her partner are tuned out.* (Minutes)

Through unclear instructions with no model, Chaoxing had students who didn’t know what to do.

Discussion

The lessons described in this section exemplify my finding that student teacher classes experienced two types of problems which interfered with student communication. One type occurred when the student teachers reproduced common instructional practices from China, in particular, the practice of explaining vocabulary. However, the second type of CLT problem demonstrated their robust communicative teaching intent. Student teachers strived to implement CLT activities and were disappointed when these attempts failed. This finding suggests that given a CLT-oriented TESOL program and practicum environment, Chinese student teachers will attempt to implement our field’s communicative language teaching approach (Brown, 2001; Wenger, 1998).

CLT Success

The second key finding of this study is that the student teachers drew on their communicative intent to successfully implement CLT in many lessons. Appendix D provides a

full account of the many CLT successes of this sample. In six lessons the student teachers implemented productive communicative activities that gave students extended opportunities for meaningful communication. Student joy was evident in excited voices, laughter, leaning in closer to partners, and admiration for student home-culture foods and festivals. They enjoyed learning from each other and the student teachers enjoyed hearing student opinions as they facilitated this activity. From Appendix D, descriptions of Jun's second lesson and Liying's third lesson, which I present below, show examples of how the student teachers successfully implemented CLT.

Jun's Second Lesson

Jun reported appropriating second lesson ideas from our first reflection and a planning session before Lesson 2 that he had requested with me and his classmate Peter, who was doing his practicum alongside Jun. To begin his second lesson, Jun simply pulled out his cell phone, efficiently told the students about a problem with it, asked them to break normal class rules to pull out their phones, and then to freely talk about them. He instructed, "Introduce to your partner your cell phone…When did you get it? Do you just text?...Do you do anything else with it? And you can also talk about if you want to get a new one" (Minutes). In writing Feedback about how the students burst into conversation, I observed Jun's wisdom in avoiding vocabulary or sentence introduction, and how he had effectively implemented CLT.

> *You made a wise decision not giving them any set questions on a handout or on a PowerPoint. They could generate their own questions and conversation. You gave them space to talk with a minimal of interruption. They take this to try conversation, communication. They are talking a lot and laughing. These are the goals of communicative teaching, along with conveying info and learning, as is happening.* (Feedback)

After this activity, Jun successfully implemented a role play in which kids were asking their parents to buy them cell phones. I was amazed by his turnaround from the first lesson and became choked up at the end of our reflection when I said, "I'm very proud of you."

Liying's Third Lesson

Liying taught "one of the best" CLT lessons "I have [ever] seen" (Feedback). To each table with mixed students from different nationalities, she gave three photocopied pictures of popular app icons, like Instagram, WeChat, and LINE. Then Liying simply instructed tables to analyze how these "make our communications easier" (Minutes). I observed that "they are fascinated about comparing what's popular across countries. It's amazing how this topic is of such explosive interest" (Feedback). In the wrap-up, students listened closely to each other and commented to table partners on what was said. Then Liying showed a video clip of "people using iPhones with apps," after which she asked, "What do you think?" Several students then gave Liying the lead-in to the next part of her lesson by talking about the downsides of this technology. One woman said, "More connected, but less connected with people around you. My husband is, whenever you see him he is just with his cell phone" (Minutes). After listening to them elaborate, Liying instructed each table to come up with three pros and three cons about this technology. While they mentioned pros, like easy "access to information," tables were "bringing up negative points in critical discussion…like 'how you have less real relationships…and it's a waste of time…[and] it's hard not to friend your boss'" (Minutes). Liying achieved the Weldon objective of using the practicum as a positive experience to practice things that she had learned.

These teaching examples from Jun and Liying demonstrate that student teachers successfully implemented CLT in many instances, which is my second key finding for RQ1.

The Effect of Attending to Student Interests

The third key finding of this study is that CLT successes and problems depended on whether student teachers attended to student interests to design and implement meaningful

activities. The previous section showed how Jun and Liying chose topics of student interest and designed successful CLT activities to generate communication.

Chaoxing also experienced CLT success by attending to student interest in her second lesson (see Table 7). *Chaoxing's Second Lesson* in Appendix D narrates how she created her information gap activity from material on a website of weekend activities that were happening in our city. Students were so interested in the activities that after Chaoxing's lesson, they made plans to go to one of them together. That spoke to the communicative success of her lesson in meeting the objective of Molly's class.

Dilin, however, was too focused on his own teaching (Kagan, 1992) too attend to student interests. For his first lesson he chose a menu from a Mediterranean restaurant that he liked, without regard to how students might react to the foreign language and foods. Though Tom called the realia, or real material, a "step in the right direction," he also remarked, "It's not a Denny's menu. It doesn't just say *cheeseburger* and *macaroni*, and *rolls*" (Tom, personal communication, April 15, 2015). Student groups had difficulty comprehending the words on this menu to answer three questions that Dilin had given them. I noted in the Minutes, "They are looking at the menu and trying to make sense of it. I don't think they are trying to answer the questions." Their difficulty in understanding this menu stifled conversation, which was not Dilin's object. "I find everyone so quiet. Talk!" he implored (Minutes).

Dilin had a similar problem in Lesson 2. He chose dating complaint scenarios for married Muslim students to perform role plays. One of these women reported being unable to do the role play because her husband was "perfect." When I reflected with Tom after the practicum on how the material was "so culturally inappropriate," Tom replied, "I know. I know. Even for a class that is called English for Spouses" (Tom, personal communication, April 15, 2015).

Table 7

Did STs Largely Attend or Not Attend to Student Interests and How?

Participant	Attended to Ss: A or NA / How?	Lesson 1	Lesson 2	Lesson 3
Chaoxing	**Attended (A)** or **Did Not Attend (NA)**	**NA**	**A**	**NA**
	How did the ST Attend or Not Attend?	Didn't think out clear instructions for Students, Ss	Found real weekend events for Ss to choose	Giving lists of vocabulary for the final class
Jun	**Attended (A)** or **Did Not Attend (NA)**	**NA**	**A**	**A**
	How did the ST Attend or Not Attend?	Giving Ss words he thought necessary	Let Ss talk about their cell phones	Let Ss talk about delicious home-country foods
Dilin	**Attended (A)** or **Did Not Attend (NA)**	**NA**	**NA**	**NA**
	How did the ST Attend or Not Attend?	Menu was for a foreign restaurant Dilin liked	Dating role plays for married Muslim Ss	Didn't care that real ads were important for Ss
Liying	**Attended (A)** or **Did Not Attend (NA)**	**NA + A**	**A**	**A**
	How did the ST Attend or Not Attend?	**NA**: teaching words. **A**: Ss ops to book rooms	Finding mates' festival they wanted to attend	Activities to discuss popular apps

ST = student teacher. Ss = students or student

For his third lesson, Tom helped Dilin find real apartment ads on websites, much like Molly had helped Chaoxing find real weekend activities. And likewise, Dilin's students talked about this material with interest after class. Tom reported that one asked Dilin where he had found these ads. Tom thought that might be an ah-ha moment for Dilin on the importance of "exploring with students the tasks that will hold their attention in the learning process" (Ball, 2000, p. 229). But Tom reported that Dilin brushed off the student's interest by saying, "Oh, yeah, um…Yeah, Tom gave me some of those websites. And I'm not sure. You can ask him" (Tom, personal communication, April 15, 2015). Tom commented, "There was no concept of oh, I can utilize that [material] for really getting to some stuff that they actually can talk about and that has connection to their own lives." In the lesson, too, Dilin spent so much time focused on his interest of teaching vocabulary that he didn't give the students more than 8 minutes in rushed activity with the interesting apartment ads. This, of course, resulted in the activity becoming a "drill" and another lesson with CLT problems (Tom, personal communication, April 15, 2015).

Tom spoke of how Dilin's engrained cultural practice of teaching by authoritative textbooks (Hu, 2002), prevented him from considering how to make material to capture student interest and promote discussion. He found that Dilin didn't have to create lesson material during the four years that he taught at the technical college in China. Dilin simply taught by the textbooks. Tom spoke of how Dilin wanted to continue teaching without modifying material to make it engaging.

T: I really feel like these guys wanted it handed down. And, um, Dilin even said, "Oh, you know, we've never had to do this before in China. We get the book, and we open it up to page 13, and we pretty much just start teaching." The students don't expect, the students don't expect anything to be fun or engaging, or relevant or anything like that. They're just kind of sitting there waiting for what's always been done kind of thing. And so that's kind of the paradigm they were coming from and that seems like how they even wanted to teach after two years of being at Weldon. So I was surprised by that. (Tom, personal communication, April 15, 2015)

Tom did not recognize much progress toward professional TESOL practices from either Dilin or Feng after two years in our Weldon program.[14] His statement showed that Dilin had achieved little generative teacher change (Ball, 2000, 2009). Sadly, Tom cited low Chinese student expectations as a reason why Dilin felt little need for change. And Dilin affirmed that students were not as important as teachers in our third reflection.

D:…Because you know in our culture, *teachers are* the *authority*. Teachers are the knowledge, the most knowledgeable person in the classroom. The students answer. They are, you know, it doesn't matter. You know, I think you know because you have been living in South Korea for so many years! Haha!...

K: Yeah.

D:…You know like, in our culture, the difference [and] the tricky part is, we do, we think, 'Oh teachers are the most important thing in the class.'…

Dilin's adamancy in saying this showed that he relished the hierarchical role of a teacher in China. In his experience, this role did not include "the responsibility to explore with students the tasks that will hold their attention in the learning process" (Ball, 2000, p. 229). Instead, Dilin pointed out that the teacher's responsibility was to convey important knowledge to students, which in Dilin's lessons were the English words, not useful apartment ads. Dilin had taken this responsibility seriously. And concurrently, the Chinese Department strongly approved of how he responsibly taught Chinese words and grammar. However, our practicum purposes were to also foster student-centered, communicative activity.

As these examples illustrate, my third finding was that for student teachers to achieve success in fostering communicative activity, they needed to attend to student interests. When they did not attend to these interests, their classes experienced CLT problems.

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[14] Feng had a serious illness during our practicum which impeded progress. She also wanted to become a translator. In contrast, Dilin wanted to further his career as an educator.

Weighing the Cultural Demands of What it Means to be a Good Teacher

The student teachers struggled in weighing the cultural demands of what it means to be a good teacher from the two different activity systems that they simultaneously inhabited: China's system of ELT in which they were enculturated, and the CLT system of classroom activity in which they were embedded. Their teacher learning was therefore "built on a history of relationships and influences, both local and distal" (Gutierrez, 2007, p. 116). This struggle was evident in their planning and teaching, as well as reflection on their lessons.

Their lessons contained a potpourri of parts representative of the classroom practices from both activity systems. For example, several lessons began with home-cultural practices of vocabulary explaining before an attempt was made to implement a communicative activity like a role play or information gap. Student teacher belief in the necessity of explaining vocabulary sometimes outweighed their communicative teaching intent in that they would explain for so long that the students had little time to engage in the planned communicative activity. A focus on teaching language crowded out time for functional, communicative activities in Chaoxing's third lesson, and all of Dilin's lessons.

In reflection on their lessons, the student teachers struggled to establish a balance between Chinese instructional practices and CLT activities, as is evident in the three examples below.

In the first example, Liying struggled to balance her perceived needs to teach vocabulary and to facilitate student communication. Liying defended the vocabulary explaining in her first lesson as "necessary" and "brief" though it lasted more than 20 minutes in which she didn't give students the opportunity to "elaborate" in responding to her IRF questions (Keenan, Reflection 1). In response to my critique of this explaining, Liying designed and implemented a group

activity for discussing St. Patrick's Day vocabulary from a video in her second lesson. Though my feedback noted "This part is a good way to communicatively teach content. Students are engaged in this academic learning," Liying fretted in reflection that she didn't make sure that the students knew "all" the words. For Liying it was important to teach many vocabulary words and for the lesson to effectively ensure that students knew them all. Her beliefs mirrored Peacock's (2001) graduating ELT students at the City University of Hong Kong who concluded that "learning a second language means learning a lot of vocabulary and grammar rules" (p. 186-187). Liying therefore questioned her success in giving the students a meaningful opportunity to discuss vocabulary.

In another case of trying to find balance, Chaoxing felt awkward in implementing a classic information gap in her second lesson. She said, "I prefer talking to students directly. But this time, I spent a lot of time letting them talk. And I am the outsider, so I feel lonely, hehe, in my classroom. So that's maybe why I think I did better last time." Chaoxing felt more comfortable when directly telling students what was important, like teachers in China's classrooms. In enacting a successful CLT lesson, she felt uninvolved and that her role in class work was too small. Chaoxing lacked the professional vision (Goodwin, 1994) to notice that her second lesson was much better than the first for actively engaging the students in language use and learning.

Dilin also thought that more communicative teaching meant that the teacher's role in student learning was too small. His second lesson showed that he was trying to "change…[his] role as a teacher…to…more of a moderator and a facilitator of the class" (Dilin, First Reflection). This was Dilin's first reflection goal after realizing that I didn't approve of teacher-centered instruction. But Dilin was conflicted because he believed that the students didn't use

English well enough to learn from each other in communicative activity. To support this belief in our second reflection, he referenced some research findings I had presented earlier that day for the Chinese Department's lecture series that he had organized and hosted.

Keenan: And, uh, I could see too that you were trying, these activities, they had a student-centered intention. And, um, that you were trying to stand back, too. How did that feel?

Dilin: Well, it feels so, haha, not that tired! You know, I feel, you know from a, people from the East Asian culture is as you know, I do feel, you know, I don't know. If I taught like this in China, I might be fired.

K: Hahaha!

7:01

D: Students might not like me. No, seriously, they might not like me.

K: Yeah. I know you're being serious. Yeah.

D: It's a very serious thing. They are really not learning anything from *you*! You know, as you said before, a lot of Asian students, they don't want to talk to people. That's why you said today in your talk, you said group work didn't work very well in China, because a lot of people think, "Oh, why am I supposed to talk to you?! Well your English is not as good as me." Or, "I want to talk to the native speaker teacher." But today I did let them to learn from each other. I, you know, I kind of think, I know that they do learn a lot from each other. Because, I shouldn't take control all the time: do the lecturing. Because you see some of them, their English is way, way, way high.

While misinterpreting my talk, Dilin showed how he was struggling with the values and practices of two very different activity systems of education. First, he showed professional awareness of Chinese cultural resistance to CLT (Hu, 2002). Implementing CLT in Chinese classrooms can amount to a breach of duty. Dilin was struggling to implement an approach that might get him fired back home. But secondly, he was trying to remain open to the idea that students can "learn from each other" in the communicative practices that Weldon's TESOL program advocated.

These examples show my fourth finding that the student teachers were struggling to weigh the cultural demands of two very different systems of ELT education. Implementing CLT

did not feel right according to their normalized conceptions of teaching from China (Lortie, 1975; Cole & Engestrom, 1993). But they were experimenting with CLT to learn this professional approach and to satisfy practicum demands. They hoped to strike the right balance between home-cultural practices and CLT to be in accord with the values of their future classrooms (Freeman & Johnson, 1998).

Discussion of Part 1

In this examination of practicum lessons and reflective statements, it is evident that the student teachers were drawing on cultural practices from two very different activity systems of education (Gutierrez, 2007). Per the communicative, dialogical Western practices of the Weldon TESOL program (Wong, 2006), as well as CLT influences imported by China (Penner, 1995), I found that student teacher lessons and reflections showed communicative teaching intent. They stated how they wanted students talking to each other and they planned and executed typical CLT activities like role plays and information gaps. Jun and Liying showed professional development in improving CLT implementation through their practicums. Their lessons were prime examples of this study's finding that the student teachers experienced many successes in implementing CLT.

Yet lessons and reflections also demonstrated the finding that the student teachers valued and reproduced common practices from China that oppose the communicative language teaching approach (Hu, 2002). This was most evident at the beginning of practicums when student teachers were largely unaware of the opposition between these practices and this approach. In these beginnings, there was little student communication in large parts of every student teacher lesson. Lectures and explanations of vocabulary, along with some grammar points, exemplified their conception that English language teaching needs to focus on serious study of the English

language before functional, communicative activities. Student teacher lectures and explanations clearly denied students valuable lesson time to communicate per the purposes of their classes. Their focus on teaching language thereby interfered with their communicative teaching intent.[15]

While explaining words and grammar is not unique to a "Chinese culture of learning" (Hu, 2002, p. 93) and is commonly found with novice teachers (Pesce, n.d.),[16] Dilin and Chaoxing attributed their long-winded explanations to habitual practices that they had adopted from China. And just as Cole and Engestrom (1993) find cultural practices to be "robust and enduring," the practices and conceptions of Dilin and Chaoxing were still resistant to CLT practice at the end of their practicums (p. 8).

Through their practicum work, I found that the student teachers were weighing what it means to be a good teacher from the two activity systems that influenced their conceptions of teaching and their practicum practices. They spoke of how awkward it felt to assume the CLT role of a facilitator who sets up activity to then stand back and observe. They worried that students couldn't learn from each other, or couldn't learn enough vocabulary words, without more authoritative and corrective teacher explanations. Yet, they also reflected on their satisfaction when students were talking to each other. This satisfaction demonstrated their communicative teaching intent.

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[15] Supporting this claim, Diane Larsen-Freeman (2000) points out that CLT "emphasizes…language functions…over forms" (p. 131).

[16] Farr (2005) provides an example of how lecturing is not unique to China and is a common problem for beginning teachers. In a post-lesson reflection, she told an Irish student teacher that she had taught like a "muinteoir." This word from the Irish language connotes negative images of "the nineteenth century dictatorial-type headmistress/master armed with cane and never having dreamt of humanistic language teaching" (pp. 219, 222). In making this assessment as a trainer or supervisor, Farr rhetorically asked, "how many times did you ask them [the students] to keep quiet?" And my participants and I witnessed local ESL teachers at the community college in our Southern city lecturing on language and grammar. These examples not only reveal cultural practices, but they also show that "becoming a good teacher is demanding and difficult" regardless of cultural influences (Robert Jimenez, personal communication, January 13, 2019).

To act on this intent and get the students talking to each other in successful CLT activity, I also found that student teachers needed to attend to student interests in lesson planning and implementation. When they did this, they were able to create activities of "explosive interest" for their students (Feedback). However, when they did not attend to student interests, but rather attended to what they thought needed teaching, they experienced problems that interfered with student communication in their classes.

Part 2 examines how we addressed these problems of CLT practice in post-lesson reflections. The examination provides important insights into the processes that drove the uptake of CLT and continued cultural resistance to this foreign approach (Phillipson, 1992; Canagarajah, 1999; Liu, 1998).

Part 2: Post-lesson Dialogue to Solve CLT Problems

Part 2 reports six key findings in response to Research Question 2: *In post-lesson reflections, how did we interact in seeking solutions to problems that interfered with student communication?*

The first key finding is that **(1)** Our biggest disagreements occurred when discussing vocabulary teaching, particularly the student teacher practice of explaining words and phrases. While the student teachers defended this practice, I questioned why it was necessary for their communicatively fluent adult speakers. However, these disagreements challenged participants to reflect on this practice and to consider ways to more communicatively teach language. This finding is reported in the first section of Part 2, *How We Disagreed on Teaching Vocabulary*.

The second important finding for RQ2 was that **(2)** The student teachers and I had very different conceptions of TESOL practice. Our differing conceptions made it difficult for them to identify CLT problems in lesson parts which I had noted in the Minutes and Feedback. The student teachers could identify minor problems and obvious and general problems that interfered with student communication across a lesson, but not less obvious CLT problems occurring in the parts. To identify these CLT problems, they usually needed supervisor assistance.

My third key finding is that **(3)** This supervisor assistance came in a process of dialogue which worked to focus on problematic lesson parts, identify CLT problems, and seek solutions to them. I identified six stages in this process. Each stage had a distinct purpose which constituted a major interactional category of our reflective work. Dialogue through the stages helped to bridge our differing conceptions of TESOL practice. The process and stages are exemplified with first reflection excerpts in the second section, *The Process of Addressing Communicative Problems*.

The fourth key finding is that **(4)** There were many important dialogical moves, skills, and qualities that the student teachers exercised in dialogue. However, I found there were two principal moves that worked to change conceptions of TESOL practice and drive appropriation of new ideas for CLT implementation. These principal moves were (1) responsively following the supervisor or mentor in dialogue and (2) giving the specific fix to a problem of practice and believing in its application for future practice. Evidence for this finding is reported in the third section, *The Dialogical Moves Driving Change*.

The fifth key finding was that **(5)** When we could accomplish the purposes of stages in our process of dialogue, the student teachers appropriated solutions that we had found for implementation in successive lessons. But when we could not accomplish these purposes, the student teachers either did not have a specific fix to employ, or they could not clearly see how a solution that we had found could be applicable in future practice. In these instances, the student teachers had the same reoccurring problems in successive lessons. I report this fifth finding, and the sixth key finding below, in *How Dialogue through the Stages Influenced Appropriation*.

The sixth and concluding finding is that **(6)** The student teachers appropriated many ideas that could be traced from discussion to implementation in practicum Lessons 2 and 3 (Jocius, 2015). This finding supports the sociocultural theory that dialogue drives apprentice learning and appropriation of professional practices in working communities, like the practicum teaching sites of this study (Vygotsky, 1978; Bakhtin, 1981; Rogoff, 1995; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998; Wells, 2000; Bereiter, 1994; Cole & Engestrom, 1993).

A *Conclusion to Part 2* draws on Molly's insight that the mentors and supervisor were giving aligned and reinforcing messages to help student teachers recognize problems and realize the need for change.

How We Disagreed on Vocabulary Teaching

An important finding of this study is that our biggest disagreements occurred when discussing how the participants taught vocabulary. We particularly disagreed on their practice of explaining words and phrases. This topic of biggest disagreement corresponded to how explaining vocabulary was the most reoccurring problem that interfered with student communication across the practicum lessons. In six of the seven lessons, students were largely silenced by lengthy periods of explaining. This explaining was often implemented with PowerPoints, handouts, and the whiteboard.

With every student teacher, disagreements or debates about their vocabulary teaching occurred. They defended teacher-centered vocabulary instruction, while I questioned why they viewed it as necessary for their conversationally fluent, adult students. I thought their vocabulary explanations denied opportunities for student learning in task-based activities, including those for learning vocabulary. In these disagreements, student teachers exhibited the most resistance to change. Most of their references to how their teaching practices came from China also occurred in these discussions. Their references to teaching practices from home and resistance to change are two notable characteristics of what Lortie (1975) terms the apprenticeship of observation.

We had these disagreements because they seemed to share common conceptions of vocabulary teaching, especially as practicums began. It is important to note that Liying and Jun experienced some conceptual change during their practicums, but the language teaching conceptions of Dilin and Chaoxing showed only limited change throughout theirs.

Analyzing participant reflective statements, I found that they thought that explicit, teacher-centered vocabulary instruction was necessary. They believed that many words needed to be taught for the students to perform class activities and function successfully outside of class.

They seemed to be applying a Gaokao teaching mindset to this instruction and regarded it as constituting real learning and serious study (Hu, 2002). They thought it was their duty to answer all student questions, because they questioned whether students could really learn from each other. It became apparent that the lecturing and explaining of vocabulary served to reinforce their conceptions of the teacher's role as the authority on classroom work, knowledge, utterances, and learning (Hu, 2002, 2005; Tang et al., 2012; Cortazzi & Jin, 1996; Tang & Absalom, 1998).

Their pivotal belief in a lack of time shaped these conceptions and constrained conceptual change. They thought they needed to explicitly teach many vocabulary words in a limited amount of lesson time. It was their responsibility to ensure that all the students learned all the words they were teaching, as "it is a teacher's fundamental responsibility to ensure that all students progress satisfactorily" (Hu, 2002, p. 99). They believed that they didn't have enough time to teach enough vocabulary through more communicative activity. Low personal agency beliefs in the ability to manage time constrained budding TESOL practice, as Tang and colleagues (2012) also found. For example, their commitment to teaching vocabulary sometimes made it difficult for student teachers to fully commit to executing communicative activities in their lesson plans. Their beliefs also made it difficult to search for communicative alternatives to explaining in post-lesson reflections. Explaining vocabulary and minor grammar points was indeed a familiar norm of practice that participants were reluctant to change.

This section presents two cases of disagreement on vocabulary teaching that exhibit these conceptions. In the first, Dilin reports how he could not commit to teaching a role play in his lesson plan because he thought that after teaching vocabulary, there wouldn't be enough time for it. In the second case, Chaoxing resisted my persuasive attempts to consider how her vocabulary teaching could have been more communicative. She just didn't think she had the time for more

communicative teaching. Furthermore, she was satisfied in having created the kind of familiar "classroom atmosphere" that she had liked as a student in China.

Dilin's Focus on Using the Language, but Not Activities for its Use

Throughout his practicum, Dilin's focus on students "using the language" that he taught left little time to implement communicative activities. This made it difficult for Dilin to fully commit to teaching activities with communicative potential that were in his lesson plans. It also made it difficult to focus on how these activities could have been made more communicative in our reflections. An example of this dynamic occurred in our first reflection. I attempted to focus Dilin's attention on the communicative potential of his role play. But right before his lesson, Dilin didn't think he had enough time to explain vocabulary and do the role play, too.

K: Right. Now this activity that you had was a role play activity. Now did they get into it, or were they just kind of like lukewarm about it? What do you think?

D: I think it's kind of lukewarm.

K: Lukewarm about it. Alright. Why? Why do you think they were kind of lukewarm about it?

D: I think I did bad planning because I didn't plan to get to that thing. But then I figure I don't have a lot of time you know. Cuz I told Tom and Feng that I'm not going to do the role play. And then when I look at that thing I don't have enough time. I don't want to because you see, I prepare another two questions you know. And I don't want students to talk about the same thing again [and] again, you know. And then I kind of played by ear at that moment. I let them to do the thing, you know like, and they can role play the whole thing. That's kind of improvising.

K: I see, so you were thinking that you weren't going to have the role play in the lesson at all.

D: Yeah. No, I have the idea, but then think that I probably won't have enough time.

Dilin's answer surprised me because I thought his role play had the most communicative potential. I wanted to discuss how this potential could have been realized with better instructions and modelling, so I asked what he thought the most important activity was, figuring he would say it was the role play. But he said that it was in a planned part that he didn't teach: Two

discussion questions that would have given opportunities for students to “use the language by themselves.” He alluded to these questions in the previous excerpt.

When he realized that this did not make sense to me, he tried to take our focus off of any lesson part and turn it to how “The most important part is that they use the word, the language.” This elusiveness frustrated me. It precipitated a disagreement in which I argued that he thought explaining vocabulary was more important than giving communicative opportunities to students.

K: Okay, so they use the words that you were introducing and that you were kind of explaining at the beginning. Okay, in, but in what part of your lesson? See that’s what I’m asking. You had different parts of your lesson. And I *saw* the different parts!

D: The activities.

K: Okay, so which one?

D: I think both activities will be the major part of my lesson plan. Because…[interrupted]

K: You had two group activities. Two activities that you did and one that you didn’t do.

D: It should be the second one.

K: Which is the which one?

D: Which is the role play one. Should be.

K: That is, *that* you think was the most important?

D: Yeah. That *should* be the most important.

K: So then what I’m wondering is why, if you thought that was the most important part of the lesson, why, at the beginning of the lesson were you thinking about taking that part out?

D: Cuz I’m thinking about I don’t have enough time. There’s only like 25 minutes, 30 minutes to just hand out my handout. I need to do things within 30 minutes. So forget about the role play.

K: Okay so for you, explaining the vocabulary was more important than giving them the chance to communicate in the role play, and so you take the role play out? Um…

D: No, I, I..!

K:…and then explain the vocabulary?

D:…I take the role play out, but I want them to discuss the other two questions.

00:54:00

D: See, I replace the role play part with the…

K: But you can only make one choice, Dilin. So it sounds to me like you're still not really sure what the most important part of the lesson was. That's what it kind of sounds like to me.

D: Well, um, I think the important part should be the role play part. Cuz that's about ordering food at a restaurant…

K: Okay.

D:…That's why they came to me.

Though Dilin resisted choosing the most important part of his lesson for practice or reflection, he had effectively chosen to explain vocabulary over giving the students a chance to communicate in an activity. His indecision was due in part to his lack of teacher efficacy in managing time for CLT implementation (Tang et al., 2012).

In finally saying that his most important activity "should be" the role play, Dilin was using language strategically. He was signaling that he didn't believe in this answer, but it was the correct one for this reflection. It would placate his supervisor and help to get through a difficult stage of reflection on a lesson that didn't meet his expectations. I may have confined him to this strategic choice in saying that "I *saw* the different parts" of his lesson. In listening to this passage in a member check, Dilin said "[Your] persistent probing made me rambling and tongue-tied" (Dilin, personal communication, August 14, 2017). This may partially explain why Dilin did not ask questions here for improving practice. His statement in the check also reflects how we had the most disconnect, disagreement, and incomprehension across the reflections (see Table 8).

Nevertheless, our disagreement was not fruitless. In saying "That's why they came to me," Dilin recognized that the students took this class to practice and improve communicative functions to use outside of class, like ordering food in a restaurant. He was affirming what his role should have been in this communicative practicum classroom. And shortly after this, he

announced, “I need to change the role as a teacher. Not as one who do the lecture all the time.” He wanted to become more of “a facilitator,” like Feng, instead of the “boss of the class,” as I reported in Part 1. This was an important concession to CLT which Dilin acted on, particularly in his third lesson. He deferred vocabulary questions to students in whole class discussion, which allowed more student voice, though with only one student talking at a time to the whole class.

Table 8

Instances of Dialogical Moves across Key Passages in First Reflections

Instances of Moves:	Chaoxing	Jun	Dilin	Liying
Observation in agreement	8	12	3	8
Open disagreement or not connecting	0	0	8	6
Supervisor not understanding the ST, Student Teacher	0	2	12	0
ST incomprehension, not recognizing or acknowledging an intertextual reference	2	2	8	0
ST asking questions when not understanding the Supervisor	2	2	0	2

In a member check on these recorded excerpts, which was conducted after he had lived two more years in US university settings, Dilin confirmed even greater understanding of what his role should have been. His statement shows considerable conceptual change.

> *After I listened to the recordings three times, I realized how messed up my lesson plan was. I have been exposed to the communicative language teaching, and peer learning via the interaction during my two years study at Weldon. I thought I understood how CLT and peer learning work and how to incorporate and implement them in my practicum teaching to reflect my fundamental thought on language teaching, and make a difference in students' language learning. However, contrary to my good wishes and*

"different" lesson plans (which were supposed to be communicative and peer-based learning, while I was the facilitator of the class)…my class was…still rigid teacher-centered instruction with a little "fake" communication. I didn't know why back then I was not really delivering what I was supposed to do, which was to enact the communicative and peer learning in the language class that I myself has been advocating for. Now two reasons might be able to account for why: 1. being immersed in the teacher-centered instructions throughout pretty much all my young and college life, it almost become my second nature, which is I always think that teachers and professors are the only authoritative and right source of the knowledge, and the best way to learn is from their direct and explicit instruction, while the peer learning or the class interaction is only playing second fiddle to the teacher instruction, and the role of the group interaction was to repeat and reinforce what the teacher taught. I didn't really think that students could learn from each other which was evidenced from my actual delivery of the class. Second, I did get distracted big time during my last semester at Weldon, juggling between wrap-up my MA study and job interviews, what's worse all the impertinent on campus extracurricular activities stretched me thinner, and left me no time to think carefully and aligned what I have learned from my class with what I should implement in my lesson plan and actual class teaching. I felt bad about myself being not serious enough and hardworking about my practicum teaching. I think that back then I thought teaching was easy, and I had been lazy and not really put in lots of efforts to design a really thought-out lesson plan, which was showed during the reflective sessions with you after the lesson plan. (Dilin, personal communication, August 14, 2017)

Dilin's attempts to make well thought-out lesson plans were impeded by normalized conceptions formed through years of schooling in China. During this immersion, he had come to believe that the teacher was the only authoritative and true source of knowledge. Undoubtedly, this belief made it difficult for him to plan and determine to implement CLT activities.

During our practicum, Dilin had difficulty seeing how his belief in teachers as knowledge givers, and evaluators of student language, interfered with his capacity to consider how to better implement CLT activities. But after listening to our disagreement, Dilin's member check shows awareness of engrained cultural practices and how they interfered with his ability to thoroughly plan CLT activities and commit to their execution. In a time-delayed reaction, our disagreement on vocabulary teaching worked to alter his conceptions of TESOL practice.

Chaoxing's Struggle to Balance Tradition and CLT

With Chaoxing, disagreement on vocabulary teaching practices occurred in our third reflection. Chaoxing was pleased with the pleasant mood of her teacher-centered lesson. In reflection she said, "That's kind of the classroom atmosphere I like when I was a student." But Chaoxing also said that she was happy and satisfied because the students spent parts of it talking to each other. So, toward the end of our third reflection, I asked how she meant to balance these competing conceptions in practice. This question had added import in that Chaoxing had been reluctant to consider having more group work because she thought "it takes longer time." I hoped to coax her toward communicative language teaching practice by suggesting that she could have had students working in pairs, matching cooking verbs (like *slice* and *boil*) to pictures.

K: So maybe if you were doing it again, would you have a little bit more of that?

…[a couple seconds' pause]

C: Umm…

K: Just say *yes*. Hahaha!

C & S: Hahaha!

K: "Sure, Keenan." [imitating Chaoxing being agreeable.]

C: Sure. Sure. [imitating me]

K: Um, but then in all honesty, is your opinion kind of that, you just mentioned before that "Well, you know that takes a lot of time." Um, for what you were doing do you think that kind of the more teacher-centered way that you were doing it is best. Or do you think more group work type of thing is best?...

C: Yeah.

K:…Or a certain combination? What is your opinion on that? In all honesty.

37:59

C: Um. Group work with teacher instruction. Combined together. Yeah.

K: Um huh. What's the right balance on that do you think, like in terms of minutes or something? Or, I don't know.

C: …[a few seconds' pause] Um. Two to one, group to teacher. Two to one.

This ratio, though, was something that Chaoxing tended to resist. Her bonds to home cultural practices in a teacher-centered role were strong and yielded satisfaction. She did not fully agree that her vocabulary teaching was a problem. Chaoxing was more focused on her success in creating a pleasant atmosphere for her students. She only reluctantly engaged in the search for more communicative vocabulary teaching activities during our reflection. Shuang and I more enthusiastically engaged in this search. However, Shuang agreed with Chaoxing that "it takes longer time" to implement a communicative vocabulary activity. To their opposition I eventually remarked, "But you gotta remember it took 40 minutes to do what you were doing. It might take less time" to implement CLT. But Chaoxing seemed unconvinced. And neither communicative activities nor teacher-centered activities could have quickly covered the 120+ words that she had tried to teach in Lesson 3. Like all four student teachers at the beginning of practicums, she was still trying to teach too many words.

Nonetheless, the influences of our Weldon TESOL program had also led her to believe that teacher-centered practices were not the best for language learning. When we were ready to sign the Minute and Feedback forms, Chaoxing shared the final reflective thought that she really hadn't wanted to do so much teacher talk, but that she didn't know how to implement better practices yet.

C: Yeah. I think that's why Molly asked us to do this teaching vocabulary thing. Because, because, when I got this task, I was thinking back into my learning experience. And all I can come up with is the teacher standing, talking, giving definitions, doing grammar exercises…

K: Sure.

C:…So it's really hard to do the teaching and ask students to [get] actively engaged in. Yeah.

K: It's hard to, it's kind of hard to break out of that mode?

C: Yeah. I hate to be the only one who is talking in the class. It's kind of stupid because if there's no feedback, reaction, it[s] kind of dull. And the students will soon get bored…

K: Um huh.

C:…So…sigh. Yeah, I think it's good to try out some plans in my mind to see whether it works or not. And I can do, tailor something… Change the form or yeah…

K: Oh, in…in future teaching?

C:…Yeah. By having more group discussion or group learning.

K: Uh huh. Yeah.

C: Yeah.

47:25

K: But when you got this lesson, your first, you kind of, and you were under time pressure, too…

C: Yeah!

K:…And so your first thought is kind of like, well you…

C: I know that teacher-centered instruction is totally a bad idea. But that's all I have learned from my, ugh, learning experience.

Chaoxing's statements show how she was still learning the professional practices of TESOL, like how to implement pair and group work in vocabulary learning activities. In only the first of her two years in our program, she obviously had more to learn about language instruction. Yet, her vocabulary teaching practices resembled those of the other participants. And Molly and I viewed her practicum experience as representative of the six Chinese student teachers that we mentored and supervised in her classroom, four of whom were finishing their second years (Molly, personal communication, March 23, 2015). Our assessment and Chaoxing's statements demonstrate how difficult it is for a Western TESOL program to bridge differences in conceptions and practices that student teachers bring from a Chinese system of English education which they strongly favor (Engestrom, 1987; Cole & Engestrom, 1993).

Discussion

Like teachers in China, my student teachers believed that their students needed to learn many vocabulary words and that a lack of time prevented the implementation of communicative activities for students to use these words (Qi, 2005; Li, 2010; Tang et al., 2012; Fang & Clark, 2014; Edwards & Tsui, 2009; Peacock, 2001). It was difficult for them to commit to teaching communicative activities, and it was also difficult for them to reflect on how vocabulary teaching could have been more communicative. These dynamics led to disagreements and debates on the cultural practice of explaining vocabulary and grammar (Hu, 2002, 2005). While they believed this explicit instruction was necessary, I argued that it prevented students from learning through CLT activities.

But I found that our disagreements and debates spurred student teachers to reflect on normalized cultural practices that they had taken for granted. These challenges resulted in change (Ball, 2000, 2009; Bakhtin, 1981). Through our disagreement, Dilin realized that his charismatic

role did not align with the facilitative role required for allowing more student voice in his lessons. He determined to become more of a facilitator rather than "the boss of the class" (Dilin, Reflection 1). Chaoxing realized that her teacher-centered vocabulary lesson was not aligned with the communicative practices that Weldon advocated. She determined to try more group discussion in continuing practice. Disagreement with Jun helped him understand that pre-teaching vocabulary was often unnecessary and to drop it from his second and third lessons. And debate with Liying allowed her to hear my perspective that her vocabulary teaching was not brief, that it denied students opportunities to elaborate, and that she needed to find more communicative ways to teach vocabulary.

These findings suggest that trainers hoping to influence the TESOL practice of Chinese student teachers may also have to challenge their beliefs on vocabulary teaching. It is not unlikely that they encounter the strong resistance to change that my student teachers exhibited, as cultural practices are highly resistant to change (Cole & Engestrom, 1993; Lortie, 1975).

The Process of Addressing Communicative Problems

The previous section demonstrates how the student teachers and I had very different conceptions of language teaching. These differences not only led to disagreements, but they also made it difficult to identify problems in lesson parts that interfered with student communication. To bridge these differences and identify problems, I found that our dialogue progressed through stages: We built knowledge of the lesson through assessments, to eventually focus on a problematic lesson part, to then agree upon the problem therein, and afterwards search for

solutions to it. Through incident to incident coding (Charmaz, 2006), I identified six stages in this process of progressive dialogue.[17]

(1) Opening Assessments on the Lesson

(2) Building Assessments

(3) Focusing on a Problematic Part

(4) Agreeing on the Problem

(5) Searching for a Solution, or a Redo-Fix

(6) Supervisor Coaching of the Redo-Fix

These stages were major interactional categories in the process of our dialogical work. Each stage was distinguished by an active purpose to which our discussion was directed. For example, the purpose of Stage 3 was for us to mutually achieve focus on a problematic lesson part. When we were able to achieve this focus, I found that our purpose turned to identifying and finding agreement on a problem in that part, Stage 4. And when agreement was reached, I almost always turned discussion to the purpose of searching for a solution in Stage 5 work.

After having segmented the transcripts to delineate our purposes in stages of dialogue, I considered our collaborative success in meeting the purposes of each stage. I found that to progress to a next stage of dialogue and successfully complete its purpose, we generally had to have collaborative success in completing the previous stage of dialogue. This was evident in the disagreement with Dilin highlighted in the previous section. We couldn't focus on a lesson part because Dilin wouldn't choose one that was most important to his lesson. With no focus on a part, there was no problem on which we could agree.

[17] My term *progressive dialogue* is a derivation of Bereiter's (1994) *progressive discourse*. Wells (2000, p. 72-73) reports that progressive discourse is "the process by which the sharing, questioning, and revising of opinions leads to 'a new understanding that everyone involved agrees is superior to their own previous understanding'" (Bereiter, 1994, p. 6). My term describing the dialogical process found in this study also employs this definition.

Statements from Molly in our post-practicum interview revealed that she also sought focus and agreement with student teachers on CLT problems when searching for solutions (see the Conclusion to Part 2). But the findings reported in this section are particular to interactions between this sample of participants and the researcher. I made no attempt to link this finding to other trainer/trainee patterns or processes that may exist in the literature. It is important to note that patterns of dialogue are likely to differ with other trainers and TESOL trainees in post-lesson reflections.

In this section, the interactions that are characteristic of each stage of dialogical work with this sample is presented with an example. Through these examples, I identify dialogical skills that were important for appropriating CLT practices.

Stage 1: Opening Assessments on the Lesson

Almost all recordings of post-lesson reflections began with me asking the student teachers how they thought their lessons went. My language and tone could be characterized as warm, open, and receptive. To begin our first reflection, I asked Liying, “Well, how do you think it went?” Receptive questions like these allowed the student teachers to open our reflections with whatever thoughts were foremost on their minds.

These thoughts are what I refer to as *opening assessments* or *open assessments*. An *assessment* is a broad category of opinion on a lesson that could include observations, evidence, evaluations, teacher thinking, applied principles, and reasons for occurrences. With their opening assessments, the student teachers were choosing dialogical text to which we could react and share thoughts to begin collaborative processes.

In opening assessments, student teachers were forthcoming and shared at least a paragraph of thought. They voiced their thoughts passionately, showing there was much that they

wanted to discuss about their stimulating experiences. This is evident in Dilin's opening assessment of our first reflection, which began after we finished reflecting on Feng's lesson.

K:…Let's focus a little more on your lesson. We talked about it a little bit. Tell me some more of your thoughts that have come up.

D: My lesson didn't work out as I think. It, um, I think I didn't plan it very well, especially for the vocabulary part. I didn't have a very good lead-in, even though I present them with this menu that they can refer to, they have no idea what the word means. And the menu will be too complicated for them. I should have adapted to make it a little bit easier. Because I'm picking, I'm choose the menu that is a Mediterranean restaurant, which a lot of them, they haven't been there. So there's a lot of kind of text on the menu, you know. I can see that when I give them the menu everybody's kind of get bogged down to the menu. And there was kind of, you know, asking each other, or trying to check it online, check it on the internet to figure out what does that word mean…

K: Um huh.

D:…You know it's kind of become a distraction from what I really want them to know, because I just want to use the menu as realia, you know, as we read it from the textbook. Just they can turn to use that thing to help facilitate my, kind of prompt to help my activity. But they kind of become a distraction for them.

K: I see, so you'd adapt it and…

D: I should have adapted it…

K:…and made it a little bit simpler.

D:…simpler. It's too complicated.

K: Okay.

In his opening assessment, Dilin focused on the obvious problem that students didn't know the many foreign words on the Mediterranean restaurant menu. He offered observations, evidence, evaluations, teacher thinking, an applied principle (realia), and reasons for this occurrence.

He successfully identified an obvious CLT problem that had a general effect on his whole lesson. He also offered a general solution which I agreed upon by empathetically stating, "I see." This example shows how it was possible to accomplish reflective purposes quickly with limited

dialogical text. But I found that this was only the case with obvious and general problems and not less obvious problems in distinct parts of lessons.

Dilin represented the sample of participants in immediately addressing a problem in his opening assessment. In most of the 12 opening assessments, student teachers began our reflections by talking about perceived problems, even when no CLT problems existed in their lessons. In Reflection 2, Liying immediately addressed a vocabulary teaching problem though I thought her practice was sound. The sample's focus on problems was a curious circumstance because in orientation, the practicum was presented as a positive opportunity to implement TESOL program learnings.

Student teacher opening assessments in all seven lessons with CLT problems began with their identification of at least one problem. This suggests that they had awareness of serious communicative problems affecting their lessons. However, they identified either *minor* problems which had little effect on the lesson or *obvious and general* problems that were evident throughout the lesson (see Table 9). They usually did not identify problems in specific lesson parts. This necessitated our progressive, collaborative dialogue through stages to identify these less obvious problems and then search for solutions. The step-by-step progression through the stages allowed them to follow my references and foreign TESOL conceptions so that they could slowly come to deeper realizations without getting lost along the dialogical path

Table 9

Problems that Student Teachers Discussed in Opening Assessments

Student Teacher Reflection	ST Discussed Problem/s	Type of Problem
Chaoxing Ref. 1	"answering questions immediately."	Minor
Jun Ref. 1	"Lecturing…little communication…Some of them…are used to [the] words. And some of them didn't get it."	Obvious and General and Minor
Dilin Ref. 1	"didn't plan it very well, especially for the vocabulary part… didn't have a very good lead-in…Mediterranean Restaurant menu was "too complicated…they have no idea what the word[s] means."	Obvious and General on 2 counts and Minor
Liying Ref. 1	Fred took the projector down; couldn't use it for directions.	Minor
Dilin Ref. 2	No lead-in to the activity. Abrupt beginning.	Minor
Dilin Ref. 3	"Awkward" beginning: "Don't really know how to lead the students in."	Minor
Chaoxing Ref. 3	Molly couldn't copy and print 10 pages of vocabulary words for each student	Minor

Stage 2: Building Assessments

I delineated my responses to opening assessments as the beginning of Stage 2. In this stage, too, the student teachers were the leading dialogic actors. I was primarily a "nondirective" (Freeman, 1990, p. 112) listener who responded with, questions, observations, interpretations, limited assessments, and encouragement for them to say more. They responded by further building assessments with observations, interpretations, evidence, and principles. Knowledge built was often about who students were, what they did, the effects of teacher moves, the material the student teacher used, the reasons and interpretations for these things, and our questions surrounding them. Student teachers were voicing their conceptions of what had occurred in their lessons and I was coming to an understanding of these, while also beginning to shape their perceptions.

The excerpt below shows Jun's opening assessment in our first lesson reflection, and how I began our Stage 2 work by asking a question that worked to shape Jun's perception.

Keenan: What are some of your impressions?

Jun: Ah, to be honest, I feel it's really terrible. And I didn't see much interaction between the students. And because it was just me who was there lecturing, lecturing, lecturing. And there still wasn't much communications between the students. And another problem I think is that for some of them they might think they are used to [the] words. And some of them didn't get it.

Keenan: Uh huh, so some of them feel bored?

Jun: Some of them feel boring and some of them didn't get it.

K: Well do you know if they got it or didn't get it?

J: I think I can because someone started getting on their electronic devices and…

My question on "bored" students added a potential, interpretative element to the student state. By agreeing with and appropriating this interpretation, Jun and I built an assessment of this state. My second question implied that bored students was a bigger problem than students not understanding vocabulary. This question also had the potential to shape perception.

Assessments that we built in Stage 2 could be used to deepen understanding. For example, Jun used "bored" at the 11:30 mark of our reflection to more definitely position the students in two camps: "some of them got bored and some of them got confusion."

Student teachers could also use assessments as building blocks for identifying problems and seeking help. At the 33:20 mark, Jun used "bored" students to trouble over the problem that diverse student language levels posed for him. I responded with advice that I hoped would help.

J: And because especially when I was teaching…it is a small size class, but the language levels [are] diverse. I'm not sure who gets it and who didn't and who got bored and who got confusion.

K: Okay, well, if they don't get it during an activity, who can help them get it?

J: Themselves. [Evenly, matter of factly.]

K: Yeah, the other students, so, yeah, so in the activity, yeah, they can help each other.

J: Yes, and but, uh, one of the Japanese students asked a question, if I vacuumed the floor and the other student answered, "No, I will do it." And I think that's a problem. Maybe because strictly following, maybe she's referring to the script, to the answers I prepared for them. And instead of saying the language, she just said, "No I will do it." And it wasn't really focusing on…the question of the classmate.

K: Um huh. Now, um, one of the things that came up when you were doing the lesson planning was that you had a language SWBAT but you didn't have any…

J: Content.

K: Yeah, you didn't have any content or, um, functional SWBAT. And it seems to me like your focus in thinking about this lesson is so oriented on the grammar.

J: …Yes. [Said after a long pause.]

K: It seems like it's so oriented on the grammar. And it seems to me that that might be preventing you from creating natural, communicative, English classes.

J: It's because I was using the fake examples on the final list [of phrases and sentences on the handout]. It is not the things they actually did before [in the conversation with the classmate].

K: Uh huh.

As these two excerpts show, our construction of *bored* students was a building block for shaping perceptions, deepening an understanding, and identifying a teaching problem. This construction played a small role in helping us identify a broader lesson problem: a focus on language, not functions.

Assessments that student teachers built with my limited input in Stage 2, helped them voice a general understanding of what had occurred in their lessons. But they were usually unable to continue leading our discussion to identify student communication problems in lesson parts.

Stage 3: Focusing on a Problematic Part

While leading our dialogical interactions through Stage 2, student teachers were able to

see obvious and general communication problems and we were able to build a mutual understanding of the lesson. However, professional vision was usually needed to “highlight” CLT problems in certain lesson parts that I had noted in the Minutes and Feedback (Goodwin, 1994, p. 606).

To focus discussion on these parts, I made two types of references. I often referenced what student teachers had just said in assessments. My references functioned to maintain the flow of conversation, while also changing the topic to these parts. I also referenced the textual authority of the Minutes and Feedback (Bloome & Egan-Robertson, 1993).

Despite these references, it was difficult for student teachers to focus on problematic lesson parts. Achieving focus with Chaoxing involved a winding dialogical process. She did not initially recognize that my reference to the students having a lot of questions was about the questions that students asked about her role play. She thought I was still talking about the minor problem of answering every student question, which I thought we had solved. Our dialogue turned back to this minor problem and then another digression before we could achieve focus on the role play. Jun and I moved in fits and starts toward focus on how his lesson had no communicative activity. While Jun immediately addressed communication as a problem, he was fixated on problems he thought the students had with vocabulary comprehension and continually referred back to this topic. It took numerous attempts to turn Jun’s attention to the problem of communicative activity. And previously I showed how my attempt to focus Dilin’s attention on a role play broke down. We were unable to focus on a problematic part to agree on a problem.

Achieving focus with Liying, however, was seamless. I referenced the Minutes to turn our attention to the first 23 minutes of her lesson in which she was teaching vocabulary. She

recognized that I was initiating focus on a part that could be considered problematic. Then she quickly addressed my concerns.

00:27:59

Keenan: Now, but that part with Albert was – uh, and the students enjoyed that, they laughed and they liked that, and this was like a little performance and stuff – but that was 23 minutes into your lesson…

Liying: Um huh.

K:…so let's talk about the beginning of the lesson. What about the beginning of the lesson?

L: Um…Yeah, um…

K: It's hard to remember. Hahaha [laughing to lighten any feelings of uncomfortableness]

L:…I think I did like the introduction was okay, and very brief, brief, and uh, but the words I wrote was a little bit too, like, not very, um, I was trying to make the, like the conceptual map, or the word cloud, something like the word map or something. So like one cluster, one cluster, one cluster. But I like wrote it everywhere, so I think that was a little bit… [doesn't finish the sentence] But that's okay I think. And, uh, and I think it's really necessary to provide the pictures, uh, for them because they can really think of, for example the swimming pool. They didn't think of that. But I showed them the picture…

K: That's interesting.

00:29:22

L:… You know, "Ah, the swimming pool! Yeah, yeah, yeah! And the sauna," or something. [quoting student voices.] Um…

K: Maybe they come from cultures that are a little bit more traditional. And you know they don't just change into their swimming suit…

L: Yeah. And the… Uh, what's the last, the next one…? Ah! I was explaining, uh, I think the explanation, I don't like to talk too much, but I think the explanation is necessary for them. Like the other handout I gave them. Like the room, the types of room, and types of accommodation. And, and, yeah.

K: Okay. Uh, why do you think that was necessary?

L: Um…

K: Why do you think it was necessary for you to explain it?

In this passage, Liying first verbalized her observations so she could gain dialogical "control" over the events in this lesson part to then assess them (Frawley & Lantolf, 1985, p. 22). She also recognized that my purpose in initiating focus on this part may have been to consider something problematic, her "explaining." Next, she showed communicative teaching intent in stating, "I don't like to talk too much…" Afterwards, Liying expressed an opinion or position that could be assessed, questioned, challenged, confirmed, or disconfirmed (Bereiter, 1994; Wells, 2000). It gave me an opportunity to advance our dialogue by inquiring more deeply into her belief that explaining was necessary.

In this two-minute nine-second stretch of dialogue we were now both clearly focused on a potentially problematic part of her lesson for discussion: her explaining of vocabulary. We then moved to the Stage 4 work of trying to agree on whether her explanation was necessary. Our work for agreement constituted a debate.

Stage 4: Agreeing on the Problem

Agreeing on a problem involved several different abilities. One was being able to establish and maintain focus on the problematic part to *reconstruct* what had occurred (John-Steiner & Meehan, 2000, p. 35). When focus was lost with a digression, which proved to be a frequent occurrence, it involved being able to get back on topic. Our observations and assessments had to align to agree upon a problem. When they didn't, negotiation was necessary to find mutual agreement. And even when our observations agreed, achieving alignment was not easy because we had different views of student behavior.

After agreeing on what student behavior indicated a problem, dialogue showed that we then considered what had caused it. Because the students in practicum classes were polite and

followed teacher leadership,[18] finding agreement involved identifying how student teacher moves had resulted in limited class communication.

Analysis revealed differences in dialogue for this agreement. Jun and I achieved easy agreement by collaboratively building on each other's thoughts and lesson assessments. Liying and I engaged in a struggle for ideological hegemony to find agreement on her vocabulary teaching. But Stage 4 work is best illustrated by a comparison on the differences between Chaoxing and Dilin in reconstructing problematic parts of their lessons.

Differences between Chaoxing and Dilin in Reconstructing Lesson Parts

As mentioned Dilin and I could not focus or agree on the most important part of his first lesson. In an illuminating contrast, Chaoxing had the same problem with unclear instructions in a role play but negotiated our dialogue quite differently. She agreed that her instructions were a problem at the very beginning of the activity, but then assessed that she had fixed this problem by repeating and clarifying her instructions.

K: Um. Okay. Okay. Do you think the students really understood what they were supposed to do, or do you think that you could have given clearer instructions?

00:09:25

C: Yeah! That is one thing that I missed, because I realized it when the woman in this part? Yeah, she asked me, what, after she read the little piece, she asked, "What are we going to do? What are we supposed to do?" And I realized, 'Oh my gosh. I forgot.' And I explained to her, and I think the other students may have heard what I said. So the others can kind of just go into the activity.

In this excerpt, Chaoxing minimized the extent of a problem with instructions by suggesting that the students got into the role play after she repaired her instructions. Yet my Minutes show that this was certainly not the case. She had "silent," "quiet," and "tuned out" students who continued

[18] In first reflections, Jun and Liying agreed with my opinion that the students were "polite." Liying agreed with my opinion that her students "follow the teacher's rules." In contrast, Hong Kong students in Gan's (2013) study did not follow their student teachers and thereby created classroom managements problems for them.

to “ask questions while” she continued to “explain” instructions throughout the activity (Minutes).

But unlike Dilin, who gave short cryptic answers when I initiated focus on problems, Chaoxing continued assessing to reconstruct what had occurred in her lesson (John-Steiner & Meehan, 2000). By doing so, she observed that the Japanese student who came late, did not know what to do.

C: And, uh, and the Japanese girl…She, I think because of her English proficiency, she didn’t really understand the transcript. So, so actually it was not a conversation between her and the partner…

K: Um huh.

C:… It’s kind of like I’m explaining things: what kind of situation is here.

Chaoxing had now dialogically reconstructed her role play to realize that the Japanese student did not play roles with her partner. I could agree with this assessment and then understandingly add my observation that it was like that for most of the students, “The students spent a lot of time looking at their cards and not talking to each other.” Chaoxing concurred with this by adding, “And then time’s up,” followed by another regretful “Yeah.”

Through our “joint activity” of reconstruction (John-Steiner & Meehan, 2000, p.37), we now clearly agreed that the students didn’t know what to do. It was obvious to us that instructions were lacking. Having completed the purpose of this stage, we could now turn our attention to finding a solution for application in future lessons.

Dialogue with Dilin offered a study in contrast. Because we were unable to focus on his role play to work towards agreement on how it was a problematic lesson part for students, he never did such reconstruction. Thereby, he did not fully realize that student quietness in this activity may have had to do with his lack of instructions. So late in our reflection when I yet tried

to initiate a search for a fix to this problem (see Instance 10 in Table 10), Dilin's proposed solution was to "give them more freedom," even though the students had too little guidance to begin with. Shortly thereafter, he said, "They had pretty good interaction." Because Dilin had not followed my leads, he had not reconstructed this part to see that they had very little interaction. However, from his perspective, they likely had more interaction than the students in his technical college classes in China. This increased interaction, too, demonstrated his communicative intent.

But compared to Dilin, Chaoxing tried harder to recognize my references and those of her classmate Shuang. She more fully gave her own assessments (which essentially informed herself, a sign of teacher development). She reflected honestly. And she trusted that mistakes were for learning and nothing of which to be ashamed, because she was trying her best. She was "open to wondering and puzzlement, and trying to construct and test explanations of the phenomena" of her lesson (Wells, 2000, p. 63). She was willing to follow the dialogical leads of her supervisor and willingly, even pro-actively, proposed solutions to problems of practice. These abilities and qualities were essential for agreement on problems and the search for solutions. But in key stages of dialogical work, Dilin was unable to exercise these abilities and qualities, which made it difficult for us to focus, agree, and find solutions to communicative language teaching problems.

Stage 5: Searching for a Solution, or a Redo-Fix

Immediately after agreeing on a problem, I usually turned our topic to a search for a solution, or a redo-fix. From first lesson reflection recordings and transcripts, I identified 11 instances when this turn was initiated (see Table 10). I initiated it in 10 of these instances and Feng initiated it in one by questioning how a teacher could use "a student-oriented way to explain vocabulary" (refer to Instance 8). Table 10 shows instances, problems, initiation questions, and the semantic time-frame of the initiation question.

Table 10

Searching for a Solution or a Redo-Fix: Instances, Problems, Initiations, & Time Frame

Instance #	ST & Time	Problem	Initiation Question to Search for a Solution	Time-frame of Initiation Question
1	Chaoxing 3:40	Instantly Answering Questions	**K**: If you were doing it again, how would you have done it?	Redo
2	Chaoxing 11:00	No modelling of the role play	**K**: What would you try to do differently to get them to play roles?	Redo or Next Time
3	Chaoxing 13:30	2nd Attempt. No modelling of the role play	**K**: But the students were just staying in their seats. Is there anything different you might do… like knock on the door or something like that?	Next Time
4	Chaoxing 16:01	Reading a Handout with phrases	**K**: Would you do that the same way next time, or would you try anything a little differently?	Next Time
5	Chaoxing 21:00	Unclear Instruction for the Role Play	**C:** So they shouldn't know the other partner's card. K: Yeah, so to prevent that next time...what would you do?	Next Time
6	Jun 15:15	No CLT Activity. We make role play.	**K**: So let's say you were doing this lesson again... And let's say you decided…'Okay, I'm gonna have them do role plays with a waiter and um, customers at a restaurant.' How would you set it up? **J**: What do you mean by 'setting it up?'	Next Time
7	Jun 36:25	No CLT Activity. We make a simple fix.	**K**: Okay, so let's say you just forgot about the grammar. What do you think you could have done just very simply to have a good communicative lesson?	Redo
8	Dilin 14:45	Explaining Vocabulary	**F**: So what would it be like if you used a student-oriented way to explain vocabulary? **K**: Or to, or to, teach vocabulary… Yeah, now that's a good question! Do you guys have any answers for that? I'm glad that you asked that question.	Anytime
9	Dilin 46:00	Grouping problem	**K**:…so that was the wrap-up. How could that have been made so the students actually paid attention to the ones that were demonstrating how they did it? How could that have been made more interesting?	Redo

10	Dilin 1:07:00	Unclear Instructions, No Modelling	**K**: Now another thing is that when we do a role play, how do we get the students more involved in the role?	Anytime
11	Liying 37:00	Explaining Vocabulary	**K**: Um huh. So my question is…, 'Can you make a communicative vocabulary lesson next time?' [I read this from feedback.]	Next Time

My initiation questions were embedded in three different time-frames that had nuanced meanings: what could have been done differently (*Redo* in Table 10), what a CLT teacher does habitually (*Anytime*), or what can be done in the future (*Next Time*). *Redo* questions are what Roese and Olsen (1995) refer to as "upward counterfactuals" (p. 620). These asked for "reconstructions of past [lesson] outcomes" that were "controllable" and could have easily been avoided (p. 620). My question to Jun in Instance 7 of Table 10 is an example. I asked what he "could have done just very simply to have [had] a good communicative lesson." *Anytime* questions in Table 10 asked what ESL teachers habitually do in a given situation. They framed discussion in the professional practices of teachers and sought to include student teachers like Dilin in this community (Instance 10). *Next Time* questions asked what the teacher would or can do differently in the future. These questions served to create an activity not found in the lesson, to avoid further disagreement, or to quickly get to the point in problem solving, as Chaoxing's proactive attitude allowed. Through these three question types, I was "directive" in asking students to engage in a search for "alternatives" (Freeman, 1990, p. 112).

Initiation questions marked a sudden turn in the purpose of our dialogue: from finding agreement to searching for a solution. Though I asked these questions naturally, the student teachers were usually surprised by them and silence often followed. In four of the eleven cases, the student teachers paused and didn't know how to respond. It was difficult to suddenly think of fixes for problems. In reaction to these pauses, I asked three of the student teachers if they remembered program instruction on how to teach the activity in question more communicatively.

But they could not easily recall such teaching in these busy moments and I excused them from fault. In these three instances I did not have familiarity with applicable class instruction either.

Table 11 shows whether student teachers initially had an idea for a solution. It also shows whether I recognized that idea as a fix. When I did not recognize an idea, I usually scaffolded dialogue toward viable CLT solutions through a series of leading questions, or Socratic questioning. These questions were aimed at finding specific fixes to problems. Recordings show that I asked the student teachers to tell me exactly what they would say or do if they were teaching the lesson again. From numerous examples of this across the recordings, it is evident that for me, finding workable solutions to problems meant saying the specific words, doing the specific things, or verbally spelling out exactly what to do. Chaoxing, Jun, and Liying followed me in giving these specifics. But generally, Dilin only did so only under the external authority of my repeated questioning (Bakhtin, 1981).

Table 11

Student Teacher (ST) Fix Idea, Supervisor Recognition, Amount of Scaffolding, Fix Type

In-stance #	ST & Time	Problem	ST initially states No Idea or has an Idea	I (Superv.) Recognized initial Idea as a Fix	Heavy or Light Scaf-folding	Type of Fix: By ST, Coached, or Joint
1	Chaoxing 3:40	Instantly Answering Questions	Idea	Recognized	Light	ST Fix
2	Chaoxing 11:00	No modelling of the role play	No Idea		Shuang proposed Fixing Role Play Cards. We digress to fixing these.	
3	Chaoxing 13:30	2nd Attempt No modelling of role play	Idea	Recognized	Heavy	Joint Fix
4	Chaoxing 16:01	Reading a Handout with Phrases.	No Idea		Light	Not Fixed + No Coached Fix
5	Chaoxing 21:00	Unclear Instructions for the Role Play	Idea	Recognized	Light	ST Fix
6	Jun 15:15	No CLT Activity. We make role play.	No Idea		Heavy	Joint Fix with Coaching
7	Jun 36:25	No CLT Activity. We make simple fix.	Idea	Did not Recognize	Heavy	ST Fix
8	Dilin 14:45	Explaining Vocabulary	Idea	Did not Recognize	Heavy	Coached Fixes
9	Dilin 46:00	Grouping problem	Idea	Recognized	Heavy	ST Fix
10	Dilin 1:07:00	Unclear Instructions, No Modelling	Idea for Instructions	Did not Recognize	Heavy	Instructions: ST Fix. Modelling: Coached Fix.
11	Liying 37:00	Explaining Vocabulary	Idea	Recognized but I asked for more.	Light and Heavy	ST Fix: Light. Coached: Heavy.

The sixth column of Table 11 shows whether I provided heavy or light scaffolding in our search for viable CLT fixes. I defined heavy scaffolding as me asking many questions or making many leading statements, and I defined light scaffolding as not having done much of either. As

Table 11 shows, I provided heavy scaffolding in this stage. The line between this scaffolding and coaching is blurry.

The final column of Table 11 shows whether we found a recognized fix to the problem and how the problem was fixed. *ST Fix* means that the student teacher came up with the fix. *Joint Fix* means that we came up with the fix together through heavier scaffolding. *Coached Fix* means that I gave the student teacher a fix through coaching.

Student teachers appropriated and applied some of these fixes in future lessons. They favored the appropriation of fixes that closely applied to the phenomena of their first lessons (Wells 2000). It was probably easier to envision implementing these.

I regarded the primary purpose of Stage 5 as engaging in the search for a solution, not necessarily find one, because when student teachers were unable to find a fix in Stage 5, I would usually coach one in Stage 6. An engaged spirit of inquiry was necessary to consider new teaching ideas in both stages and to keep our dialogue moving (Wells, 2000).

And finally, I identified different outcomes and characteristics of student teacher work in Stage 5. Liying efficiently appropriated her own fix and my coached idea to create a communicative vocabulary activity for her second lesson. Chaoxing eagerly sought solutions. Dilin wanted to redo his first and second lessons; he did not fully engage in dialogue for fixes. Instead of focusing on solutions to problems, he tended to make excuses for them. And Jun puzzled over problems to crack the CLT code on how to make communicative lessons. Below, I exhibit the excerpt which allowed Jun to understand that he could simply group students for discussion on meaningful topics related to their lives.

Jun: Puzzling Over Problems to Crack the CLT Code

Despite realizing that students could learn vocabulary by “themselves” and that he didn’t

have any content objectives in his lesson plan, Jun continued to fret about students not understanding the vocabulary or grammar. In response, I initiated the dialogue that helped him crack the CLT code with this redo-fix question: “Okay, so let’s say you just forgot about the grammar. What do you think you could have done just very simply to have a good communicative lesson?” (Table 10, Instance 7). Jun’s initial idea for a fix was to bring in a light bulb. I didn’t recognize this as a fix for communication. However, with encouragement to keep thinking, and then rather heavy scaffolding, he came up with a simple solution that we recognized as viable for creating a communicative lesson, as is evident in this excerpt.

J: Maybe [I] just ask [the students], “What would you do in this situation? What will you want this thing to be done? How would you say it?”

K: Okay. But then you’re controlling what the problem is, right?

J: Yes.

K: Okay, so that takes away some of their freedom.

J: Yeah.

K: How about going back to the very beginning of your lesson? Like if we go back to the very beginning of your lesson, how did you introduce that?... [4 second pause]. What was the first thing you started talking about?

J: Me? Or after that part?

K: Well yeah, in the very first thing you talked about having what?

J: One of my own personal problems.

K: Problems, right. Okay so from right there, how could you have had the students talking together in small groups and still talking about household problems? How could you have done that?

J: Um, I asked them to share…I asked them to share some of their experiences. Uh, they were not very active.

K: How could you have made them more active?

J: If they are not telling this to the whole class.

K: Okay. If instead of telling it to the whole class, they were…?

J: Talking together and sharing this piece of information between two or three people.

K: Ah ha! Okay… Alright. Okay. Now, there, that would have made it communicative right away.

J: It's because I think that the setting of this class is really informal, but it's still happening in the classroom, so I didn't realize that just asking this might put them on the spot to tell one thing about themselves to the whole class. And yes, if I paired them up and if I asked them to share with the students…that would have helped them start talking. And after that if someone would be willing to do it, he or she can share their story to the whole class, like, because I realized I actually squeezed some of their responses, like the spider one, like the fire alarm one. I squeezed them. I actually, by pointing at the Korean student if she is being willing to share, and I think that's one fault. That's one fault, that's one fault of their being not communicating.

In this excerpt, the supervisor asked nine leading questions and made one interpretation of Jun's assessment to help him focus on what he could have changed to have achieved a communicative lesson. These 10 scaffolds constitute heavy scaffolding (see Instance 7, Table 11), but drew on Jun's previously stated desire to have the students actively communicating in groups. These questions practically gave Jun the answer. They demonstrate the fine line between scaffolding and coaching. However, Jun showed dialogic skill in following and responding to them. Our chain of responses therefore led Jun to his verbalized fix in a short period.

After I excitedly shared my recognition of Jun's idea, he made a full verbal assessment of how it would have eliminated the way he "squeezed some of their responses" – a picturesque metaphor of teacher control. He acknowledged that this fix would have "helped them start talking." It would have eliminated his frustration at how the students were so quiet and how he had filled this by lecturing. Jun believed in this specific fix of pairing students for future practice.

With this solution to pair students to "help them start talking," Jun had cracked the CLT code. In observing his second and third lessons, I was very surprised to find that he used this specific idea as a template for beginning these very communicative lessons. However, as the

Stage 6 subsection shows, student teachers weren't always able to find their own fixes, and sometimes I provided more coaching.

Stage 6: Supervisor Coaching of the Redo-Fix

As we just saw, there is sometimes a fine line between coaching and scaffolding. However, I define coaching in this stage as the supervisor giving or telling the redo-fix with little evident participation from the student teacher. This was the least interactional stage of dialogue, as I did most of the talking or modelling. For example, I stood up to demonstrate how Dilin could have pretended to hold a tray to model what servers needed to do for his restaurant role play. This occurred late in our first reflection when it became apparent that Dilin had difficulty understanding how to set up a role play with clear instructions and modelling.

K:…It's good that you have the realia, and stuff like that…[but] you don't just give them things and say, "Oh, just do it." You have to set up the activity; you have to set up the tasks. So you have to say, "Waiters stand up." [I stand.] Okay, alright. "Pretend you have a tray." [I pretend that I am holding a tray.] You can just model that really quickly…

D: Um huh.

K:… "Waiters, show me your tray. Show me how you carry your tray." Okay?

D: Yeah, made it fun.

K: See. You just do it like that.

F: Um.

K: You can model this very easily. I can model it.

D: I forgot to model.

In the first reflections, I coached in response to three different situations. One was when student teachers couldn't think of a fix. Another was when we were unable to find a viable fix that I could recognize. And the last was when student teachers had presented a recognizable fix, but I wanted to give them better ideas that they might employ.

I coached in all first reflections with the student teachers. There were stretches of recordings (painful to analyze) where I was nearly the only one talking, with the student teachers numbly interjecting “uh huh”s and “yeah”s to show that they were politely listening.

The six-minute passage of coaching with Liying demonstrates what coaching looked like across the reflections. It demonstrates two aspects of coaching. One was that I would do it to fill a knowledge gap on activities, as I hoped would happen when modelling for Dilin. Another is that it did sometimes fill this gap by giving ideas for appropriation in later lessons.

K: Has Weldon taught you other ways of teaching vocabulary in a communicative way?

L: …Ummm.

K: It’s okay if it hasn’t.

L: I don’t think, I can’t think of any yet, because I haven’t…Every book is talking about the same.

K: Okay. Well there’s lots of different ways. And the way that you mentioned, I don’t think that’s necessarily such a bad way. I think that has promise…

L: Yeah.

K:…I kind of like it. I’ve never really tried it but…I will have matching sections…

L: Um.

K:…where I have like eight words, and then mixed up definitions on the other side.

L: Oh.

K:…Except the students have to work in pairs, and I model how they have to ask: “What do you think this means?” “I think it means this. What do you think?” “Uh, I don’t know. Maybe, maybe not. Doesn’t it mean this?” See, so I’ll model that, and then I’ll insist that it be communicative and that they go over each word…

L: Uh huh.

K:…like that.

L: Uh huh.

K: Sometimes at first it starts a little bit rote. Sometimes they're just, "What does this mean?" "It means this." "Okay." "What does this mean?" "It means this." "Okay." But you know then after a while, they're talking with each other, they're doing it but then they'll start to put in a variety in that…

L: Uh huh.

Here, I did not engage Liying in the dialogue by asking her questions, as I did with Jun to scaffold his participation in finding a simple way to create communicative activity. Instead, I just explained the specifics of how to do vocabulary activities. This effectively put Liying in the role of the politely listening student, a student state that I had just criticized as a sign of unprofessional practice. Liying showed politeness by listening with interjections.

Afterwards, I was displeased with my coaching of Liying, but fortunately, it may have proven useful. Liying appropriated my matching activity in the excerpt above, for introducing St. Patrick's Day vocabulary in lesson two. This shows that though student teachers may be silent at the time of coaching, a dialogical response may come through later enactment (Bakhtin, 1981). Coaching also serves the purpose of showing ideas that the student teachers may not have considered. A closely listening student teacher, like Liying, may surprise a supervisor or mentor by appropriating an idea in later practice.

Discussion

This study found that to bridge our differing conceptions of TESOL and identify problems of CLT practice, we engaged in a process of dialogue that progressed through six interactional stages with distinct purposes. After opening our reflections, we built assessments of lessons, focused on problematic parts, worked to agree on problems, searched for solutions, and attended to solutions that I coached, too. To accomplish these purposes, my student teachers had to follow complex references in a second language while exercising important dialogical moves and qualities. Our reflections proved that this work is not easy and rarely seamless. It involved

winding dialogical processes, focus in fits and starts, off-topic digressions, and communication breakdowns. Our gradual work through stages helped overcome these obstacles. It allowed student teachers to follow supervisor leads toward more professional realizations without getting lost along the dialogical path. Future research needs to determine if this progressive pattern is found in other post-lesson practicum reflections and under what circumstances.

The Dialogical Moves Driving Change

In enacting the major interactional skills of opening and building assessments, focusing and agreeing upon problems, and searching for solutions, I found that student teachers exercised important dialogical moves and qualities that helped build knowledge of TESOL practices. These included having a spirit of inquiry with real questions on practice (Wells, 2000; Bettencourt, 1991); seeking “knowledge growing out of, and oriented to, socially relevant and productive action” (Cohen, McLaughlin, & Talbert, 1993, p. 63); focusing on the phenomena of their lessons (Wells, 2000); trusting that mistakes were for learning; giving full assessments of their observations; reconstructing lessons (John-Steiner & Meehan, 2000); giving opinions that could be questioned and assessed (Bereiter, 1994); building on what was said with their own interpretations (Wells, 2000); working toward mutual understanding; “expanding the body of collectively valid propositions” (Wells, 2000, p. 73; Bereiter, 1994); being able to return to a topic after a digression; pro-actively searching for solutions to problems; allowing beliefs or practices to be criticized if this advanced the dialogue (Bereiter, 1994); struggling with supervisor and mentor discourse (Bakhtin, 1981); asking questions when a reference was not understood; and establishing “ties across time, texts, and events” (Putney et al., 2000, p. 92; Bloome & Bailey, 1992; Bloome & Egan-Robertson, 1993).

While these moves were important for building knowledge, I found that two principal moves were driving student teacher appropriation of CLT practices and changing conceptions of practice. These were (1) Responsively following the supervisor or mentor teacher in dialogue and (2) Giving the specific fix, or solution to a CLT problem and believing in its applicability. While I have alluded to their importance in the two previous sections, they bear special mention in this brief section through four examples. One demonstrates Liying responsively following my Socratic questioning on vocabulary teaching, though doing so was emotionally difficult. Another is a negative case (Strauss & Corbin, 1990) example of Tom reporting how Dilin was unable to follow him, an experience that we shared. The final examples shows Chaoxing giving specific fixes to CLT problems of practice and truly believing in their application.

Responsively Following the Supervisor or Mentor Teacher

While my situated study found that student teacher ability to responsively follow the supervisor or mentor in dialogue was a key to driving change and CLT appropriation, this finding is only applicable with mentors and supervisors like Tom, Molly, and me, who exercise the TESOL community's recognized communicative teaching practices and standards. Following supervisors or mentors who are not aligned with TESOL community practices will prevent appropriation of CLT practices, as we see in the Edwards & Tsui (2009) and Fang and Clarke (2014) studies. An example of this circumstance also occurred at Oakgrove Church when I supervised Ling Ling. Her mentor teacher (not Fred) insisted that she read words and phrases to silent students and continuously correct their pronunciation. By following this mentor's advice, Ling Ling's first lesson shut down student communication. So, my finding on responsively following a mentor or supervisor for professional change is only applicable with those trainers who advocate the TESOL community's recognized CLT practices (Gee, 2011).

How Liying Hung in There to Find a Solution

As previously reported, I questioned why Liying thought explaining vocabulary was necessary. This began a disagreement and debate in which Liying made a strong case for teacher-centered practices. After hearing Liying's conceptions, I began a long line of Socratic questioning on the effects of her explaining. Though we were in adversarial positions, Lying responsively followed me in dialogue. She recognized and acknowledged my references by adding to and building on what I was saying (Wells, 2000), despite it being somewhat critical (Pennycook, 2004).

Through the course of this, she hung in there to establish the principle that "every time you talk too long, they become more quiet." Then she came to understand that polite students were "not developing their speaking skills." And in the excerpt below, she came to realize that her "eager learners" were not so eager from my vantage point in the back of her big classroom.

K: Yeah, now were they listening closely to you when you were saying all these things?

L: Yeah, I think, because they, they're very eager learners and…

K: Yeah, some of them are and some of them started to tune out. And you weren't really reaching the back of the classroom.

L: Oh. [In realization]

K: You were only reaching, with the lecture, you were only kind of reaching the front of the classroom…

L: Oh.

K: Um huh. So my question is, my question is, 'Can you make a communicative vocabulary lesson next time?' [read from feedback.]

00:37:07

…[pause of several seconds.]

K: How could you have made this one communicative with the same vocabulary?

L: Um, maybe, uh, I can sort, I can assign vocabulary to each group and let them explain, like let them talk to each other first. And then each group can come up with the definition of the word, like what, what it's like and maybe they can come to the front and draw, "This is a double-room."

K: Or say it.

L: Yeah.

K: That's an idea.

L: Yeah.

K: So I kind of like that idea.

It was not emotionally easy for Liying to follow this long line of Socratic questioning which challenged her beliefs, her lesson observation, and her teaching practice. It was a reversal from how we had praised her lesson for the prior 27 minutes of reflection. Liying was a bit shaken by this turn, and I regretted being too directive and shutting Liying down.

But in this "struggling with another's discourse" (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 345-346), she honored Bereiter's (1994) "four commitments" to "progressive knowledge building" (p. 6). Most importantly she was willing to "work toward a common understanding"; "expand the body of collectively valid propositions"; and "allow any belief to be subjected to criticism if it will advance the discourse" (Wells, 2000, p. 73). She didn't let emotions interfere with her "desire to understand…until an answer has been made" (Bettencourt, 1991, p. 3; Wells, 2000, p. 64).

Liying followed my critical Socratic questioning to understand that her vocabulary teaching was ineffective for communicative learning (Pennycook, 2004). Then, despite being caught off guard, she immediately came up with a solution to this problem. I recognized its viability and added a minor modification to keep the activity in student mouths and away from the teacher-centered board. Liying reacted to our exchange by appropriating her idea to successfully teach vocabulary in her St. Patrick's Day lesson a couple of weeks later.

This is a case of building knowledge through progressive dialogue. The case demonstrates how student teacher ability to responsively follow a supervisor or mentor teacher in dialogue can lead to appropriation of CLT practice. However, it was difficult to exercise this skill, as dialogue with Dilin demonstrated.

Dilin's Inability to Responsively Follow His Supervisor and Mentor in Dialogue

Throughout our practicum reflections, Dilin and I were often at cross-purposes. Our conceptions of both teaching and teacher conduct were at odds. This made it difficult for us to follow each other's references, lines of thinking, or to build on each other's thoughts.

Tom experienced similar circumstances with Dilin and spent considerable time in our interview discussing how Dilin didn't seem to responsively follow him either. His reason for this concern was Dilin's lack of practicum progress. We both agreed that Dilin was very good at simulating understanding so that it appeared that he was following us. Tom described the characteristics of dialogue with Dilin to tell how they were not connecting.

T: He was one of those guys who, would sort of nod along and say, "Yes, I get it." And then you find out, he *really doesn't get it*. And you know he has this habit of when you say something, he kind of mirrors it right back, and while he's taking notes, you know, he's kind of, your words are coming right back at you. So it sort of seems like, 'Yes, I'm registering and I'm taking notes, and I'm understanding.' And he's nodding vigorously, but then, it just doesn't happen. You see the lesson that comes out of all that. And, you know, it's like, we're we in the same room even talking about this? (Tom, personal communication, April 15, 2015)

What Tom recounted also described what happened when I tried to assist Dilin with second lesson planning. I thought Dilin had understood the crafted plan and was going to execute it, only to be very surprised by Dilin's actual lesson. Tom and I were receiving the same messages that Dilin understood us and intended to follow certain plans, only to later find that there had been no effective communication. I asked Tom if he thought Dilin was "processing the meanings" of what we had said. Tom replied as follows.

T: No, not totally. I mean I don't think you can if you're writing and at the same time saying the words back. I don't think you're, I don't think it's sinking in, you know. So I think he's kind of learned to, kind of show, 'Yes, I'm following. Yes, we're in this conversation. I'm nodding, I'm listening. I'm getting it.' But I don't think, ssss [sucking in breath], yeah, I don't think he really has it all. You know I don't think what he's trying to, I don't think what he's trying to portray is really what he's absorbing, you know.

Appearing to follow and comprehend seemed to be more important for Dilin than fully understanding our messages. This may have been one of the reasons that Dilin asked the fewest questions of any student teacher in the reflections (refer to Table 8).

Dilin's echoing, or repeating, resembled student practices of imitation from the audiolingual method often employed in China's English classrooms. I believe that Dilin was repeating because learning English language and culture were more important for him than learning how to teach. Throughout our TESOL program, Dilin was still trying to learn as much English as possible. He kept notebooks with columns of vocabulary words encountered from classes and readings. If he could note and echo phrases from our reflections, he would also learn more English. These practices certainly kept Dilin from concentrating on and comprehending our messages. And they led to a confusion between his student and teacher roles.

I asked Tom if he felt language difficulties were interfering with Dilin's progress. In response, Tom felt that Dilin's lack of commitment to practicum expectations was a far bigger issue than any language difficulties that may have hindered his work.

Tom: I think the bigger issue is just lack of commitment, lack of motivation, and just not really applying the stuff that you were telling them,[19] that I'm telling them, and that they're getting in their methods class.[20] So, that was a little frustrating.

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[19] In saying "them," Tom was also referencing Feng.
[20] Material, Methods, and Planning class.

Dilin's many distractions and apprenticed teaching conceptions interfered with his ability to listen to mentor and supervisor entreaties to implement the communicative approach that Weldon's TESOL program advocated. Under these circumstances, Dilin struggled to follow or understand us, and thus made only small conceptual and practical concessions to CLT.

Giving the Specific Fix to a CLT Problem and Believing in it

Analysis of Stage 5 work revealed that I would frequently ask student teachers to specifically tell what they would say or do to fix a problem that we had agreed upon. It also found that the student teachers would often follow me to give these specific solutions.

Through idea tracing (Jocius, 2015), I found five instances when student teachers gave specific fixes to then implement them in later practice (see instances marked with an asterisk, *, in Table 13). In all five cases they believed in the applicability of these fixes. The examples with Chaoxing, below, are two of these.

How Chaoxing Gave Specific Fixes with a Can-do Attitude

Chaoxing showed that she had a strong spirit of inquiry for practicum work from the very beginning of our first reflection. While I was finishing the writing of her Feedback, she initiated focus on a "real question" about a problem that troubled her (Bettencourt, 1991, p. 3). She wanted to know how she could answer every student question (Hu, 2002). Chaoxing reconstructed this minor problem so well that I silently agreed it was problematic and asked how she could fix it.

00:03:07

C: Answering questions is somehow challenging because I have to instantly come up with an idea to give them the answer. I think I stumbled when I tried to answer one question or give another example at the beginning of the class. I just stopped and then moved on. I think that's awkward. [said with a chuckle] Yeah, and…

K: If you were doing it again, how would you have done it?

This passage demonstrates how Chaoxing and I immediately began following each other in post-lesson reflections to seek "knowledge growing out of, and oriented to, socially relevant and productive action" (Cohen, McLaughlin, & Talbert, 1993, p. 63). In response to my question, Chaoxing and Shuang sought a solution to this problem over several minutes of discussion, during which they determined that they didn't have to come up with instant answers, but could instead, turn the question back to the students for consideration. To my request, Chaoxing eventually gave the specific language she could say to do this in a future lesson.

K: Yeah, so you're the teacher there. You can ask the classmates to do it. What would you say as the teacher?

S: Um.

C: "What do you guys think?" [Very softly, not wanting to butt in.]

S: No.

K: Um huh. "What do you guys think?"

C: Yeah.

K: Or, anything else?...[pause in waiting, but no answer comes] Yeah, "Does anybody have a good idea to answer that question?"

S: I would see how other students respond.

K: Would that take the pressure off?

C: Yeah.

S: Yeah

This excerpt shows that solutions to problems of practice in post-lesson reflections are "half-ours and half-someone else's" (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 345-346). My request for what the STs "would say as the teacher" scaffolded Chaoxing's solution, which Shuang didn't initially agree with. It represents the joint nature of knowledge building through dialogue with a trainer.

But in voicing this specific fix, Chaoxing had "taken over and *owned"* these words for *application* to future student questions (Wells, 2000, p. 64-65). She believed they would relieve the pressure of having to immediately provide students with answers – a duty that a teacher in China must perform according to Hu's (2002, 2005) studies. Analysis suggests that Chaoxing's specific fix here constituted "internally persuasive discourse" (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 345-346) to the "problematic features of…[her] experience and environment" (Cohen, McLaughlin, & Talbert, 1993, p. 63). And this analysis is supported in that Chaoxing later deferred questions to the students for their own consideration before giving her own opinions on them.

Another example of Chaoxing giving a specific fix occurred just minutes later, as can be seen in the excerpt below. We were discussing how students didn't really get into her role play because she hadn't modelled how to do it.

K: But the students, they were just staying in their seats. Is there anything different you might do to get them to maybe like do something like, uh, knock on the door or something like that?

S: In the real, open door?

C: Like standing up. One is on the other side of the, the door and knock…

K: Um

C:…knock on the door. Make it real.

K: Um huh.

C: Yeah. I was thinking about this but I think, huh, [Chaoxing guffaws] there is only one door…

S: Yeah.

K: Hahaha!

C:…and we have three groups. So it kind of makes the classroom messy because people have to go around a little bit, and they have to look at the piece of paper to check information so I just gave up this idea.

K: Um huh.

00:14:31

K: Well remember the Japanese student who came in late, she said, at one point in the lesson she said, she said, “You mean I pretend?!” And you said, “Yes.” And she goes, “Ohhhhhh!” Do you remember that part?

C: Yeah.

K: So couldn’t they just pretend. I mean after you modelled it, couldn’t they just pretend that there was a door? And um, do it like that? Couldn’t a chair be used as a pretend door?...

C: Oh! Okay.

K:…because the chairs have wheels on it, too.

C: Okay. Haha. [light laughter of realization]

C & K together: Yeah.

K: Now if you did that, so if you were helping them get into that kind of pretend, um, mode...

C & S: Um huh.

K:…as a teacher, what could you do?

C: Umm, maybe I can model first. Invite one of them to be my partner to model one sample, short sample. What are we going to do? Introduce the rule first. And then modelling for them, and they get the concept, oh what are we going to do next.

K: Um huh.

C: Yeah. And then they can use whatever they can to create the situation like the real-life situation. Maybe like you, just like you said, using a chair as a door…

K: Um huh.

C:…And knocking on it. Yeah.

K: Um huh.

C: I can do that!

K: Um huh.

By specifically verbalizing what she *can do* in future practice, Chaoxing demonstrated newfound teacher efficacy to tackle future modelling with a formula. She knew she could give the rules, or instructions first, and then model with a student and whatever material might serve the purpose.

Chaoxing's first reflection determination extended to her future lessons. She clearly gave instructions and modelled activities in her second and third lessons. She showed realization of this in the opening statement of her second reflection by saying, "I think I did better last time. Yeah. But I did give instructions this time." I believe that Chaoxing effectively gave instructions with modelling in second and third lessons, because she gave the specific teacher moves to solve these problems in our first reflection. Her verbalization helped her internalize and believe in these solutions to head off problems in future lessons (Tang et al., 2012).

Discussion

Because the mentor teachers and the supervisor of this study practiced and valued CLT, I found that student teachers who responsively followed our thoughts in dialogue could gain ideas for successful CLT implementation in successive lessons. Drawing on their home cultural practices of respecting teachers, Liying, Jun, and Chaoxing worked to follow our thoughts and teachings (Hu, 2002, 2005; Skinner & Abbott, 2013; Rao, 2002). They thereby gained ideas to plan lessons that attended to student communicative learning needs (Lu, 2005; Park, 2006; Daniel & Conlin, 2015; Ball, 2000; 2009). We recognized them as legitimate contributors in their communicative classroom communities of the ESL Center and the Oakgrove Church (Lave & Wenger, 1991).

But as Tom described, Dilin was often unable to follow us. One reason was that he felt unmotivated to implement an approach in which he didn't believe. Another was that he was more focused on using reflective time for English language learning. And another reason may have

been that we didn't have the cultural capital of Weldon program professors or the professors he was working for in the Chinese Department. After all, we were not Ph.D.'s, a teacher position that Dilin revered. For whatever reasons, Dilin struggled to responsively follow his mentor and supervisor, and so could not fully understand our ideas for solving CLT problems. We did not see his lessons as legitimate TESOL practice and we recognized little conceptual change for Dilin's teacher development through our practicum work (Lave & Wenger, 1991).

I also found that I frequently asked student teachers to tell me exactly what they would do or say to solve a problem that we had identified. Chaoxing, Jun, and Liying responsively followed my requests in giving specific fixes to problems of practice. Because they believed in these fixes, they had "personal agency beliefs" (Tang et al., 2012, p. 99) to successfully implement them in successive lessons. In most cases however, Dilin only gave specific fixes under compulsion, and then didn't believe in their efficacy, so he did not carefully consider how his fixes might be successfully employed in future lesson planning. These findings point to the need for TESOL programs to include many opportunities for students to discuss, say, rehearse, and practice the specific moves of communicative language teaching (Grossman et al., 2009).

How Dialogue through the Stages Influenced Appropriation

Upon identifying the stages in our process of dialogue, I could then explore how accomplishing the purposes of stages affected problem reoccurrence in future lessons. My analysis found that when we could accomplish the purposes of the stages with mutual understanding, student teachers implemented the solution we had found in a successive lesson. Thereby, the problem desisted. But when we could not mutually focus on, agree upon, search for, or find a solution to an identified problem, this problem reoccurred in a future lesson.

Table 12 shows four instances when we could not accomplish the purposes of the stages in discussing problems. These instances are drawn from Tables 10 and 11 showing Stage 5 work in problem discussion. In all four of these instances, the problem in question reoccurred in a future lesson.

Table 12

Purposes we Accomplished and did not Accomplish in Stages of Dialogue

	Problem	Stage 1 Opening	Stage 2 Building	Stage 3 Focusing	Stage 4 Agreeing	Stage 5 Searching	Stage 6 Coaching
Chaoxing Instance 4	with Teaching Language	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓*	[shaded]
Dilin Instance 8	Explaining Words	✓	✓	✓	[shaded]	✓	✓
Dilin Instance 9	Grouping	✓	✓	[shaded]	✓	✓	Not Needed
Dilin Instance 10	Instructions And Modelling	✓	✓	[shaded]	[shaded]	✓	✓

✓ = We accomplished the purpose of the stage. [shaded] = We did not accomplish the purpose.

✓* = We accomplished the purpose of searching, but we never found a recognizable fix.

Not Needed = Coaching was not needed because the student teacher found a fix in Stage 5.

In Instance 4, Chaoxing and I never found a fix for her teacher-centered problem of reading vocabulary in Lesson 1. She and Shuang searched for solutions while I listened. They were doing Stage 5 dialogical work in voicing many ideas. However, we never recognized any of them as a viable, communicative way to teach vocabulary. Nor did I coach a fix, as I usually did when Stage 5 searches were unsuccessful in finding a recognizable solution. At the time, I figured that their ardent searching would allow them to find a solution on their own or with Molly. However, Chaoxing's vocabulary teaching problems in her third lesson suggest that a coached fix may have been helpful. This is one instance of how a CLT problem reoccurred after

a student teacher and the supervisor were unable to mutually accomplish the functional purpose of a stage in dialogue on a CLT problem.

Instances 8, 9, and 10, occurred in dialogue with Dilin. In these cases, we were unable to accomplish the purposes of either focusing on the problematic part or agreeing upon the problem. In Instance 8, we were unable to agree upon how explaining vocabulary interfered with student communication in Dilin's first lesson. In the reflection afterwards, I coached Dilin and Feng on how to do three different, student-to-student vocabulary activities involving pair work. For his third lesson, Dilin appropriated the matching activity and his own goal of becoming more of a listener, or facilitator, in whole class discussions on vocabulary. But after a while of this more communicative instruction, he reverted to explaining vocabulary again. To seek an explanation for this reoccurrence, I examined our first reflection transcript to find that I never sought agreement on how Dilin's first lesson explaining was problematic, and so there was no agreement on how it interfered with student communication. Because he never recognized how explaining limited student opportunity to communicate, he did not clearly see how his explaining was problematic, and he continued to explain in his third lesson.

In Instance 9, Dilin did give a specific fix for better grouping, but we were unable to mutually focus on the lesson part to which it would apply. Dilin initiated this search for a fix in the wrap-up to his role play activity. I asked if he wanted to consider how to better group the students in the role play itself. He agreed to this idea. But in analyzing our discussion, Dilin's references were to re-grouping for the wrap-up and not the role play activity. Though I didn't know it at the time, we were discussing different lesson parts. We were unable to accomplish the Stage 3 purpose of focusing on a problematic lesson part. Due in part to this, grouping problems occurred in Dilin's third lesson role play when students were not asked to change partners.

Instance 10 on Table 12 shows that we found fixes for problems with instructions and modelling for Dilin's role play. But as our disagreement on vocabulary teaching demonstrated, we were unable to focus on the role play or to agree that there were problems with it (see the first section of Part 2). After this inability to accomplish the purposes of Stages 3 and 4 in our first reflection, Dilin was unable to give clear instructions with modelling in Lessons 2 and 3. These four instances show that when we were unable to accomplish the interactional purposes of stages in seeking solutions to CLT problems, these problems then persisted in successive lessons.

I do not regard our inability to focus on, agree upon, search for, and find solutions to problems as an explanation for why problems persisted. Other factors obviously worked to prevent problem consideration and dialogical progression. However, dialogue could also accomplish conceptual change and CLT appropriation, as I have shown. Therefore, I regard inability to accomplish the purposes of stages, with mutual understanding, as an important reason why CLT problems reoccurred. Future studies will need to determine how important this reason is in the perpetuation of pedagogical problems that interfere with student communication.

In the remaining first reflection instances, the student teachers and I were able to jointly accomplish the purposes of the stages to find solutions. They then appropriated these solutions for implementation in successive lessons. With her can-do attitude, Chaoxing successfully appropriated the specific fixes she voiced for giving instructions and modelling together (Instances 2, 3, and 5 on Table 11). She successfully gave instructions and modelled activities in her second and third lessons. Jun appropriated the simple fix to create CLT activity that we found in Instance 7. This resulted in his exemplary CLT work in Lessons 2 and 3. Jun even appropriated the role play activity that we constructed in Instance 6. Liying appropriated the initial fix she gave to her vocabulary teaching problem in Instance 11 on Table 11. She also

appropriated the vocabulary/definition matching activity idea that she heard through coaching. These appropriations engaged tables in academic discussions on difficult words. And though I do not categorize the Instance 1 case of answering every student question as a CLT problem, Chaoxing did defer questions to the students instead of trying to answer them all herself. This helped to create a pleasant mood in her third lesson.

These Instances show that when we could focus on, agree upon, and find solutions to CLT problems, the student teachers built knowledge of specific practices and then appropriated them for successful CLT implementation. Accomplishing the purposes of stages in progressive dialogue was indeed, an important reason for these instances of developing teacher appropriation and change (Ball, 2000, 2009). To accomplish this progressive dialogue for practicum knowledge building, we needed to recognize and acknowledge (Bloome & Egan-Robertson, 1993) each other's references and ideas with mutual understanding. For this to occur, the student teachers needed "a desire to understand… to pursue questions" on problems of practice "until an answer has been made" (Bettencourt, 1991, p. 3).

These examples of CLT appropriation demonstrate the central role of dialogue in English language teacher development (Ball, 2000; 2009). Even Dilin, who was most resistant to dialogical influence and CLT practice, appropriated communicative teaching ideas which accomplished his goal of giving the students more opportunities to "use the language" (Dilin, Reflection 1). These instances of appropriation and the others that I found throughout my study are listed in Table 13 below.

Table 13

Student Teacher Appropriation of Ideas for CLT from Dialogue

Student Teacher	**Ideas Appropriated**	**The Dialogue, & How Appropriated**
Jun *	Simple Fix of Asking the Students to talk to each other on a meaningful topic related to their lives	1st Reflection Stage 5, Scaffolded
*	How to plan and execute a role play with assigned roles.	1st Reflection Stage 5 Scaffolded
	Not Pre-teaching Vocabulary	1st Reflection and Pre-Lesson 2 Planning Session, My Suggestion
	Topic idea on students using their cell phones to discuss technology, from a Pre-lesson 2 Planning Session with Peter and me.	Pre-Lesson 2 Planning Session, Scaffolded
Chaoxing*	The teacher doesn't always have to answer every question. Students can ask each other.	1st Reflection, Scaffolded
*	Give Instructions with Modelling (Instances 2, 3, 5 on Table 11)	1st Reflection Stage 5, Scaffolded
	Not to teach Vocabulary in Second Lesson	1st Reflection, Supervisor Suggestion
	From Mentor: Real Notices of City Events	Pre-Lesson 2 Planning with Molly, Suggestion
Dilin	Vocabulary word-picture matching activity in third lesson	1st Reflection, Coached
	From Dialogue with me and Feng: Role Change to Teacher as Facilitator: Listening to Students	1st Reflection, Dilin's Idea
	Students discuss the Complaint Problem from the handout with pictures in the first activity.	Pre-Lesson 2 Planning with me, Scaffolded
	From Mentor: Real Apartment Ads	Pre-Lesson 3 emails from Tom, Suggestion
Liying *	Let the Students Discuss Definitions	1st Reflection Stage 5, Liying's Fix
	Supervisor Coaching: Match Words and Definitions	1st Reflection, Coached
	From First Semester Academic Workshop: Be Multimodal by showing a video to start a lesson	1st Semester Academic Workshop, Coached

* = Instances when students gave the specific fixes in dialogue.

Discussion

This study found that when we could accomplish the functional purposes of stages in progressive dialogue, student teachers then appropriated specific ideas we had discussed for implementation in successive lessons. Completing each purpose in a process of dialogue seemed to allow student teachers to fully reconstruct problems so that the solutions were applicable in future teaching. But when we were unable to accomplish these purposes, student teachers lacked knowledge of solutions, or were unable to apply ones that we had constructed in future lessons.

In the course of analysis, this study traced numerous ideas formed in the process of dialogue to their production in future lessons (Jocius, 2015). These linkages clearly demonstrate how dialogue moved student teachers to appropriate ideas for more professional, communicative TESOL practice.

Conclusion to Part 2

After our practicum work of mentoring and supervising six Chinese student teachers, including Chaoxing, I asked Molly how our student teachers appropriated so much for improvement. I said, "With like Chan, Rowena, Chaoxing, and Shuang, I actually saw a lot of change. What made the change?…And to tell you the truth I'm kind of wondering how they managed to improve so quickly." Molly's response surprised me. It illustrates how student teachers came to see that they needed to implement communicative activity through dialogical processes with their mentor teachers and supervisor.

M: I think because some of the things they did incorrectly were so major. Like with Chan's long monologue, it could only get better. You know it *couldn't* really *get any worse*, you know.

K: Hehe. [a chuckle in recalling this]

M: And so I think it's like, it's just some of the things that they did were so *drastic*.

K: Yeah.

M: So drastically not working. Like so drastically not really good decisions that, I think that's part of the reason why the improvements were always so great.

K: And you made that, in your feedback to Chan, too, you made that really clear?

M: Oh yeah, absolutely. I mean, I didn't tell her, "Look this was so bad. It can only get better from here." I didn't say that, you know, obviously. But I think usually after the first class, the reflection was just so, sputter sputter [sputtering her lips in recalling the difficulties]. You know, "This is something that I would do differently. And this didn't really work out. Would you agree or what do you think about how this went?" You know, there were just so many things, that by the time they got to Lesson 2 or 3 it was a lot better. Just because they had probably heard it from you and then they had heard it from me, and so they knew that, it's like reinforced twice. You know, really. And they…hopefully they saw their own lesson unfold, you know, in front of their eyes and realized, 'Oh this is not good.' (Molly, personal communication, March 23, 2015)

Molly's statement shows how mentor and supervisor dialogical work with the student teachers was professionally aligned on several points. She, too, sought to focus discussion on problems of practice that she had observed. She asked the student teachers for agreement in seeking a shared vision on these problematic lesson parts. She implies that mutual understanding was important for changes in practice, as was found in this study. And then to achieve this understanding, she made communicative problems "really clear" to student teachers in a joint dialogical reconstruction of lesson parts. "What do you think about how this went?" she asked. This study also found that such reconstruction was a key for understanding and agreeing upon CLT problems in lesson parts.

Molly also understood that multiple, reinforcing messages, from an aligned community of trainers, effected teacher change. Student teachers took advice "because they had probably heard it from you and then they had heard it from me, and so they knew that, it's like reinforced twice." Dialogical messages from Molly, Tom, and the supervisor overlapped and reinforced each other, to help the student teachers understand that to approach professional practice, they had to adopt a new set of CLT practices that were very different from habituated cultural

practices that they experienced growing up. Molly's message partially accounts for how and why the student teachers were appropriating practices from their mentors and supervisor.

Molly's message, the 15 instances of dialogical appropriation for CLT practice listed in Table 13, and the findings in Part 2, demonstrate the central role that progressive dialogue plays in TESOL practicums for transnational, language teacher development (Wells, 2000; Bereiter, 1994; Bakhtin, 1981; Tsui, 2005; Gutierrez, 2007).

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

Numerous studies from China show that teachers and student teachers resist communicative language teaching practices advocated by the Chinese Ministry of Education and university English language teacher (ELT) training programs (Tang et al., 2012; Tang, 2004; Hu 2002, 2005; Qi, 2005; Amy Tsui et al., 2009; Li, 2010; Tseng, 2013; Fang & Clarke, 2014; Peacock, 2001; Cortazzi & Jin, 1996; Tang & Absalom, 1998). In practicums, student teachers instead implement what Tang, Lee, and Chun (2012, p. 103) call "Confucius-heritage cultural (CHC) classroom" teaching and what Hu (2002) refers to as practices from a "Chinese culture of learning" (Hu, 2002, p. 93). These studies find that the teachers reproduce the practices of the culture in which they are embedded.

This dissertation study also sought to understand if Chinese student teachers would reproduce cultural practices after being embedded in a dialogical American TESOL community that valued communicative language teaching (Wong, 2006). I explored whether four student teachers would reproduce CHC practices or whether they would implement CLT in accord with their new cultural environment.

In this chapter, I summarize my findings on these matters through the two research questions that guided this dissertation study. I also discuss how these findings relate to previous findings in the literature reviewed. After that I discuss the study's contributions to TESOL, to related areas of education, and to sociocultural theory. I then discuss the limitations of this study and propose directions for future research, some of which build on these contributions. I briefly comment on the policy implications from my study. And I conclude with a final thought on the importance of TESOL training for China's future teachers.

Summary and Discussion of Findings

RQ1: What problems of practice interfered with student communication in practicum lessons and how did student teachers successfully implement CLT?

There were four key findings in response to this question. The first is that I identified 12 problems of practice interfering with student communication and I found that these problems were of two types. One type of problem occurred when student teachers enacted common teaching practices like they had experienced in China's classrooms. The second problem type occurred in instances when they were attempting to implement CLT. This latter type of problem exhibited the participants' strong communicative teaching intent. My second finding was that this intent helped them to successfully implement CLT in numerous instances. My third finding was that to successfully implement CLT, they needed to attend to student interests. The fourth key finding was that this sample was weighing what it means to be a good teacher from the perspectives of the two very different activity systems that they simultaneously inhabited: China's system of ELT in which they were enculturated, and the CLT system of classroom activity in which they were embedded.

Per my first key finding, there was little student communication when student teachers were implementing practices that are common in China's classrooms. In enacting common practices from home, the student teachers lectured, distanced themselves from students, explained vocabulary, read words and phrases, and focused so much on language, that there was little time for communicative activity in their lessons (Fang & Clarke, 2014; Tang et al., 2012; Qi, 2005; Edwards & Tsui, 2009; Li, 2010; Gan, 2013; Tang & Nesi, 2003; Hu, 2002; 2005; Cortazzi & Jin, 1996; Tang & Absalom, 1998;). They performed these familiar cultural practices through IRE sequences (Li & Walsch, 2010; Jin & Cortazzi, 1998), handouts with lists of words

and phrases (Qi, 2005; Lu, 2005), PowerPoints, and teacher-centered work at the whiteboard that allowed few opportunities for students to speak. Statements from Dilin and Chaoxing showed that these were apprenticed practices (Lortie, 1975) which even Liying believed necessary for English language learning, despite her practicum goal to implement CLT. Following the model of their previous teachers in China, their role was to give knowledge to students with teacher authority (Hu, 2002, 2005; Fang & Clark, 2014; Tang & Absalom, 1998; Tang et al., 2012).

The second type of problem found in this study occurred when student teachers attempted to implement CLT, but student communication was stifled because they had problems with grouping students, lesson material, unclear instructions with no model for students to follow, or they hadn't followed their lesson plans to give students a clear objective or task to complete. These problems were most prevalent as practicums began because student teachers were still learning the techniques and principles of CLT implementation. The most salient of these problems were giving clear instructions and modelling. In four lessons, these problems prevented students from understanding their tasks in activities with CLT potential. These two problems worked together to limit student communication.

But problems in attempting to implement a CLT activity showed communicative teaching intent (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). I found that this sample of student teachers possessed strong communicative teaching intent in that they wanted their students to be actively talking to each other. This strong intent is rarely found in the Chinese literature. Communicative teaching intent was evident in lesson plans, practices, and reflections. Even with CLT problems across his lessons, Dilin had communicative activities with great potential in each of his lesson plans, but he couldn't follow these plans to successfully implement CLT. Across the 12 lessons, only Jun's first lesson did not have a planned activity with CLT potential, and in reflection, Jun deeply

regretted that there “wasn’t much communication between the students.” Such strong communicative teaching intent motivated ST inquiry into how they could successfully implement CLT (Wells, 2000; Bettencourt, 1991; Bereiter, 1994).

The second key finding for RQ1 was that this strong communicative teaching intent led to successful implementation of CLT activity in many instances. In six lessons the student teachers implemented production activities that gave students extended opportunities for meaningful communication and learning. These activities were in the form of role plays, information gaps, finding or choosing activities, and paired conversation with classmates to learn about each other’s lives. During these activities, students stood up, found partners, spoke excitedly in loud voices, leaned in to listen more closely to partners who were sharing practices from home, smiled, laughed, asked questions, and expressed satisfaction in learning and completing tasks. With this successful implementation of CLT activity, the student teachers were aligned with Weldon TESOL program teachings, the practices of their mentors and supervisor, and our larger community’s professional practices (Brown, 2001; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998; Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Edwards & Tsui, 2009; Lu, 2005; Park, 2006).

The third key finding was that to successfully implement CLT, the student teachers needed to attend to student interests, as was also found in studies by Lu (2005), Park (2006), Daniel & Conlin (2015), and Ishihara (2013). Liying, Jun, and Chaoxing attended to student interests in designing and implementing CLT activity for students to play roles in booking hotels, asking parents if they could buy new cell phones, and sharing knowledge of events in our city. They gave opportunities for students to discuss interests in popular apps, weekend activities that they could attend together, foods and festivals from home, and their own cell phones. Students were excited to share their knowledge and practices on these topics.

However, when student teachers did not attend to student interests in planning and implementing lessons, there was little student communication and no CLT success. My study found several instances when student teachers did not attend to student interests and lessons fell flat. For example, Dilin chose a menu from a foreign restaurant that he liked without regard to how students might comprehend the foreign items on it; he asked married Muslim students to participate in role plays about dating; and he taught so much vocabulary in his third lesson that the students didn't have time to discuss real apartment ads that were of great interest to them. He showed little interest in modifying lesson material "to explore with students the tasks that will hold their attention in the learning process" because he was used to teaching by the book (Ball, 2000, p. 229; Tom, personal communication, April 15, 2015).

There was also little student communication in Chaoxing's first and third lessons. For her first lesson she didn't attend to what directions the students might need. And for her third lesson she was focused on what vocabulary she needed to teach and not what vocabulary the students needed to learn and how they needed to learn it. These examples clearly illustrate my third finding to RQ1: that student teachers needed to attend to student interests to promote student communication and successfully implement CLT.

My fourth key finding to RQ1 was that the student teachers were weighing what it means to be a good teacher from the two activity systems that they simultaneously inhabited: China's system of ELT in which they were enculturated, and the CLT system of classroom activity in which they were embedded (Wong, 2006; Gutierrez & Stone, 2000; Gutierrez, 2007; Engestrom, 2005). This was evident in the potpourri of parts in a given lesson. Early lesson parts included long explanations of vocabulary while afterwards, the student teachers attempted to implement CLT activity. Like the pre-service teachers in Tang et al. (2012) and Peacock (2001), they

believed that heavy doses of vocabulary and teacher-centered instruction was needed for students to perform communicative activities. However, while the prospective teachers in those studies believed these doses were needed for children, my student teachers believed they were even necessary for conversationally fluent adults.

In Dilin's lessons, the time required for this vocabulary teaching left little time for the communicative activities in his lesson plans. But it is not so surprising that this occurred because Dilin had the professional awareness that if he implemented CLT activity in China, he might get fired.[21] Dilin was aware that educators back home do not believe that students can effectively learn from each other in communicative activity.

Because Dilin had longer experience in Confucius-heritage classrooms than the other participants of this study, the effects of the apprenticeship appear to have been working stronger on him (Lortie, 1975). According to what he already knew about good teaching from China, his explaining constituted professional practice. He believed that he was already a good teacher, and the Chinese professors in that department affirmed this belief in highly approving of his teaching practice. For Dilin, CLT conflicted too strongly with what he already knew about good teaching from his long study and teaching practice in China's activity system of education (Edwards & Tsui, 2009; Tsui, 2005; Gutierrez, 2007).

Like the other student teachers, Chaoxing was also engaged in the difficult work of learning to teach by teaching in a new activity system of education (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Gutierrez & Stone, 2000). She was actively engaged in an ideological struggle (Bakhtin, 1981) of reflective inquiry to balance the comfort she felt in creating pleasant teacher-centered classes like she experienced at home, with her satisfaction in facilitating student communication. (Wells,

[21] Two other Chinese student teachers from our program also said in a post-lesson reflection that they would be "fired" for implementing CLT in Chinese classrooms (Keenan, personal communication with Tom, April 15, 2015).

2000; Bereiter, 1994; Bettencourt, 1991). These examples illustrate my fourth finding for RQ1 that the student teachers were weighing what it means to be a good teacher from the perspectives of two very different activity systems of English education.

RQ2: In post-lesson reflections, how did we interact in seeking solutions to problems that interfered with student communication?

Six important findings emerged from my analysis on this question. The first finding was that we had very different conceptions of TESOL which led to disagreements and debates on how to teach vocabulary. The second finding was that student teacher conceptions of TESOL practice made it difficult for them to identify CLT problems. While they could identify minor and general problems that interfered with student communication, they needed supervisor assistance to identify less obvious CLT problems in lesson parts. The third finding was that to offer this assistance and bridge these conceptions, we had to engage in a process of dialogue that advanced through six stages. My fourth finding was that important dialogical moves and qualities helped student teachers identify problems and seek solutions through these stages, including two principal moves that drove appropriation of ideas for CLT. The fifth finding was that when we could accomplish the purposes of the stages with mutual understanding to find solutions, student teachers appropriated these solutions for implementation in future lessons. But when we could not accomplish these purposes, the same problems reoccurred in successive lessons. And my sixth finding was that dialogue moved student teachers to appropriate many ideas for more professional, communicative TESOL practice (Rogoff, 1995). I summarize each of these findings below.

An important finding of this study is that our biggest disagreements concerned how student teachers taught vocabulary, particularly their practice of explaining words and phrases.

This topic of biggest disagreement corresponded to how explaining vocabulary was the most reoccurring problem for student communication across the practicum lessons. In six of the seven lessons, students were silenced by lengthy periods of explaining. Disagreements on teaching vocabulary occurred with every student teacher. While student teachers defended this explaining, I argued that it took valuable time from activities that would have given opportunities for students to communicate, including activities for vocabulary learning. Student teacher statements exhibited the common conceptions that explicit, teacher-centered, vocabulary instruction was necessary (Fang & Clark, 2014; Tang et al., 2012), that many words needed to be taught, and that the students needed to learn them all (Peacock, 2001). In this serious work (Hu, 2002) it was their duty to answer all student questions because they didn't entirely believe that the students could learn from each other. And their explaining of vocabulary was a familiar norm from China that best utilized limited class time (Fang & Clark, 2014; Qi, 2005; Edwards & Tsui, 2009). In analyzing lessons and reflective statements, it was apparent that their vocabulary lectures served to reinforce home cultural conceptions of the teacher's role as the authority on classroom work, knowledge, utterances, and learning (Hu, 2002; Tang & Absalom, 1998). Their pivotal belief in a lack of time (Fang & Clark, 2014; Tang et al. 2012) shaped these conceptions and constrained conceptual change. They therefore reproduced cultural practices that are reported widely in the Chinese literature (Fang & Clarke, 2014; Tang et al., 2012; Qi, 2005; Edwards & Tsui, 2009; Li, 2010; Gan, 2013; Tang & Nesi, 2003; Hu, 2002; 2005; Cortazzi & Jin, 1996; Tang & Absalom, 1998;). And in our disagreements on the efficacy of these cultural practices, they showed the most resistance to change across our discussions, as theoretical and empirical studies presaged (Cole & Engestrom, 1993; Lortie, 1975; Tang et al., 2012).

However, I found that our disagreements challenged student teachers to question these normalized and apprenticed practices (Lortie, 1975) to consider more communicative ways to teach vocabulary. Our disagreements created a "liminal space of *becoming* (Manathunga, 2006, p. 8) in which students can migrate away from old conceptions in developing new possibilities for future pedagogy" (Skinner & Abbott, 2013, p. 241). Despite arguing forcefully for her teacher-centered explaining at the board, Liying followed my lead to search for a more communicative way to teach vocabulary through group work and implemented it in her second lesson. Jun came to understand that students could learn words from each other and so dropped the pre-teaching of vocabulary from his second and third lessons to successfully implement communicative activities. Chaoxing resisted change through our third reflection but conceded at the end that she was not satisfied with her language teaching and would try grouping students in future practice. Disagreement prompted Dilin to reflect that he needed to change his role from a boss to a facilitator to hear more student voices. And in a member check two-years after his practicum, Dilin showed considerable conceptual change after listening to and analyzing our disagreement on his language teaching from the first reflection.

These examples show that our disagreements stimulated deeper reflection on how to implement the communicative practices valued in our community (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998). The "dynamic tension" (John-Steiner & Meehan, 2000, p. 35) that disagreement produced thereby worked to effect change in practice and conceptions (Bakhtin, 1981; Ball, 2000). I posit that TESOL supervisors and mentor teachers hoping to effect professional change with Chinese student teachers must be prepared for disagreement on how to best teach vocabulary and grammar.

The second important finding of this study was that student teacher conceptions of TESOL practice made it difficult for them to identify problems that interfered with student communication in lesson parts. They could identify minor problems and obvious and general problems that interfered with student communication. In all seven lessons with CLT problems, student teacher opening assessments focused on minor or obvious and general problems. This suggested that they knew when serious problems limited opportunities for student communication. But they needed supervisor assistance to identify subtler problems in lesson parts, including parts when they were explaining vocabulary (Grossman et al., 2009; Goodwin, 1994). While observing lessons, I noted many of these problems in the Feedback and the Minutes, but they did not mention them in the early stages of reflections when they led our discussions. To become aware of these CLT problems, it was necessary for me to initiate focus on the lesson parts in which the problems occurred.

The third finding was that to help student teachers see CLT problems and to bridge our differing conceptions of ELT, we engaged in a process of dialogue that progressed through six stages (Wells, 2000; Bereiter, 1994). Each stage constituted a major category of interaction and had an active functional purpose to which our discussion was directed. We proceeded through these purposive stages in addressing problems:

(1) Opening Assessments on the Lesson

(2) Building Assessments

(3) Focusing on a Problematic Part

(4) Agreeing on the Problem

(5) Searching for a Solution, or a Redo-Fix

(6) Supervisor Coaching of the Redo-Fix

I found that to progress to the next stage of dialogue and complete its purpose, we generally had to complete the purpose of the previous stage with mutual understanding. Because our dialogue often digressed, achieving understanding while accomplishing these interactional purposes was not easy. As the literature suggested, student teachers were challenged by the dialogical, reflective practices that are necessary for identifying problems and finding solutions (Rogoff, 1995; Ball, 2000, 2009; Bakhtin, 1981; Wells, 2000; Bereiter, 1994; Skinner & Abbott, 2013; Edwards & Tsui, 2009; Lopez-Real, Law, & Tang, 2009; Farr, 2005). However, progressive dialogue through these stages allowed student teachers to follow my professional conceptions to recognize problems and seek solutions (Goodwin, 1994).

My fourth finding was that important dialogical moves and qualities helped student teachers identify problems and seek solutions through these stages, including two principal moves that drove appropriation of ideas for CLT and changed conceptions of practice. These principal moves were (1) Responsively following the supervisor or mentor teacher in dialogue (Bereiter, 1994; Wells, 2000), and (2) Giving the specific fix, or solution to CLT problems of practice and believing in its applicability.

Per findings from the literature on Confucian respect for teachers (Hu, 2002, 2005; Skinner & Abbott, 2013; Rao, 2002), Liying, Jun, and Chaoxing practiced this skill of responsively following their supervisor and mentor teachers to appropriate ideas for CLT practice and to change their conceptions. Liying showed this skill through our contentious disagreement in Reflection 1. She responsively followed me through a difficult line of Socratic questioning to understand that her vocabulary explaining had been ineffective from my perspective in the back of her large class. She then offered a specific solution to this problem.

For her next lesson she appropriated this idea in designing and implementing an engaging vocabulary activity that allowed students to work together and learn from each other (Daniel & Conlin, 2015; Ball, 2000; 2009). In a negative case (Strauss & Corbin, 1990) example, Tom spoke at length of how Dilin wasn't following him and how this resulted in little change through his practicum.

My study also found that for student teachers to implement new communicative practices, it was important for them to follow supervisor requests to tell exactly what they would say or do to repair problems interfering with CLT. They also needed to believe in these specific fixes. Like Liying and Jun, Chaoxing eagerly took up my requests to give specific fixes. She thereby came to a deeper understanding of their applicability and gained dialogical control (Frawley & Lantolf, 1985) over how they could be applied in future practice. Her belief in the specific solutions gave her teacher efficacy (Tang et al., 2012) to implement them in later practicum lessons. Jun also exhibited this skill in talking about the positive communicative effect that his simple fix of pairing students would have had on his first lesson. He then used this fix as a template for his CLT successes in lessons two and three. Dilin, however, only gave specific fixes under compulsion (Bakhtin, 1981), and in these circumstances, he didn't believe in their efficacy for future application. This partially accounts for his inability to apply these fixes in successive lessons.

The fifth finding was that when we could accomplish the purposes of the stages with mutual understanding to find solutions to CLT problems, the student teachers appropriated these solutions for implementation in future lessons. Accomplishing these stages seemed to allow the student teachers to follow my foreign conceptions of TESOL practice to realize why communicative problems had occurred and then understand how our solutions could be

applicable to future practice. But when we could not accomplish the purposes of the stages, the same problems reoccurred in successive lessons. In the first reflections, I found four instances when we did not accomplish the purposes of the six stages of progressive dialogue in discussing CLT problems. In all of these instances, these problems reoccurred in future lessons. By not accomplishing important stages we either (1) never found a recognizable solution for later application, or (2) the student teacher was unable to fully reconstruct a problem to understand how the solutions that we had found might be applicable to future practice.

And my sixth and concluding finding was that dialogue moved student teachers to appropriate many ideas for more professional, communicative TESOL practice (Rogoff, 1995). By tracing how ideas formed in our process of dialogue were produced in future lessons (Jocius, 2015), this study found 15 cases of appropriation that led to more communicative teaching. This dialogical appropriation helped student teachers design "tasks that…held their [students'] attention in the learning process" through meaningful communicative activities (Ball, 2009. P. 229). Dialogue played a major role in the professional development of these young TESOL practitioners.

Contributions, Limitations, and Directions for Future Research

In exploring the CLT problems and successes of Chinese student teachers in an American TESOL practicum, this study provides needed insights into how members of this population teach in the West, conceive of ELT practice, and engage in dialogue with a supervisor and mentor teachers to solve CLT problems. This section outlines this study's contributions to the literature. It then discusses the limitations of this study, and hence, directions for future research.

Contributions

This dissertation study provides perhaps the first detailed description of Chinese student

practicum teaching in the West. It therefore contributes important insights into the CLT problems and successes of a small but varied sample of Chinese student teachers in an American TESOL program. These descriptions may inform Western TESOL programs of likely problems of practice for this population of student teachers. Understanding these, Western TESOL programs can consider ways of modifying their curriculum to address these potential teaching problems before students enter practicum classrooms. This could speed beginning English language teacher (ELT) development for these prospective practitioners.

The findings of my study also contribute an important understanding of how home cultural practices travel into educational systems of activity with very different professional values and practices (Gutierrez, 2007; Tsui, 2005; Cole & Engestrom, 1993). Numerous studies from China have shown that practicum student teachers embedded in "Confucius Heritage Culture (CHC) classrooms" (Tang, Lee, & Chun, 2012, p. 103), reproduce home cultural practices from the "Chinese culture of learning that CLT strives to avoid" (Hu 2002, p. 98). Before this study, there were almost no reports in the literature on whether these practices would also travel into the communicative classrooms of a Western TESOL practicum (Wong, 2006). This study shows that Chinese student teachers in Western practicums also reproduce these CHC practices. It therefore contributes to the research literature in demonstrating the strength of cultural practices and how they travel across borders. It informs Western TESOL programs that they must devise ways to challenge the habitual and cultural conceptions of English language teaching that Chinese students are likely to carry with them. Through culturally sensitive challenge, these programs can better foster the professional development of these prospective English teachers (Ball, 2009).

But my study also contributes in showing hope for this work. It found that after some semesters in an American TESOL program, Chinese students exhibited robust communicative teaching intent when they entered practicum sites. In this way they differed from student teachers reported in the literature from China (Fang & Clarke, 2014; Edwards & Tsui, 2009; Lopez-Real, Law, & Tang, 2009; Tang, Lee, & Chun, 2012; Gan, 2013). This finding shows that the dialogical practices and teachings of Western ELT programs can have a strong influence on the "ideological development" of this population (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 345-346). The teachings and practices of American TESOL programs like ours can influence what Chinese student teachers want to achieve in their practice teaching: namely, to get students talking. This communicative intent helps to balance the effects of apprenticed, home cultural practices and gives hope for Western TESOL programs in moving East Asian students away from lecturing the basics to bored students.

My study speaks to how Chinese TESOL students in the West are engaged in "an intense struggle within…for hegemony among various verbal and ideological points of view, approaches, directions, and values" (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 345-346). They are engaged in a conceptual balancing act in weighing what it means to be a good teacher from the perspectives of two very different activity systems of education which they simultaneously inhabit (Gutierrez & Stone, 2000; Gutierrez, 2007). This study contributes to this theoretical understanding by being well-grounded in data that shows the lived experiences of my participants in their own words (Charmaz, 2006). It informs Western universities of the challenges that Chinese students face in adjusting to a new environment. But it also shows how Chinese student teachers who have made this journey are receptive to change in a world culture of education (Baker & LeTendre, 2005;

Lu, 2005; Park, 2006). TESOL programs can build on this receptivity to engage Chinese students in the exploration of communicative approaches, principles, and specific techniques.

On this note, my findings reinforce Grossman et al.'s (2009) argument for the importance of highlighting lesson parts for rehearsing the specific teacher language and moves to achieve more professional practices. It informs TESOL programs that they need to provide students with multiple opportunities to verbalize and rehearse specific moves for the given teaching situations that they will surely face. The implications from my study strongly suggest that this work should begin well before practicums begin.

This study also breaks ground in being the first of which I am aware that so clearly links the sociocultural theory that dialogue drives appropriation with empirical, dialogical moments when apprenticing teachers were appropriating ideas. It did so by painstakingly tracing the links between ideas for CLT that originated in excerpts of dialogue, with their implementation in successive lessons. It traced 15 instances of how student teachers appropriated ideas from dialogue to implement more professional communicative teaching (Jocius, 2015). In doing so it made axial links to lesson material, plans, interviews, member checks and other grounded data (Charmaz, 2006). This finding reinforces the sociocultural theory that dialogue builds knowledge to drive learning and development (Vygotsky, 1978, Bakhtin, 1981).

Yet this study builds on that contribution by explicating our process of dialogue in solving pedagogical problems for this appropriation. My identification of stages and work in them goes deeper than previous studies (Freeman, 1990; Skinner & Abbott, 2013; Pennycook, 2004; Farrell, 2001, 2003) in delineating the particular parts of dialogue that are essential for identifying problems of practice and seeking solutions for future application. This study also explicates important and principal moves and qualities that student teachers can employ to

benefit from post-lesson reflections with supervisors and mentor teachers. Knowledge of these moves, qualities, and this process can inform teacher trainers and student teachers of what to do for reflective learning (Freeman & Johnson, 1998). Researchers can draw on these findings for future exploration of how particular dialogical moves and processes work for teacher development.

Limitations

The applicability of this study is limited by its small sample size. Further and larger studies of Chinese student teachers in Western TESOL practicums need to be conducted. These could work to demonstrate the conditions in which my findings apply to this population in these programs.

This study was also situated in a particularly supportive TESOL program at a well-regarded university, with bright students, scholarly professors, professional mentor teachers, and a supervisor with decades of working experience with East Asian students. These circumstances differ in other Western TESOL programs and surely limit the applicability of my findings to these places. Future research needs to determine if the practices that I report are representative of Chinese student teacher practicum practice in other American and Western TESOL programs.

This study was unable to fully explore the links between the teachings of our TESOL program and the student teachers' practicum performance. This leaves some questions about the origins of teaching practices that I observed. Future studies need to investigate the links between TESOL program classroom learning and later student teacher practice. This may provide grounded answers to the complaint that TESOL program curricula ignore the English educational needs of international students (Phillipson, 1992; Canagarajah, 1999; Liu, 1998; Liyanage & Bartlett, 2008; McKay, 2000; Tseng, 2013).

Though the findings of my study are strongly supported by evidence from multiple data sources, they are the findings of a particular participant researcher. I believe that my study offers one important perspective on the type of teaching that I observed and the kind of dialogue in which I participated. But I am aware that it is limited in being one perspective. Future research on practicum teaching and dialogue needs to be conducted by other researchers so that we can comparatively investigate differing perspectives that may emerge. This can help us come to greater understandings of the phenomenon of Western TESOL practicum experiences for Chinese student teachers.

Directions for Future Research

Future research needs to follow student teachers who have successfully implemented CLT in a Western TESOL practicum, like Liying and Jun, to see what their teaching looks like afterwards. This would help us gain deeper understanding on whether Chinese ELT practice is regulated by the culture of their TESOL program and practicum sites, or by their agency and efficacy as professional practitioners (Ball, 2009).

Future studies must also investigate whether my findings on the stages of our dialogical process can be replicated. There may be other patterns and processes of dialogue that give us clues on how it is conducted for practicum learning. Furthermore, we need to verify the praxis between sociocultural theory that espouses dialogue as the key to knowledge building and the actual practices and outcomes of dialogical work in situated practicum settings. Dialogic intertextual analysis - like that performed in this study - needs to determine under what conditions dialogue truly advances student teacher learning and how. Considering this study's findings on the strength of home cultural practices for overseas students, research must also question when dialogue has a negative impact on pre-service teacher development. Studies need

to investigate how apprenticed practices are reproduced in practicums through dialogical interaction with supervisors and mentor teachers who support traditional cultural practices.

My committee member Dr. Stephen Heyneman wonders what changes in Chinese teacher practices may occur if the Gaokao had a speaking component. To investigate this, I propose that the Chinese Ministry of Education add this component to several regional Gaokao tests. I emailed participant student teachers to elicit their thoughts on possible outcomes. Dilin commented that change could only happen if a series of events occurred.

> *Also regarding the questions from Dr. Heyneman, I think generally it's a good thing to add the English speaking component to the National Entrance Examination, since the English education has been focusing too much on the grammar-translation approach, Chinese students are very strong in reading and writing, but very weak in speaking and listening, which will put them in disadvantage to their future academic and professional development. But it will take a while for the change to happen, since as you and other language professors know, it takes time, money and energy to train the Chinese English teachers who will not only buy in [to] the importance of the English communicative skills, but also knows how to enact the communicative language teaching approach in their classes effectively.* (Dilin, personal communication, August 16, 2018)

Dilin's response shows that the results of such a policy intervention would depend on several critical factors that could also be investigated. I hypothesize that if Dr. Heyneman came out of semi-retirement to design and conduct this intervention, it could achieve "sizeable effects" in Gaokao student achievement, similar to those that he and World Bank colleagues reported through a national intervention to increase the number of textbooks in Philippine classrooms (Heyneman, Jamison, & Montenegro, 1984, p. 147).

And finally, we need insider studies from East Asian researchers, like those provided by Lu (2005) and Park (2006), to explore TESOL experiences from their vantage. This is a ripe area of study for Chinese educational researchers . They could make important contributions to our understanding of conflictual, cross-cultural perspectives, as my student voices begin to do here.

Policy Implications

My study shows that Chinese student teachers can possess strong communicative teaching intent, though they will probably struggle with the tendency to implement cultural practices of lecturing and explaining language. My study also shows that in classrooms with CLT activity systems, Chinese student teachers will in all probability responsively follow their mentors to implement CLT. These findings have policy implications for ELT practicum training in China and Western TESOL programs as well.

If university programs in China can get student teachers into classrooms with CLT activity systems, prospective teachers will be much more likely to implement MOE mandated CLT. But the literature currently suggests that very few of these classroom environments exist. The MOE must devise a way to create more CLT-friendly classrooms. As numerous failed reform measures show, there are no easy answers on how to do this (Fang & Clark, 2014; Li, 2010). But two ideas suggested by Stephen Heyneman (personal communication, March 2019) might work to create more CLT classrooms for practicum teachers to learn and implement this approach. One is to increase the demand for CLT practitioners by adding a speaking component to the Gaokao. Another is to add a CLT certification to teacher training that includes a demonstrated ability to implement CLT. I believe that ideas like these, and in combination, should be experimented with at the local level to determine what might work most effectively for

creating more CLT classroom activity systems for practicum teacher training. These environments could move student teachers to take up CLT.

Western TESOL programs also need to engage with China's struggle to promote CLT and the struggles of Chinese student teachers to implement this approach. To foster engagement, an accreditation policy could be enacted that requires American ELT programs with Chinese students to implement a 6-hour unit on the Chinese MOE's struggles to foster CLT in the schools, teacher resistance to CLT, and student ideas on how this approach might begin to be more widely implemented. Such an accreditation policy could be diplomatically presented to China as a goodwill gesture to promote international cooperation in a world culture of education (Baker & LeTendre, 2005). Such a policy would better connect Western TESOL programs with the struggles that Chinese student teachers will face in trying to implement CLT. As sociocultural theory posits, engaging Chinese students in this struggle could help them gain agency to implement this professional approach to effect positive change in student lives (Ball, 2000, 2009; Bakhtin, 1981; John-Steiner & Meehan, 2000; Wells, 2000; Bereiter, 1994).

Conclusion

There are a growing number of Chinese students studying at Western universities. In the 2016-17 academic year, there were over 350,000 Chinese students at American universities (Shen, 2017). A significant number of these were in TESOL or ELT programs. Unfortunately, there has been very little research on this population to inform these programs of their learning needs. This study addresses that knowledge gap by reporting the challenges of Chinese student teacher practicum work in an American TESOL program. It shows the problems and successes that student teachers experienced in implementing the acknowledged professional practice of our

field, communicative language teaching (Brown, 2001; Liao, 2004). It also shows how our dialogue worked to solve problems of CLT practice for professional development.

It is my hope that more research like this study will better inform American and Western TESOL educators of the learning needs of this growing student body. I believe it is our responsibility to explore how to best meet Chinese student learning needs for English language teacher (ELT) development. In this mission it is important to remember that future Chinese teachers of English will affect the lives of tens of thousands of students. May these teachers serve as models of learning (Hu, 2002) who implement communicative activities in future practice to help their students develop strong communication skills in this vital international language.

APPENDIX

Appendix A

Coded Minutes from Chaoxing's First Lesson on a PowerPoint slide of her Story Map

Chaoxing Minutes, page 1 of 2

Ss enjoy sharing
Explicit Intro
Giving language
T Reading handout
Listening Ss
Explaining
Polite Ss
Good Ss
Silent Ss
Ss don't understand directions
Prodding
School Exercise: board writing
Unnatural work
Student volunteers
Short answers
Playing School
Handing out materials
Late instructions
Quiet Ss
Some Questions
School work: Outlining
T Suggestion
No Role play

= Names or Sites blocked out for anonymity.

Chaoxing Minutes, page 2 of 2

Classroom awareness
Helping Ss
Ss don't understand directions
Answer ?s
Silent Ss
Going through the motions
Quiet Ss
Ss helping each other
Ss don't understand directions
Don't understand activity
No Role play
Redirecting
Understand directions
Going through the motions
No Feeling
Silent Ss
Ss don't understand directions
Quiet Ss
Ss don't understand directions
Don't understand activity
Ss ask ?s
Explaining
Silent Ss
Tuned out
Bored
Ss finish too early
Wrap up
Activity result
No result
Challenged interpretation
Silent Ss
S volunteer
Reporting S success
Good job
Using new language
Disputing activity purpose
S voices
Responsive & Flexible
Hung in there, persistent

Appendix B

Feedback from Chaoxing's First Lesson

Chaoxing's First lesson 2.18.14

Ongoing analysis: The supervisor is critical of the lesson and couches criticism in problematic questions to ponder for how to have had an improved lesson and how to make better teacher moves in the future in similar circumstances.

Practicum Student Feedback

StudentSite ______ Site ______

Date of Observations 2.18.14 University mentor ______ (Keenan, observer supervisor)

Practicum I, II, III (circle one)

Great Work!

I liked the way you jumped right up and began the lesson in the spur of the moment and were ready to go. I thought you had pleasant demeanor with the Ss. You were receptive to their needs and questions during the lesson and you tried your best to answer them. I liked the way you didn't get flustered and you hung in there.

Think more about...

You gave out role play cards. What did you want them to do? Did they do what you wanted? How could you have gotten them to play the roles instead of just discussing the situation? Is it important to give clear directions? Have you thought more about how to sequence your lesson and what the results will be? Why couldn't the students understand the role play cards? How can you make the lesson clearer so they don't have so many questions? Was "outlining" the role play a key activity? Would you take that out next time?

Top copy: Student Middle copy: Official File Bottom Copy: University mentor

Ready to go

Pleasant Demeanor

Responsive & Flexible

Ss ask ?s

Answer ?s

Hung in there, persistent

Not Flustered

Materials

Unclear Directions

Meet objective?

Wrong Activity

No Role play

Unclear Directions

Sequencing problem

Don't understand activity

Confusing activity

Too many Ss ?s

Wrong Activity

Take out Activity

Appendix C

Keenan observing a lesson while writing Minutes with Feedback on his left

Appendix D

Narrative Descriptions of the Lessons

First Lessons: Home Cultural Practices but Communicative Intent

Teaching vocabulary was a primary way for student teachers to enact home cultural practices of teacher-centered knowledge giving through explanation and lecturing (Hu, 2002; Fang & Clark, 2014). In our first reflection, Dilin attributed the teacher-centered control he exhibited in explaining vocabulary to practices he had leaned while growing up, much like Chaoxing did to describe the vocabulary teaching of her third lesson. Jun and Liying also explained vocabulary to quiet students in their first lessons. Because the practices in these four lessons were similar and match those reported in the literature from China, I infer that the first lesson practices of Jun and Liying also had their origins in their home country.

Yet despite employing these home-country teaching practices “that CLT strives to avoid” (Hu, 2002, p. 98), first lessons also exhibited communicative teaching intent. This intent fit with the purposes of their American practicum classrooms. Chaoxing and Dilin attempted to engage students in role play activities. Liying successfully conducted a role play. And Jun was extremely frustrated in reflection that there “wasn’t much communication between the students.” He believed that he hadn’t lived up to Weldon program expectations to foster class dialogue.

Jun’s First Lesson

In the first lessons, Jun and Dilin had extensive problems interfering with CLT, but Jun had the most, nearly every problem on Table 5. This was because his lesson was entirely teacher-centered, conducted nearly five meters from the students, and as he said, consisted of “lecturing.” In the Minutes I noted that much of this lecturing was “explaining” the grammar and vocabulary of phrases from a handout that could be used for making complaints. A handout example was

"Look, I'm sorry to trouble you, but…" Jun told the students that he wanted to teach them how to complain politely. He was teaching the values of student conduct that are respected in the classrooms of China by practices that are also typically found there.

But in reflection, Jun showed his communicative intent for this lesson. He expressed regret that he "didn't see much interaction between the students." He postulated that this started from his introduction after he had asked "a wild question and…they kept really silently." He wanted the students to be talking, but he lectured to fill this silence. Jun interpreted this silence as students not understanding the words he was saying, the vocabulary. And he lamented that this first lesson teaching didn't meet program expectations to foster class dialogue.

Jun: Yes, because from perspective of a pre-service teacher, I'm certainly sure that I understand what the teacher's role should be, and but, for me personally, I didn't think I lived out to the expectations of the program, because as you know for, for a huge part of the teaching I was just lecturing because I wasn't sure if they get it.

Jun used "get it" nine times in over forty minutes of first lesson reflection. In seven of these instances he used "didn't get it" to express his primary concern that students didn't understand the vocabulary he was trying to teach. This usage emphasized Jun's lesson focus on language, not functions. His teaching objective was for the students to understand the vocabulary, not use it. I observed that his lesson plan "didn't have any content or functional SWBAT"[22] objectives. He had no communicative activity between groups of students in his lesson. Because his lesson was entirely teacher-centered, problems with instructions, modelling, and having no purpose for an activity were not applicable (NA on Table 5).

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[22] SWBAT means *Students will be able to* do something in a lesson. Professional teachers write lesson objectives in SWBATs, emphasizing that professional teaching involves the students in activity. The SIOP lesson plans that Weldon student teachers made in their Materials, Methods and Planning class, included both Language and Content SWBATs. They thereby planned to teach both language and content material for language learners. In TESOL, a Content SWBAT is usually referred to as a Functional SWBAT. Functions are actions involving communicative language use, like ordering in a restaurant, complaining about a problem, or scheduling an appointment.

Dilin's First Lesson

Dilin's first lesson had extensive problems resembling Jun's. He also explained language by lecturing, especially after presenting a PowerPoint slide with what he called "words you need to know" for "when you order from a menu" (Minutes). To test students' knowledge of these words, Dilin asked Initiation-Response-Evaluation (IRE) questions (Hall & Walsch, 2002; Cazden, 1988) by which "the teacher plays the role of expert, whose primary instructional task is to elicit information from the students to ascertain whether they know the material" (Hall & Walsch, 2002, p. 188). In observing this, I noted three instances in the Minutes of how Dilin merrily cut short student responses by finishing them himself. He also asked about and explained words that the students already knew.

> *You ask about 'brunch.' A student says a couple of words, you finish the rest of the explanation. You ask about 'entrée,' but then explain it. You glow about 'baklava.' "What does it mean, 'dinner?'" [you ask.] They know. Then you explain the difference between dinner and supper. Your explanations and class are fast-paced, and you are magnetic, charismatic, smiling, seem to feel comfortable, and enjoy explaining, but is this communicative?* (Minutes)

In reflection, Dilin was initially unaware that I viewed his explaining as professionally problematic. He fully owned his explaining as I compared his style to Feng's, who taught the first of the two lessons observed that day in Tom's class.

K:…So both of these parts were teacher-centered, but it sounds like there was kind of different strategies, and that your strategy was more of ask questions and see what the students say. And then your strategy was a little bit more of, um, ask questions…

D: Ask questions

K:…but then if you don't get a quick answer, explain it.

D: Explain it. Yeah, right away.

After a disagreement on this explaining (see Part 2, section 1), Dilin became aware of my perceptions. He excused the charismatic control he exerted over his class (Tang & Absalom, 1998) as "part of my personality" formed as "I grew up in an environment…[that] is very competitive."

Dilin: I was like always on the debate team. I was always doing the presentation, or the speechmaker of the class, of the school. And then, that's why even once I was standing in the classroom and become teacher…Actually I don't know. I don't, actually I'm aiming for a Feng-like, I also want to be a learner. (One hour into Reflection 1)

Here, Dilin's midsentence break from this narrative showed his realization he couldn't receive approval for explaining or lecturing like a teacher at home who masterfully demonstrates knowledge to fulfill a cultural role.

Further evidence for Dilin's realization came as we compared Feng's self-proclaimed role of "learner as teacher" with Dilin's charismatic style. Feng had listened to student responses and asked follow-up questions. I said that Feng's enacted role was "different than traditional roles of teachers in China." In response, Dilin jokingly identified with the traditional Chinese teacher role of "exerting complete control over the class all the time" (Hu, 2002, p. 99) by saying, "Yeah, I kind of feel like I was the boss of the class. Hehe!" In response I told him, "I don't think that's necessarily bad. Now I wrote, in the Great Work part in yours [Feedback] here I wrote, 'You have energy, charisma, are confident in what you want to say, and you have knowledge about the English.'" I then rhetorically asked Feng, "He looks like a teacher, doesn't he?" Dilin sarcastically added, "Chinese teacher!" Through self-deprecation, Dilin was aware of a need for change in this American classroom. And in the latter part of our first reflection he expressed a determined need for change.

D: I think how [exhaling deeply] I need to change the role as a teacher. Not as one who do the lecture all the time. Or trying to, you know, direct the whole class. But as more of a moderator

and a facilitator of the class, and how to engage students to learn. Well actually just provide the necessary scaffolding if they need it. If they don't need it, I'll just stand by, you know.

After this, Dilin spoke of how hard it would be to change his role. But this example shows how he was intent on employing new communicative teaching perspectives that he had gained from dialogical Weldon classes and the college community.

Dilin's lesson also exhibited this communicative teaching intent. He grouped the students, though not proficiently, gave them tasks, and the object of these was generating student conversation. He had realia, authentic material in the form of a menu from a Mediterranean restaurant near campus that he liked. His mentor teacher Tom called this a "step in the right direction" (Tom, personal communication, April 15, 2015). However, most of the menu items were not in English. In our post-practicum interview, Tom remarked, "It's not a Denny's menu. It doesn't just say *cheeseburger* and *macaroni*, and *rolls*" (Tom, personal communication, April 15, 2015). For these reasons, student groups had difficulty comprehending the words on this menu to answer three questions that Dilin had given them. I noted in the Minutes, "They are looking at the menu and trying to make sense of it. I don't think they are trying to answer the questions." Their difficulty in understanding this menu stifled conversation, which was not Dilin's object. "I find everyone so quiet. Talk!" he implored (Minutes).

Still his lesson had great communicative potential in that after this quiet, he conducted a role play. Students were to use this menu as customers and waiters in a restaurant. Customers could have exercised communicative skills in asking waiters about unknown menu items and waiters could have explained and apologized for being new on the job and not knowing. But Dilin didn't clearly give instructions, group the students, or model the activity. In Feedback I asked, "You wanted them to play roles of waiter/ress and customer, but didn't you need to assign

waiters and customers, have the waiters stand, and set it up so they play the roles?" Reflection revealed that poor lesson planning and implementation were behind these problems.

Chaoxing's First Lesson

Chaoxing's first lesson was comparable to Dilin's. It also had great communicative potential with a role play activity in which neighbors were to complain. Unlike Dilin's role play, Chaoxing had good material. She had made paired complaint cards. Each neighbor in a pair had a card giving their perspective of a complaint situation (see *Figure 8*).

You are having a problem with your neighbor:	Your neighbor is having a problem with you.
Your neighbor in her twenties is a member of a band. She and other band members use the next-door house as a practice room. During the last two months, they often rehearsed late into the night. You could clearly hear the music.	You are the leader of a band in your twenties. You and your band are working really hard to attend an important music festival. Your performance will decide all members' career. You are likely to win a contact with a big company if you do a great job.
However, you have a kid who needs good rest for school in the daytime. He or she is now having trouble sleeping due to the noise. Your husband has complained to the manager and the manager has talked to your neighbor. But it didn't work.	However, the couple and their son/daughter who live next door have already complained about your late night band practice during the last two months through the manager once.

Figure 8. One example of Chaoxing's paired complaint cards. There are two cards here; one for each neighbor. For CLT, students must be instructed not to show each other their cards.

Yet despite good material, Chaoxing had the same problems as Dilin in eliciting student communication: unclear instructions and no modelling of the activity. After handing out role cards, she made the mistake of telling "students to outline the problem with the main point, facts, and details" (Minutes). To follow these instructions, the students showed each other their cards. This took the suspense out of the situations. It turned the fun and games of a role play into her

valued home cultural practice of serious study (Hu, 2002). In the Minutes I observed, “The students then explain the problems to each other but they really don’t play roles.” Students were never clearly aware that they needed to play roles. Finally, a Japanese student formulated her own guess: “How can I talk with her? I pretend?!” (Minutes). While observing, I wrote this:

> *You go over to Song Hee and her partner, who have been silent, because they don’t know what to do. For some 7-8 minutes, Rozen and her partner have been quiet. The Japanese student still doesn’t understand. She asks questions while you explain. The other students are silent, watching. Song Hee has opened her book and is reading it. She is tuned out. Her partner yawns. Rozen and her partner are tuned out.* (Minutes)

The similar role play problems of Dilin and Chaoxing allowed for a comparison of their differences in reflection on these activities, which will be explored in Part 2 of this chapter.

Liying’s First Lesson

Unlike the other three, Liying successfully implemented a communicative role play. Her lesson exhibited the greatest communicative language teaching intent, per her pre-practicum teaching goal. Each student was given a card assigning a role as either a hotel receptionist with particular rooms available or a guest looking for particular accommodations. Guests were instructed to stand up and circulate to hotel receptionists to try to book a room.

But as her activity commenced, Liying noticed a problem with directions at tables in the back of her large class of over 20 students. Guests at these tables didn’t understand that they needed to stand up and circulate to other tables. Liying quickly moved to these tables to successfully give these directions. Her focus on student activity instead of her own teacher work (Daniel & Conlin, 2015), allowed Liying to fix this nascent problem to achieve her lesson’s objective. Tsui (2003) theorizes that good teaching requires this flexible, on-the-spot judgment to make sure that tasks are carried out. The room then erupted in conversation lasting 11 minutes. Booking rooms required extensive communication. One student was continually denied

accommodations because she had a pet. In the Minutes I wrote, "The students are very actively circulating. The room is getting hot. They have to speak louder over the din to make themselves heard."

When voices naturally died down, Liying executed a very professional wrap-up. She chose name sticks for several students to report on whether they had found or booked rooms. The class was very interested in hearing whether their classmates had obtained the activity's purpose of booking rooms. Students marveled as one receptionist reported booking four classmate guests.

Despite her success, Liying's lesson shared a common CLT problem found both in China and across the first lessons of this sample: teacher-centered instruction of vocabulary. For most of 20-minutes, she explained vocabulary. Like Dilin and Jun, Liying she did this with PowerPoint slides and through a handout. She also asked the students vocabulary questions and wrote their answers in a mind map on the board to "group or categorize what students said [by] room features, facilities, types of rooms" (Minutes). Discussing the technique in reflection, I concluded, "that wasn't communicative. That was you," meaning that she was doing most of the communicating, not the students. The Minutes recorded how this teaching looked.

> *9:36: You are now explaining these features like an advertisement. You ask what a motel is? You explain motor hotel, and explain [about] this. A few students are following this with voice confirmation. Many are looking on. Some are being silently polite, a little tuned out.*
> *9:39: Explain B & B and now guest house. "Have you tried Air B & B before?" A student says yes. You quickly explain and turn to hostel.*
> *9:40: "Let's go on to the room types. A double room is a double bed for 2 persons…but one person can sleep there, too." You write on the board as you explain. Do they need this? My answer is* ***NO****. Class is becoming more quiet as you continue explaining.* (Minutes)

In reflection, Liying shared the teacher thinking that vocabulary teaching and learning is of primary importance. She thought her "explanation is necessary for them." She argued that her English-proficient students might not know about these types of rooms and that they needed to

know to book hotel rooms on travel days. She postulated that teaching this vocabulary would help them overcome the "culture shock" she believed they were experiencing.

Second Lessons: Appropriating and Dismissing Ideas for CLT

Jun and Chaoxing, joined Liying in successfully implementing CLT in their second lessons. They did so by appropriating supervisor and mentor teacher ideas. These three had no problems interfering with CLT. In contrast, Dilin first accepted a lesson idea from me, but then rejected it, which led to another unsuccessful role play. These circumstances are described here.

Jun's Second Lesson

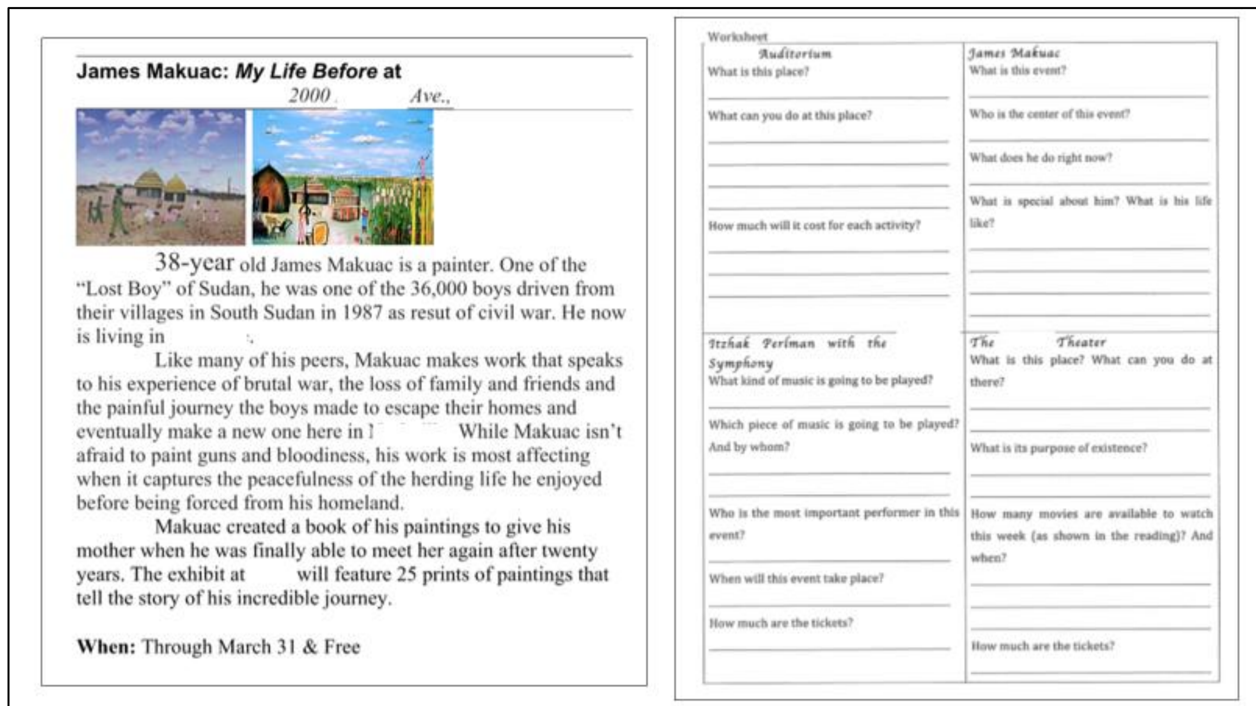
Jun reported appropriating second lesson ideas from our first reflection and a planning session before Lesson 2 that he had requested with me and his classmate Peter, who was doing his practicum alongside Jun. To begin his second lesson, Jun simply pulled out his cell phone, efficiently told the students about a problem with it, asked them to break normal class rules to pull out their phones, and then to freely talk about them. He instructed, "Introduce to your partner your cell phone…When did you get it? Do you just text?...Do you do anything else with it? And you can also talk about if you want to get a new one" (Minutes). In writing Feedback about how the students burst into conversation, I observed Jun's wisdom in avoiding vocabulary or sentence introduction, and how he had effectively implemented CLT.

> *You made a wise decision not giving them any set questions on a handout or on a PowerPoint. They could generate their own questions and conversation. You gave them space to talk with a minimal of interruption. They take this to try conversation, communication. They are talking a lot and laughing. These are the goals of communicative teaching, along with conveying info and learning, as is happening.* (Feedback)

After this activity, Jun successfully implemented a role play in which kids were asking their parents to buy them cell phones. I was amazed by his turnaround from the first lesson and became choked up at the end of our reflection when I said, "I'm very proud of you."

Chaoxing's Second Lesson

Chaoxing collaborated closely with her mentor teacher to design her second lesson. She adapted her initial lesson plan with real material that Molly recommended from a university website. Chaoxing gave each student in two groups of four a card with information on a weekend activity happening in our city. She also gave each a graphic organizer with four squares and questions she had designed to help them record information about activities (see *Figure 9*).



James Makuac: ***My Life Before* at**
2000 Ave.,

38-year old James Makuac is a painter. One of the "Lost Boy" of Sudan, he was one of the 36,000 boys driven from their villages in South Sudan in 1987 as resut of civil war. He now is living in .

Like many of his peers, Makuac makes work that speaks to his experience of brutal war, the loss of family and friends and the painful journey the boys made to escape their homes and eventually make a new one here in While Makuac isn't afraid to paint guns and bloodiness, his work is most affecting when it captures the peacefulness of the herding life he enjoyed before being forced from his homeland.

Makuac created a book of his paintings to give his mother when he was finally able to meet her again after twenty years. The exhibit at will feature 25 prints of paintings that tell the story of his incredible journey.

When: Through March 31 & Free

Worksheet

Auditorium	James Makuac
What is this place?	What is this event?
What can you do at this place?	Who is the center of this event?
How much will it cost for each activity?	What does he do right now?
	What is special about him? What is his life like?

Itzhak Perlman with the Symphony	The Theater
What kind of music is going to be played?	What is this place? What can you do at there?
Which piece of music is going to be played? And by whom?	What is its purpose of existence?
Who is the most important performer in this event?	How many movies are available to watch this week (as shown in the reading)? And when?
When will this event take place?	How much are the tickets?
How much are the tickets?	

Figure 9. Material for Chaoxing's second lesson, information gap activity. On the left, a card that one student in a group of four received. Right: An organizer to collect information on all four cards.

Then she clearly instructed the students to ask each other about their activities to fill out the organizer with the object of choosing the one they wanted to attend. This time, Chaoxing gave good directions by telling the students not to show their cards to other students in their group, a mistake she determined not to repeat from her first lesson and reflection. Students proceeded to ask and answer each other's questions in this classic information gap activity. Like

Jun, Chaoxing had taken my advice from first reflections to skip vocabulary teaching if it wasn't needed. Successful student communication in both lessons showed that it wasn't.

Notwithstanding this success, Chaoxing made a teacher move that decreased student "levels of conversation…by over 50%," (Keenan, Post-lesson Reflection). One of the groups of four began the activity by pairing up to talk one-on-one. Two students were speaking at a time. But Chaoxing "interrupted" this productive conversation to instruct the group that "only one should talk at a time because they won't have to repeat themselves" (Minutes). This interruption silenced the students. The students seemed to wonder if they had done something wrong. Then the vocal Turkish student told about her event for several minutes, continuing to silence the less proficient East Asian students in her group.

Afterwards, to begin our second reflection, Chaoxing gave a reason why she may have restricted student talk with this instruction: "I prefer talking to students directly. But this time, I spent a lot of time letting them talk. And I am the outsider, so I feel lonely, hehe, in my classroom. So that's maybe why I think I did better last time." This quote shows how Chaoxing preferred teacher-centered instruction like that typically found in China's classrooms. In enacting a successful CLT lesson, she felt uninvolved and that her role in class work was too small. "My classroom" is a curious usage because it was Molly's classroom. It suggests the sense of teacher authority that is also typically found in Chinese classrooms. Chaoxing lacked the professional vision (Goodwin, 1994) to notice that her second lesson was much better than the first. In our reflection, she was also unable to initially notice how she had restricted communication and how it had affected her students. These things foreboded future problems in implementing CLT.

Liying's Second Lesson

Liying taught vocabulary on Saint Patrick's Day, following her mentor teacher's lesson

in which he recited “The Orange and the Green.” But this time she did it through a simple communicative activity that combined her first reflection idea of letting students define words and my coached idea to give them the definitions for matching. The activity was built around a video she selected about St. Patrick’s Day.[23] This talked about the history of St. Patrick and the celebration. Liying then selected difficult vocabulary words from this, put each on a strip of paper, and put its definition on another strip. Some of the definitions were written in the form of questions in which the words were the answers. To begin the class, she gave each table four strips: two with words and two with their definitions. In Feedback I wrote, “The students can see there is a purpose to the lesson beginning, something they should do with the strips. They gather around these and begin murmuring to guess their task. They want to work.” She then showed the video. Afterwards, Liying gave tables four minutes to discuss their words and their definitions. Instead of the teacher-centered explaining of her first lesson, the students in this second lesson were now “talk[ing] to each other first. And each group can come up with the definition of the word” (Minutes). In Feedback under “Great Work!” I wrote, “Students immediately got to work. This part is a good way to communicatively teach content. Students are engaged in this academic learning. These are difficult words. You were wise to limit the number of word/definition strips.” The students at my table had the words “missionary” and “patron saint.” At another table, students had “trinity” and “shamrock.”

In reflection we agreed on the communicative success of this vocabulary activity. But this was only a preliminary to her main communicative activity. This was for students to circulate and ask each other about an important holiday in their home countries to decide which one they would like to experience the most. In Feedback on this activity I wrote,

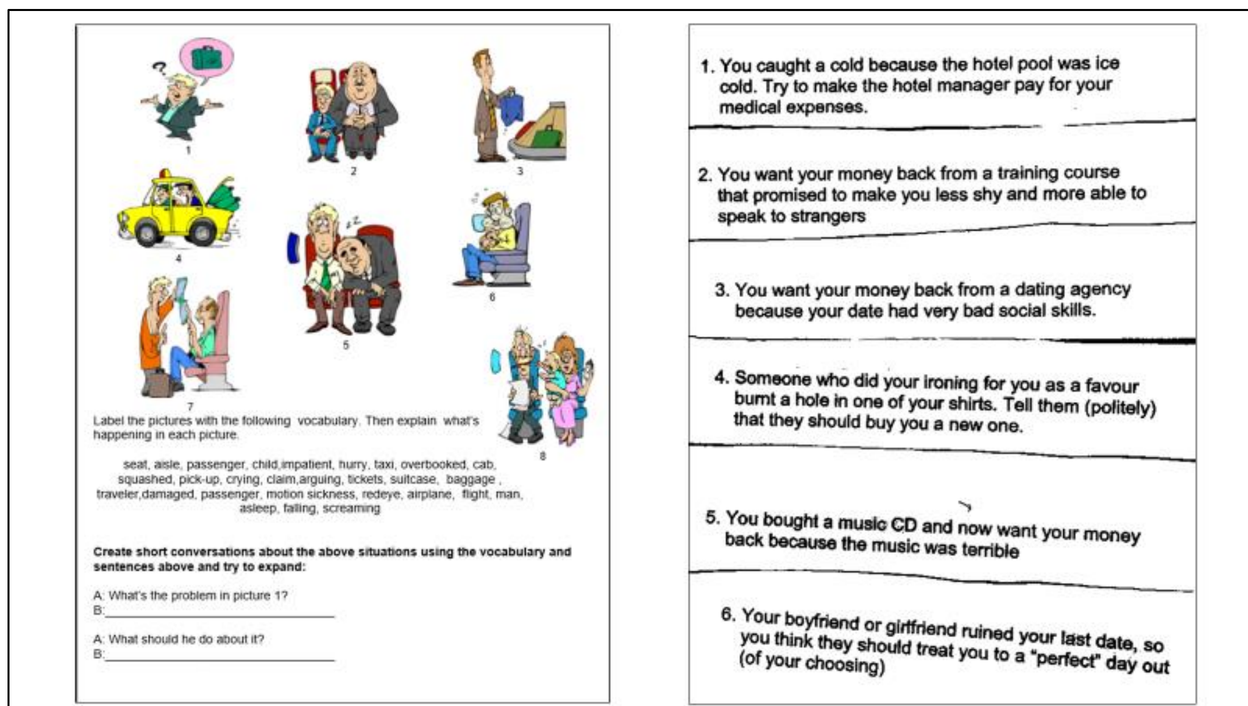
[23] During Liying’s first weeks in our program while attending my academic workshop, I introduced the technique of showing videos to open presentations as a favored practice at Weldon.

> *…there is a lot of talking. The students are gesticulating, leaning forward, eagerly listening, talking about, asking check questions about, comparing and learning about each other's cultures. You keep behind the tables, but circulate to see if help is needed anywhere.* (Feedback)

Dilin's Second Lesson

Dilin's second lesson was professionally problematic. Again, the major problem was that he did not follow a plan with material he had gathered. He showed me this material the night before the lesson in the library where he was working and wondered what to do with it. I helped Dilin develop his idea for a first activity and detailed how he could build on this student work to do a role play for a second activity. Dilin studiously took notes to implement this plan as an experiment we looked forward to seeing.

He followed this plan with success in the first activity of his lesson in which partners were looking at pictures of complaint situations on a handout and identifying the problems (see *Figure 10*, left-side). However, instead of pasting each picture on a piece of cardboard or thick paper to distribute to partners for a role play in activity two, as I had advised, Dilin had found decontextualized written scenarios and attempted to use this material (see *Figure 10*, right-side). Instead of clear pictures of complaint situations, students had to read these ambiguous strips of text to infer what to complain about. Some scenarios were not clearly complaint situations. Some of them did not clearly specify who the two parties were. And two of the six were dating situations that were of questionable appropriateness for Dilin's married Muslim students. One of these women reported being unable to do the role play because her husband was "perfect." When I reflected with Tom after the practicum on how the material was "so culturally inappropriate," Tom replied, "I know. I know. Even for a class that is called English for Spouses" (Tom, personal communication, April 15, 2015).



Label the pictures with the following vocabulary. Then explain what's happening in each picture.

seat, aisle, passenger, child,impatient, hurry, taxi, overbooked, cab, squashed, pick-up, crying, claim,arguing, tickets, suitcase, baggage , traveler,damaged, passenger, motion sickness, redeye, airplane, flight, man, asleep, falling, screaming

Create short conversations about the above situations using the vocabulary and sentences above and try to expand:

A: What's the problem in picture 1?
B:____________________

A: What should he do about it?
B:____________________

1. You caught a cold because the hotel pool was ice cold. Try to make the hotel manager pay for your medical expenses.
2. You want your money back from a training course that promised to make you less shy and more able to speak to strangers
3. You want your money back from a dating agency because your date had very bad social skills.
4. Someone who did your ironing for you as a favour burnt a hole in one of your shirts. Tell them (politely) that they should buy you a new one.
5. You bought a music CD and now want your money back because the music was terrible
6. Your boyfriend or girlfriend ruined your last date, so you think they should treat you to a "perfect" day out (of your choosing)

Figure 10. Material for Dilin's second lesson. On the left, one page of the complaint situation pictures Dilin initially planned to use for two activities, including a role play. Instead, Dilin gave each pair one of the decontextualized strips on the right for the role play activity.

In post-lesson reflection, we spent considerable time trying to determine if two or three of the six groups knew what to do and could perform their role plays. When I asked why he had chosen the written scenarios over pictures that students had already deciphered, Dilin said this.

Dilin: Part of the reason was that I didn't find the cardboard. I didn't get it. And I'm thinking it might be too easy for them…I had the feeling that they might use the same language. They might think, 'Oh we're still talking about this for 40 minutes.' And then you know they might get bored…So I thought, 'Oh, okay, I can find different thing that is still related to the, it's not in the picture, it's more in the words that they can read.'

Keenan: That's abstract. This is so *abstract*, these problems…Whereas the pictures were very, very clear situations.

Dilin's remark showed three things that interfered with his ability to create a communicative activity. First, he didn't realize that the language used to describe complaint situations was "going to be different" than the language used to make complaints (Keenan, Reflection). Second, he turned the functional activity of complaining into a language learning lesson of the abstract

words on the scenarios. In the Minutes I recorded that when the students became “confused,” Dilin interrupted the activity to explain the words “social skills,…decorum, empathy, sympathy and writing them on the board.” These words were not even on the scenario strips. As in Lesson 1, Dilin made the choice of explaining vocabulary over facilitating student communicative activity. He valued vocabulary teaching more than student activity.

And the third thing that interfered with Dilin’s ability to implement CLT in his second lesson was that he could not easily create material for communicative activity, despite teaching English for four years at a technical college in China. Supporting this claim, Tom found that Dilin didn’t have to create lesson material there. He simply taught by the textbooks. Tom spoke of how Dilin wanted to continue teaching without modifying material to make it engaging.

T: I really feel like these guys wanted it handed down. And, um, Dilin even said, “Oh, you know, we’ve never had to do this before in China. We get the book, and we open it up to page 13, and we pretty much just start teaching.” The students don’t expect, the students don’t expect anything to be fun or engaging, or relevant or anything like that. They’re just kind of sitting there waiting for what’s always been done kind of thing. And so that’s kind of the paradigm they were coming from and that seems like how they even wanted to teach after two years of being at Weldon. So I was surprised by that. (Tom, personal communication, April 15, 2015)

Tom did not recognize much progress toward professional TESOL practices from either Dilin or Feng after two years in our Weldon program.[24] His statement showed that Dilin had achieved little generative teacher change (Ball, 2000, 2009). Sadly, Tom cited low Chinese student expectations as a reason why Dilin felt no need for change. And Dilin affirmed that students were not as important as teachers in our third reflection.

D:…Because you know *in our culture*, ***teachers*** *are* the *authority*. Teachers are the knowledge, the most knowledgeable person in the classroom. The students answer. They are, you know, it doesn’t matter. You know, I think you know because you have been living in South Korea for so many years! Haha!...

[24] Feng had a serious illness during our practicum which impeded progress. She also wanted to become a translator. In contrast, Dilin wanted to further his career as an educator.

K: Yeah.

D:…You know like, in our culture, the difference [and] the tricky part is, we do, we think, 'Oh teachers are the most important thing in the class.'…

Dilin's adamancy in saying this showed that he relished the hierarchical role of a teacher in China. In his experience, this role included not having to carefully consider how modifying lesson material might "effect positive change in…[student] lives" (Ball, 2009, p. 50). Nor did it include the "responsibility to explore with students the tasks that will hold their attention in the learning process" (Ball, 2000, p. 229). Instead, Dilin pointed out that the teacher's responsibility was to convey important knowledge to students, which in Dilin's second lesson were the English words, not pictures. Dilin had taken this responsibility seriously. And concurrently, the Chinese Department strongly approved of how he responsibly taught Chinese words and grammar. However, our practicum purposes were to also foster student-centered, communicative activity.

After spending considerable reflective time analyzing problems from both of his lessons, I summarized these by saying, "I see a lot of jumping around." By this I meant his unpredictable moves during lessons, his last-minute changing of plans, and his numerous extra-curricular activities that prevented him from focusing on the practicum. To try to change this, I assigned Dilin to work closely with mentor teacher Tom in preparing his final lesson.

There was hope for this change in that Dilin's second lesson showed that he was trying to "change…[his] role as a teacher…to…more of a moderator and a facilitator of the class" (Dilin, First Reflection). But Dilin was conflicted because he believed that the students didn't use English well enough to learn from each other in communicative activity. To support this belief, he referenced some research findings I had presented earlier that day for the Chinese Department's lecture series that he had organized and hosted.

K: And, uh, I could see too that you were trying, these activities, they had a student-centered intention. And, um, that you were trying to stand back, too. How did that feel?

D: Well, it feels so, haha, not that tired! You know, I feel, you know from a, people from the East Asian culture is as you know, I do feel, you know, I don't know. If I taught like this in China, I might be fired.

K: Hahaha!

7:01

D: Students might not like me. No, seriously, they might not like me.

K: Yeah. I know you're being serious. Yeah.

D: It's a very serious thing. They are really not learning anything from *you*! You know, as you said before, a lot of Asian students, they don't want to talk to people. That's why you said today in your talk, you said group work didn't work very well…in China, because a lot of people think, "Oh, why am I supposed to talk to you?! Well your English is not as good as me." Or, "I want to talk to the native speaker teacher." But today I did let them to learn from each other. I, you know, I kind of think, I know that they do learn a lot from each other. Because, I shouldn't take control all the time: do the lecturing. Because you see some of them, their English is way, way, way high.

In this statement, Dilin showed how he was struggling with the values and practices of two very different activity systems of education. First, he showed professional awareness of Chinese cultural resistance to CLT (Hu, 2002). Implementing CLT in Chinese classrooms can amount to a breach of duty. Dilin was struggling to implement an approach that might get him fired back home. But secondly, he was trying to remain open to the idea that students can "learn from each other" in the communicative practices that Weldon's TESOL program advocated.

Third Lessons: Building on Success and Going Back to Basics

This section first reports how Jun and Liying built on their previous lessons to successfully implement CLT in their third lessons. After that it reports how Tom helped Dilin plan his third lesson, but Dilin stuck with the home cultural basics of focusing on language, not CLT activity. Then it concludes by reporting how Chaoxing also went back to these basics.

Jun's Third Lesson

Jun followed the same template he had applied in lesson two. He quickly presented a personal problem: this time that he missed Chinese food from his own country. He then showed students photos on a PowerPoint of mouth-watering dishes from China. Afterwards, he showed slides of scrumptious dishes from their home countries. Tom praised how he had "created the material," and gave a glowing example of how he presented it: "Here's sauté from Indonesia!" (Tom, personal communication, April 15, 2015). This presentation elicited oohs and aahs from students. Then Jun simply asked them to stand up, find partners, and talk about favorite foods from their home countries. He gave several questions they could ask each other, including "How do you eat it?" and "How do you cook it?" (Minutes). He also gave students 20 minutes for this activity in which they were "speaking naturally as if in a coffeeshop [or] with friends at home" (Feedback). He again made the wise decision to not pre-teach vocabulary. But to wrap-up the lesson, he asked a few students the recipes to these foods to write them on the board with transition signals like "First," "Then," and "Finally." He praised students who included these in recipes and added them for those who did not in what Diane Larsen-Freeman (Personal Communications, 1998-1999), and one of Jun's professors, call grammar *noticing*. After the lesson, students continued buzzing about the foods they had shared.

Liying's Third Lesson

Liying taught "one of the best" CLT lessons "I have [ever] seen" (Feedback). To each table with mixed students from different nationalities, she gave three photocopied pictures of popular app icons, like Instagram, WeChat, and LINE. Then Liying simply instructed tables to analyze how these "make our communications easier" (Minutes). I observed that "they are fascinated about comparing what's popular across countries. It's amazing how this topic is of

such explosive interest" (Feedback). In the wrap-up, students listened closely to each other and commented to table partners on what was said. Then Liying showed a video clip of "people using iPhones with apps," after which she asked, "What do you think?" Several students then gave Liying the lead-in to the next part of her lesson by talking about the downsides of this technology. One woman said, "More connected, but less connected with people around you. My husband is, whenever you see him he is just with his cell phone" (Minutes). After listening to them elaborate, Liying instructed each table to come up with three pros and three cons about this technology. While they mentioned pros, like easy "access to information," tables were "bringing up negative points in critical discussion…like 'how you have less real relationships…and it's a waste of time…[and] it's hard not to friend your boss'" (Minutes). Liying achieved the Weldon objective of using the practicum as a positive experience to practice things that she had learned.

Dilin's Third Lesson

Dilin's initial lesson three plan included apartment advertisements he had found online and a colorful organizer to record information on five different apartments (see *Figure 11*, right-side). Clearly this material could be used for a communicative role play much like that of Liying's hotel lesson or Chaoxing's second lesson. Then Tom helped Dilin make this plan more meaningful for students - much like Molly had helped Chaoxing plan lesson two - by linking Dilin to real apartment ads (see *Figure 11*, left-side). Dilin's students also showed great interest in these materials for personal use after class.

But unfortunately, Dilin didn't follow his plan. He spent 30 minutes teaching vocabulary, which left, to his mind, only a short time to do the role play. He wrapped the role play up after 7-8 minutes, during which one of the three groups of partners needed more instructions from Dilin. Unlike his final plan in which "each student will ask 5 of his/her classmates about their favorite

types of housing in the ads," the students never had enough time to change partners. He had neither instructed them to do so, nor modelled this. And while giving role play instructions, a student asked a question about vocabulary from the previous lesson part. Instead of asking her to please hold that question until later, he interrupted his instructions to answer it. Then he continued to explain two more related vocabulary words. It was difficult for Dilin to stop explaining words.

Figure 11. Material for Dilin's third lesson. On the left, four of the 12 apartment ads Dilin gave to students. Right: A graphic organizer to record information on five different apartments.

On a positive note, we reflected on how the beginning of his vocabulary lesson was communicative. Students stood up, chose pictures of items for apartments, and chose word cards. They then worked to tape these pictures and words together on a poster. Students discussed choices and argued about cards they had chosen. Thereby, Dilin showed some success in achieving his first reflection goal of role change from an explainer to more of a "learner as a teacher." He listened to student voices, an important step up Ball's (2009) ladder. And he

commented that this new role didn’t feel like teaching. He gleefully said that his Chinese classmates in practicums felt the same: “I talked to my cohort students, my cohort. And all of us say, ‘Oh! We didn’t teach anything in the class! You know, like this class, we didn’t teach anything. We just let students learn!’” Dilin was cleverly insinuating that in practicing CLT, teachers were not doing their jobs. A later member check revealed that during the practicum, he thought that teachers “are the only authoritative and right source of the knowledge” (Dilin, personal communication, August 14, 2017).

With his penchant for cross-cultural comparison, Dilin appreciated the big differences in Eastern and Western approaches to teaching. But unlike his classmates, he still failed to realize how much work went into the planning and successful implementation of communicative language teaching. He didn’t realize this because he hadn’t followed Tom, me, or the teaching assistant in the materials, methods, and planning class through the careful dialogical, conceptual practices of lesson planning.[25] Dilin still conceptualized CLT as giving the students material, preferably realia, and the freedom to do with it what they may. In professional contrast, Tom and I conceptualized it as giving the students good material, too, but with specific instructions with game-like rules, modelling, and objectives for exchanging information in communication (Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Rao, 2002; Brown, 2001). Due to Dilin’s half-hearted attempts to implement CLT, students experienced similar communicative problems across his lessons.

Chaoxing’s Third Lesson

In her third lesson, Chaoxing went back to the home-cultural basics of teacher-centered vocabulary instruction. This movement began with Molly assigning her to teach vocabulary words on cooking to prepare students for the final class, potluck party. Chaoxing only had a short

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[25] Students learned to construct SIOP lesson plans in this class. Dilin reported that the TA had given him much assistance with lesson planning. This included pep talks to focus on his practicum planning and practice.

period of time to plan this lesson because of many end-of-the-semester assignments. Her planning time was shorter than that for her CLT information gap in the second lesson. In discussing this situation with Molly, Chaoxing apparently interpreted her mentor as saying that her CLT planning and execution for lesson two was the exception in TESOL. Chaoxing came to understand that home-culture vocabulary teaching practice was the norm of instruction.

Chaoxing: Yeah, because Molly this time she said that probably you won't have so many authentic activities in the future teaching, because you don't have enough time to plan that much before every class. So she kind of gave out the assignment of how to introduce words to your students. (Reflection 3)

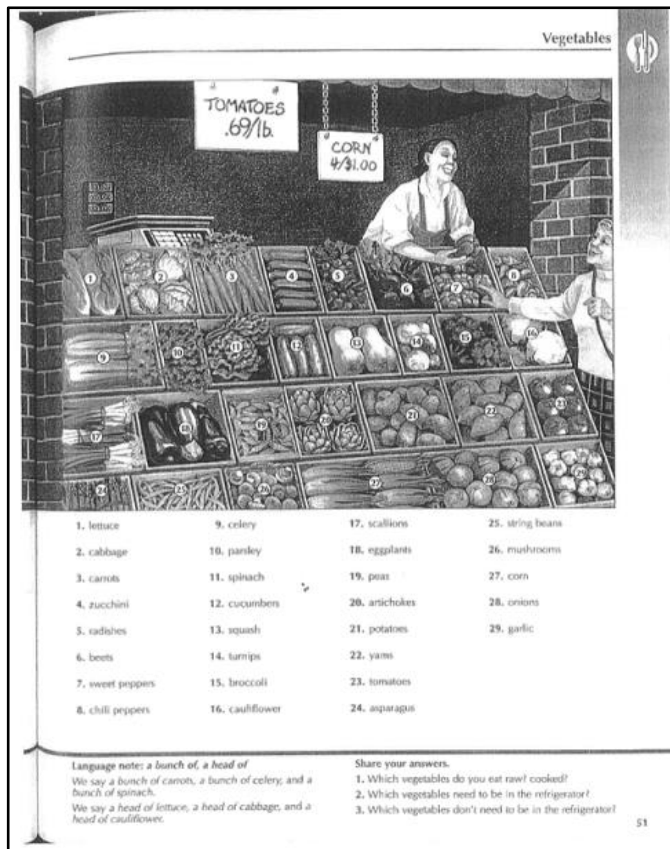
With this understanding, Chaoxing planned and delivered a very schoolish, teacher-centered lesson on over 120 words on PowerPoint slides and at least five handouts. Ninety of these words came from three pages of a picture dictionary (see *Figure 7*). Chaoxing instructed the students to do Round Robin Reading of these words whereby each student read one word in turn until all words had been read. She encouraged vocabulary questions. Her vocal Turkish student asked many questions while other students remained silent after reading their words.

Chaoxing also brought in kitchen utensils, including a whisker and tongs, which she showed and named for students. She thought she had to do this teacher show and telling for real learning to occur: "I still think I still have to have their attention because I brought the utensils to the class and I want them to see the real stuff" (Chaoxing in Reflection).

Considering the lack of communication from most students, I questioned Chaoxing's practice in Feedback. I wondered if she could have conducted a more communicative vocabulary activity with pair work like I had introduced to practicum students from my favorite textbook, *English Firsthand 1*.

> *Could you have had an activity, like in* Firsthand 1*, that had students talking in pairs to review and learn this vocabulary? A reason I ask is that some students have hardly talked*

over 25 minutes. Your show and tell of the foods and utensils lasts about 40 minutes. This has been pleasant but T-centered. Did you plan on this lasting for so long? (Feedback)



Vegetables

TOMATOES .69/lb.

CORN 4/$1.00

1. lettuce
2. cabbage
3. carrots
4. zucchini
5. radishes
6. beets
7. sweet peppers
8. chili peppers
9. celery
10. parsley
11. spinach
12. cucumbers
13. squash
14. turnips
15. broccoli
16. cauliflower
17. scallions
18. eggplants
19. peas
20. artichokes
21. potatoes
22. yams
23. tomatoes
24. asparagus
25. string beans
26. mushrooms
27. corn
28. onions
29. garlic

Language note: ***a bunch of, a head of***

We say a bunch of carrots, a bunch of celery, and a bunch of spinach.

We say a head of lettuce, a head of cabbage, and a head of cauliflower.

Share your answers.

1. Which vegetables do you eat raw? cooked?
2. Which vegetables need to be in the refrigerator?
3. Which vegetables don't need to be in the refrigerator?

51

Figure 7. One of Chaoxing's three handouts for Round Robin Reading of vocabulary

The pleasantness of Chaoxing's lesson was the result of how she had established very good relations with her students. They enjoyed class with her. Despite the CLT problems, my Feedback also noted, "Somehow the lesson seems to match the natural rhythm of these patient women and they seem to be pleasantly enjoying it." When I commented in reflection that the atmosphere "seemed very comfortable, very pleasant," Chaoxing expressed satisfaction in recreating the classroom environment that she liked as a student.

Chaoxing: Yeah. That's kind of the classroom atmosphere I like when I was a student. Yeah, I'm still a student. Haha. Um, so, changing the position I'm the teacher, I want to create that kind of atmosphere for the students so that they're willing to talk. And when I was writing something on the whiteboard for the Taboo game, I heard that they were asking questions as I told them to do. And they were using the words I just introduced, the verbs, the names, and I feel very happy.

Chaoxing’s comment is an example of how practicum student teachers are caught between student and teacher roles, and sometimes confuse these. Dilin’s previously quoted narrative from our first reflection exhibited some of the same confusion.

Though Chaoxing was very happy with the mood she had created through teacher-centered work, her happiness stemmed from how the students followed her instructions to use the words in conversation with each other. Although Chaoxing had this communicative teaching intent, she reproduced valued, Chinese teaching practices. Chaoxing’s teacher thinking was between a Chinese cultural activity system of education and a Western TESOL program’s activity system of dialogical, CLT ideology (Gutierrez, 2007).

Appendix E

Bloome and Egan-Robertson (1993) Heuristic for investigating the Social Construction of Intertextuality

	Participants				Form				Function/strategy												Genre/event type	Intertextuality dimensions/levels								Literacy issues			
Line number	S-Ss	T-Ss	Speaker	Addressee	Question	Statement	Response	Other	Initiate interaction	Initiate topic	Request	Informing	Express personal	Agreeing	Disagreeing	Ignoring	Bid for floor	Allocate turn	Control	Other		Propose	Recognize	Acknowledge	Social consequence	Words/message	Interactional unit	Genre	Other	School text/basal	School instruction convention	Text authority	Other literacies
35			J	R		S			I	T			P								I-like	★				★		★	★				★
36			R	J				O					P	A									★	★	Define J & R as readers	★		★	★				★
36			T	★		S				T																							
37			T	★		S						I									Recitation	★						★		★	★		
38			T	★		S						I														★		★		★	★	★	
38			J	R		S							P													★		★	★				★
39			J	R				O												O								★	★				★
39			Ss	T			R	O									B						★	★	Define speaking roles	★		★		★	★	★	
40			T	★		S					R								C							★		★		★	★	★	
41			Ss	T			R	O									B									★		★		★	★	★	
42			T	★		S					R	I						C								★		★		★	★	★	
42			J	R		S														?													
43			T	★				?												?													
44			J	R		S						I																★	★	★			
45			J	R				O												O								★	★	★			
46			J	–				O	I																								

Appendix F

A page from my Modified Version of the Bloome and Egan-Robertson (1993) Heuristic

Analytic Note: The dialogic process is one of inching toward acceptance of the need to change to professional practices of which the ST is already aware.

Genre Event Type	Text of Dialogue	Form	Function/ Strategy	Reference	Recognize Acknowledge	Social Consequence
☆ Softening the blow	C: Asked questions to each other? K:…gotten into. Yeah. Gotten into groups a little bit earlier and asked each other some questions about that. Shuang, did that a little bit more with her first activity. I'm wondering if that would have been some type of thing that you would have also wanted to get into a little bit sooner. Because there were, it was about 40 minutes where it was the same… C: Ohh! K:…Yeah, it was about 40 minutes where it was the same… C: Yeah. K:…and like I said I think it was pleasant and comfortable and relaxed and everything. And low stress, low affective filter and stuff. But I'm just wondering if *maybe* it wasn't a little long and… C: Yeah, if I have the chance to do that again… K: Uh huh. C:…Um, I would ask them to describe words, or ask each other questions on the verb in a small group. But, about the utensils, I think I still have to have their attention because I brought the utensils to the class and I want them to see the real stuff.	Question Statement Statement Statement Statement Interjection Statement Statement Statement Statement Interjection Statement Statement	Anticipate my words Agree Map out specific activity – Redo Fix; Comparing Re-initiating Redo Fix Giving a Reason for Redo-Fix Express Surprise Confirming Accepting Assessing Re-assessing to Re-initiate Redo Fix Accepting! Agreeing. Encouraging Redo-Fix Assessing	Group Work Checking's idea Group work Shuang did it Specific Time! Specific Time! Specific Time Specific Time Good class environment. Redo Fix Proposal Checking's Redo-Fix Small group, ask questions plan Utensils Student Attention I brought Authentic Realia	R-A RA RA. RA RA. RA RA RA RA RA! RA RA RA	I know professional thinking in specific activity. Yes you do know! Group work is the answer. Yours could have been like hers. We keep wondering as teachers. We keep considering. I didn't realize it was that bad!! It really was that bad. Okay. Now we're on same page. It wasn't all bad though. There were good pro things as we had discussed. Now that I see the problem, I take responsibility to fix it!! I shut up when you're on track I will fix with professional practices I brought realia because I'm professional and the students need to pay attention to me for this part and recognize my professionalism

A

Appendix G

Theoretical Questions to ask of the Reflective Dialogues

Theoretical Questions to Ask of the Reflective Dialogues

From *Vygotskian Perspectives on Literacy Research: Constructing Meaning through Collaborative Inquiry*

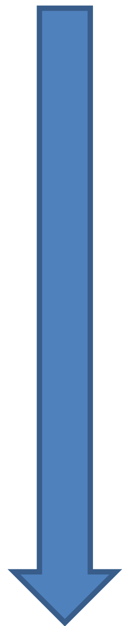
- Is there "give-and-take?"
  (Lee, C. D., p. 192)
- Is knowledge reconstructed and co-constructed with Dilin?
  p.35
- Is there the construction of the new with Dilin?
  p. 35
- Does the supervisor, or teacher, adequately share his knowledge?
  p. 37
- Is there collaborative meaning-making through discourse?
  p. 71 on the important features of knowledge building by G. Wells
- Do we work toward the "four commitments" of "progressive discourse" (Bereiter, 1994; Wells, 2000, pp.72-73)?
    - Do we "work toward a common understanding that is satisfactory to all" of us? Is there understanding?
    - Do we "frame questions and propositions in ways that allow evidence to be brought to bear on them?"
    - Do we "expand the body of collectively valid propositions?"
    - Do we "allow any belief to be subjected to criticism if it will advance the discourse?"
- Do we come to "a new understanding that everyone involved agrees is superior to their own previous understanding?" (Bereiter, 1994, p. 6).
- Is there what Wells (2000) calls "progressive discourse" for "knowledge building" whereby "dialogue…is focused on the object of the activity and aimed at making an answer to a question or a solution to a problem?" Do we make answers to solve the pedagogical problems we are talking about? What are the qualities of these answers? Are they about what teachers can actually do or implement? Or are they just broad theoretical principles or broader objectives or even just ways of being? Or do they include this full range from concrete things to do in practice to the theoretical principles behind them? In other words, a praxis?
  p. 75
- Are there the two features that are paramount to knowledge building through dialogue: Responsivity and the attempt to achieve enhanced understanding? Am I responsive? Is the student teacher responsive? Are we attempting to achieve enhanced understanding? Or are we being divisive?
  p. 75
- Do we establish "ties across time, texts, and events?" (Putney et al., 2000, p. 92; Bloome & Bailey, 1992; Bloome & Egan-Robertson, 1993). Or do we not recognize, acknowledge, or understand the intertextual references that we are trying to convey to each other? Do we

recognize the text, but not acknowledge, understand, or fully comprehend the meaning being attributed to it?
p. 92

- Bakhtin (1986) quote on the Responsive: Does Dilin or do other student teachers eventually show a "responsive understanding?" (pp. 68-69). Does a "delayed reaction" emerge later on?
p. 93
- Does the student teacher internalize and transform the help received from supervisor, cohort student teacher, and mentor to eventually use its guidance in future problem solving?
p. 88
- Are Dilin's dialogical moves and is his thinking systematic? What system seems to be operating? This stems from C. D. Lee's position that signifying is systematic, too.
p. 193:
- In knowledge-building dialogue, is the student teacher adding to the structure of meaning created jointly?
p.74
- Is he or she advancing his or her own understanding through the constructive and creative effort involved in saying and in responding?
p. 74

From *Reframing Sociocultural Research on Literacy: Identity, Agency, and Power*:

- Is the student teacher appropriating or acquiring ideas on how to teach? (Here I am focusing on actual practices and not just abstract principles.)
p. 18
- Is the identity that the student teacher is enacting through teaching and reflecting "recognized and accepted as valid and worthwhile?"
p.20 (Gee, 2000/2001)
- Continued in Table Below on the next page



Questions	V = Very Much So Y/N = Yes and No: at times yes, at times no N = Not Really			
	Chao-xing	Jun	Dilin	Liying
Do we "frame questions and propositions in ways that allow evidence to be brought to bear on them?"	V	V	V	V
Is there "give-and-take?"	V	V	N	Y/N
Is there responsivity and the attempt to achieve enhanced understanding? Am I responsive? Is the student teacher responsive? Are we attempting to achieve enhanced understanding? Are we in harmony and not divisive?	V	V	N	Y/N
Do we "allow any belief to be subjected to criticism if it will advance the discourse?"	V	V	Y/N	Y/N
Do we establish "ties across time, texts, and events?" (Putney et al., 2000, p. 92; Bloome & Bailey, 1992; Bloome & Egan-Robertson, 1993). Or do we not recognize, acknowledge, or understand the intertextual references that we are trying to convey to each other?	V	V	N	V
Is dialogue focused on the object of the activity and aimed at making an answer to a question or a solution to a problem?	V	V	N	Y/N
Do we make answers to solve the pedagogical problems we are talking about? And is the quality of these answers high?	Y/N (not t-ing vocab)	V	N	Y/N
Are they about what teachers can actually do or implement? Or are they just broad theoretical principles or broader objectives or even just ways of being? Is the student teacher appropriating or acquiring ideas on how to teach? (Here I am focusing on actual practices and not just abstract principles.)	Y/N	V	N	V
Or do they include this full range from concrete things to do in practice to the theoretical principles behind them? In other words, a praxis?	Y/N	V	N	V (but just me)
Does the supervisor, or teacher, adequately share his knowledge?	V	V	V	V
In knowledge-building dialogue, is the student teacher adding to the structure of meaning created jointly? Is he or she advancing his or her own understanding through the constructive and creative effort involved in saying and in responding?	V	V	N	Y/N

Do we "work toward a common understanding that is satisfactory to all" of us? Is there understanding? Is there collaborative meaning-making through discourse?	V	V	Y/N	Y/N
Is knowledge reconstructed and co-constructed? Is there the construction of the new? Do we come to "a new understanding that everyone involved agrees is superior to their own previous understanding?" (Bereiter, 1994, p. 6).	V	V	Y/N	Y/N (underst. in use of idea)
Is the identity that the student teacher is enacting through teaching and reflecting "recognized and accepted as valid and worthwhile?" p.20 (Gee, 2000/2001)	V	V	Y/N	Y/N (I could have done better)
Bakhtin (1986) quote on the Responsive: Does Dilin or do other student teachers eventually show a "responsive understanding?" (pp. 68-69). Does the student teacher internalize and transform the help received from supervisor, cohort student teacher, and mentor to eventually use its guidance in future problem solving?	V	V	Y/N	Y/N

Appendix H

Instances of Moves

Instances of Moves (Finished coding 2/14/17):

Instances of Moves:	Chao-xing	Jun	Dilin	Liying
Student Teacher (ST) Initiating a new topic:	4	9	3	3
Supervisor taking up ST initiation with a question or request for more information:	4	16	2	11
Me asking the STs for the specific thing the teacher would say or do:	2	1	0 (?: not sure)	0
Supervisor asking for the revised lesson teacher moves:	2	2	12	1
Supervisor asking what the teacher should do when this situation comes up, including the future	3	2	0	0
ST saying the specific thing she will do: After me asking:	6	1	12	2
On her own:	0	1	2	2
Supervisor giving a concrete activity or teacher/student move example (coaching?)	2	2	1	5
Supervisor giving a more general example of how the ST should teach.	0	1	2	0
ST positioning herself as professional, including talking about planning or other teaching serving as prep for this lesson:	4	4	2	7
ST positioning her/himself as less than professional, positioning oneself as having made a mistake	3	8	5	0
Supervisor turning to the other student-teacher for suggestions:	3	NA	3	NA
ST1 taking up ST2s suggestions Or building on her thoughts:	5	NA	1	NA
Supervisor exemplifying ST2's teaching as something that ST1 should follow, or should have followed	NC	NA	2	NA
Supervisor satisfaction with the reflection:	3	8	3	5

Supervisor builds on what student teacher or ST2 has Said to initiate a new topic:	4	9	6	4
Supervisor and student teacher observation in agreement, or ST1 and ST2 observation in agreement	8	12	3	8
Supervisor and student teacher assessment or revised or future teaching move in agreement	8	13	6	8
Supervisor and ST in open disagreement or not connecting	0	0	8	6
Supervisor not understanding the ST	0	2	12	0
ST doesn't have an answer	2	2	1	7
Instances of ST incomprehension, not recognizing or acknowledging an intertextual reference	2	2	8	0
ST asking questions when she doesn't understand what the Supervisor is saying	2	2	0	2
ST showing affective caring about teaching, real feelings	3	3	2	2
ST citing things that stressed her out during the lesson	3	1	1	1
ST reflecting on a teaching dilemma or challenge	4	5	4	2
ST refers to experiences in China to explain his teaching	0	0	2	0
ST refers to ESL learner or NNEST experience or experience in US to explain teaching	NC	NC	NC	2
Supervisor cuts off ST	NC	NC	NC	4

Bluish Gray Shading = Reported in a Table in Chapter 4: Findings. NC = Not necessary to code. NA = Not applicable for Analysis

Appendix I

Analytic Memo: Findings: A 1st Reflection Pattern or Process

Findings: A 1st Lesson Pattern

Though there was variation in dialogue about the first practicum lessons with the four primary participants, a general pattern emerged through investigation. It is important to note that this is not a pattern to which I, as a supervisor had deep awareness of either before, during, or after the practicums. If asked about a pattern during these points I would have simply said that the student teachers reflected on their lessons, we talked about some of the good things and bad things, and discussed what we would do next time. It was only as a researcher, after putting transcripts of our dialogue through rounds of coding and analysis, that I became deeply aware of this common pattern which I present now in research findings.

Three of the first lesson reflective sessions – those with Jun, Dilin, and Liying - had a relatively common pattern. The pattern was that first I would ask a general open question on the lesson. This followed with the student teacher giving reflective Assessments of the lesson. In all three cases these began with statements assessing the lesson as a whole. This is how dialogue on the lessons started:

Jun and I:

Keenan: What are some of your impressions?

Jun: Ah, to be honest, I feel it’s really terrible. And I didn’t see much interaction between the students. And because it was just me who was there lecturing, lecturing, lecturing. And there still wasn’t much communications between the students. And another problem I think is that for some of them they might think they are used to [the] words. And some of them didn’t get it.

Liying and I:

K: Well, how do you think it went?

C: I think it went pretty well. And they were happy and talking a lot and they have many good ideas…

Dilin and I with Feng. Feng taught the first lesson and so the beginning of our reflection focused on her lesson. In the passage below, we are transitioning to Dilin’s lesson. I first address Feng, and then turn to Dilin.

00:43:10

K: I'm going to come back to you and talk about some things that I liked and things to think about for improvement. But now let's talk a little bit more about your lesson…

D: My lesson.

K:…Let's focus a little more on that. We talked about it a little bit. Tell me some more of your thoughts that have come up.

D: My lesson didn't work out as I think. It, um, I think I didn't plan it very well, especially for the vocabulary part. I didn't have a very good lead-in, even though I present them with this menu that they can refer to, they have no idea what the word[s] means. And the menu will be too complicated for them. I should have adapted to make it a little bit easier. Because I'm picking, I'm choose the menu that is a Mediterranean restaurant, [D mangles this pronunciation.] which a lot of them, they haven't been there.

With Chaoxing, the pattern was different. I was still finishing the feedback write up for Chaoxing as we sat down to reflect. I cheerfully spoke the comments I was writing. This led her to reflect on a problem with her lesson: answering every student question and the difficulty of this. So though we began our session by openly reflecting with an assessment of her lesson, we arrived there in a slightly different way. She was pro-active in leading in to the assessment. I didn't even have to ask a general open question.

K: Okay, so I thought you had an um, what did I say? Jeez. *A pleasant demeanor*. You can see how I write really fast. And students is *Ss*, right there. Um, you were, um, what should we say? Um, ah, receptive. You were, um, um, receptive to their needs I thought. Okay. You were receptive to their needs, their questions during the lesson. Okay. [And there is several seconds of silence while I am writing.]

00:02:55

K: And you tried your best to answer those, too. So I think that was another thing I liked about your lesson.

00:03:07

C: Answering questions is somehow challenging because I have to instantly come up with an idea to give them the answer. I think I stumbled when I tried to answer one question or give another example at the beginning of the class.

After listening to initial student teacher assessment statements, I would then generally give five types of responses: an understanding response in which I echoed what the student teacher had said, a Questioning or Check of the student teacher's statement, an additional interpretation of the assessment, a question from an interpreted angle, or a question asking for more information.

After Jun's initial assessment (in its entirety above), I asked a question from an interpreted angle. He had said that there was little interaction and communication between the students. I interpreted this as the students being bored and asked about that. Then I asked a question to check Jun's assessment. I coded this second question as Questioning/Check, for I am questioning the veracity of his assessment.

Keenan: Uh huh, so some of them feel bored?

Jun: Some of them feel boring and some of them didn't get it.

Keenan: Well do you know if they got it or didn't get it?

Jun: I think I can because someone started getting on their electronic devices and…

Jun's intertextual reference to "their electronic devices" is an example of him giving evidence or reasons for his assessment. Student teachers often did this in response to my questioning.

At the beginning of the selected key passage for Liying, she ended her first assessment talking about the importance of showing the students pictures for understanding vocabulary. She references student voices by imitating them. Enjoying this performance assessment wherein she is giving evidence and reasons, I added an additional interpretation to her assessment.

C:…I think I did like the introduction was okay, and very brief, brief, and uh, but the words I wrote was a little bit too, like, not very, um, I was trying to make the, like the conceptual map, or the word cloud, something like the word map or something. So like one cluster, one cluster, one cluster. But I like wrote it everywhere, so I think that was a little bit… [doesn't finish the sentence] But that's okay I think. And, uh, and I think it's really necessary to provide the pictures, uh, for them because they can really think of, for example the swimming pool. They didn't think of that…

K: Hehe [softly chuckling at this cuteness]

C:…But I showed them the picture…

K: That's interesting.

00:29:22

C:… You know, “Ah, the swimming pool! Yeah, yeah, yeah! And the sauna,” or something. [Catherine recounts the sound of the student voices.] Um…

K: Maybe they come from cultures that are a little bit more traditional…

C: Um huh.

K:…And you know they don’t just change into their swimming suit…

C: Um huh.

I am aware that some of the students come from cultures with strict dress codes, especially for women. Swimming is not necessarily their first thought when staying at a hotel.

Dilin had a lot to say in his opening assessment about his menu. He calls it “a distraction” from his main task. He was also saying it fast. My understanding response echoing his opening assessment was helping me focus on his message and giving the opportunity to check it with him.

D:…You know it’s kind of become a distraction from what I really want them to know, because I just want to use the menu as realia, you know, as we read it from the textbook…

K: Um huh.

D:…Just they can turn to use that thing to help facilitate my, kind of prompt to help my activity. But they kind of become a distraction for them.

K: I see, so you’d adapt it and…

D: I should have adapted it…

K:…and made it a little bit simpler.

D:…simpler. It’s too complicated.

K: Okay.

The student teacher would then respond to my type of response. This response most frequently occurred in one of three ways. This response to the supervisor would often began with

agreement, acceptance, acknowledgment, and recognition (Bloome & Egan-Robertson, 1993). Above, Dilin acknowledges, recognizes and accepts my restatement of his assessment on the menu. The student would also sometimes restate the assessment. Note how Dilin does this above, restating that "It's too complicated." Restating an Assessment happened more frequently after supervisor questioning of the assessment. And finally, student teachers would often respond to their supervisor by giving evidence or reasons for the assessment. Jun, as noted, did this in the passage above in recounting how the students got on their "electronic devices" to check words they didn't know. Giving evidence and reasons often led to an expansion of the assessment, giving more textual material on which to reflect.

The supervisor would then give one of the five types of responses listed in round three, leading to another cycle of student teacher response and yet another cycle of supervisor response. This continued for numerous cycles. Through these cycles we were establishing intertextuality (Bloome & Egan-Robertson, 1993), or mutual understanding of what he had observed. Student teachers were also making their assessments clearer and linking them to evidence or reasons. Student teachers would also expand on their assessments in response to my added interpretations and interpretative questions. Through this there was the potential to build knowledge on the observed lesson.

In relation to the lesson, student teachers expressed their thinking and some of their feeling about the lesson. After praising Jun's assessment that students weren't communicating because he had them reading scripts, Jun opened up on his thinking and feelings.

Jun: And you know, I don't know what's my look just after giving the teaching part. I think I must look very, half a stern face, because I didn't feel good, and it didn't came out as well as I had expected.

Keenan: What did you expect?

Jun: I expect they will actively be using the modals because I don't think they [are] using sentence questions starting with 'Could you please...', 'Do you mind…'

My question asks for more information. It follows student teacher thought by using Jun's language to encourage him to expand on his assessment. Specifically, this question asks for more information about his thinking. His expectations constitute his thinking before the lesson about what would happen according to his plan. Supervisor questions sought to draw out student teacher thinking. This thinking revealed the origins of problems. These origins didn't suddenly emerge in the course of the lesson itself, but they lay, in reverse order, in the student teacher's thoughts before the lesson on how to execute the plan, the plan, the thinking behind the plan, how the Weldon program influenced that thinking, their former teaching or schooled training, and finally their apprenticeship of observation (Lortie, 1975; Hu, 2000; 2002).

Jun's expectations about what he wanted students to do in his lesson showed professional CLT conceptions, because he wanted to have them communicating. Data from my longitudinal

study shows that these conceptions were taught extensively at Weldon College. For example, professors in the domestic and international ESL program strands suggested to pre-service teachers that they give English learners small group activities in translating English reading texts to their native language for comprehension and language learning. Professors reported giving their pre-service teachers the opportunity to experience this pedagogy as learners as well. Such a communicative activity is typical of those that this highly ranked university program strongly advocated. This advocacy further speaks towards CLT as a professional practice. Through Weldon and their own knowledge of the field as learners and educators, this population of 10 student teachers was well aware that student-centered communication was the professional goal to achieve in their lessons.

Achieving it, however, was a different matter. [or]

Being able to carry out the thinking involved in lesson planning to achieve communicative lessons, however, was another matter.

In giving evidence or reasons, the student teacher would often cite the work of a student during the lesson. This would lead to the supervisor asking questions to pinpoint the student. In responding, the student teacher would often cite a common characteristic of the student. For example, Jun…

But then eventually there came a point where the supervisor would take a more pro-active role in the reflective session. I would ask the student teacher attention to focus on a part of the lesson. These were parts that I considered problematic to the success of the lesson. For Jun this point was student communication. He brought up this problem in his first reflective statement. For Liying it was the teacher-centered vocabulary instruction at the beginning of her lesson. She didn't consider this problematic, though acknowledged from the beginning of this part of our conversation that she had done more talking than she had wanted. For Dilin it was giving clear directions for his role play. And for Chaoxing it was getting the students into their roles.

In # (two cases) I built on something the student teacher had just said on which to focus. Undoubtedly, such building helped create intertextuality, an understanding of references and what we were talking about. Then I would engage in a more Socratic style of pointed questioning to lead the student teacher toward an assessment I had made while observing and authoritatively written in the minutes and feedback.

Now it was the student teacher's turn to give the same four types of responses that I had given after listening to initial student teacher assessment statements. In #3 cases, the student teachers couldn't initially see where I was leading. I had to rephrase my questions. But when the student teachers came to understanding, they would provide further assessment to my point. I would evaluate what they had said in terms of how it was moving toward realization of the particular problem on which I had turned the conversational focus. Then I appeared to tailor follow-up questions to move the student teacher closer to realization of my take on the problematic.

For Jun, this was somewhat easy because he had major problems that he easily identified from the beginning of what he termed a “terrible” lesson. He immediately brought up the problems of his lecturing and little student interaction or communication. To focus on these problems after 10 minutes of listening to his assessments and interpreting them, all the supervisor needed to do was remind him of his initial assessment. There was no need for me to refer to the minutes or the feedback.

For Chaoxing, Dilin, and Liying, however, there was not so much agreement with the supervisor on the problematic. Instead of just restating their realization, as I had done with Jun, I had to breach the problem. This took more supervisor Socratic questioning and more questioning and checking by the student teacher to try to understand what I was saying – to establish recognition and acknowledgment.

Appendix J

Coding to Discover Moves in the Stages of our Dialogical Process

Jun Codes 7.16.17

22 Codes (Clean)

Assessment	**Building**	**Questioning/Check/Confirm**
Assessment Restate Assessment Give ER: Evidence or Reasons	Add Interpretation Restate Interpretation Add Interpretation Question Restate Interpretation Question Ask ?/Request more info from Assessment	Questioning/Check Answer/Confirm Rhetorically Restate Assessment
Reacting AARA - Agree/Accept/(Rec/Ack) Disagree/Not Accept/(Not Rec/Ack) Considering/Thinking Praise Reflection Interjection Don’t Know	**Emotive Response** Laugh Express Exasperation	**Reference/Direct Attention** Open Question Interrupt Focus Intertextual Reference Change Topic
Coaching & Revised Lesson Redo? Redo Plan Redo Problem – Dilemma Redo Scenario (?)		

K: **Open question** on impressions

J: Long **assessment** stating problems 1-5.

K: **Add Interpretation** of Problem 4.

J: **AARA: Agree**ing and **Restate Assessment** Part: Problem 5.

K: **Questioning** assessment of Problem 4 & 5.

J: **Give E R**: evidence.

K: **Questioning** some. **Accept** some. **Add Interpretation Question**. (Continuing to question assessment in spite of evidence. Accepting some evidence and asking rhetorical reason with my take: polite students?)

J: **Considering** my take but not sure. **Restate Assessment.** Reiterating Problem 5. they didn’t get it and this was the big problem.

K: **Rhetorically restate Assessment**: Jun's Assessment, Problem 2: lecturing, to check.

J: **Answer**. Confirms.

K: **Rhetorically Restate Assessment**. Jun's assessment, problem 3, to check: students weren't communicating.

J: **Confirm**s two major problems. **Restate Assessment**: "didn't get it." **Give E/R.** Reasons for Assessment. Emotionally reflects on possible reasons why they didn't get it.

K: **Interjection**s to show I'm listening.

J: **Give E/R.** Continues Reasons for Assessment. Assesses maybe words are too idiomatic.

K: **Questioning**. Reason. I question one assessed word: "Groceries?"

J: **Answer**. Confirms.

K: **Questioning**.

J: **Answer**. **Give E/R.** evidence from student speech.

K: **AARA.** Understand (Acknowledge + Recognize) intertextual reference and Accept.

J: **Assessment**: Begins saying something else

K: **Interrupt** to question who the student asked. **Questioning** assessment.

J: **Questioning/Check**: Checks my question

K: **Answer/Confirm**s check.

J: **Answer**s question.

K: **AARA**. Accepts.

J: **Restate Assessment**. Answer. Continues **assessment**. Considers planning decisions. Assesses language he chose.

K: **AARA:** Agrees Assessment: planning and language chose was good. **Adds Interpretation**: if Ss can use in CLT. Agrees Assessment again: language good again.

J: **AARA. AARA.** Agrees with my assessment on language. Agrees with my assessment on CLT.

K: **Focus** on CLT. **Ask ?/Request.** Ask CLT question of lesson.

J: **Answer**s. **Give E/R.** Reason why.

K: **AARA.** Agree

J: **Restate Assessment**.

K: **AARA.** Agree. **Praise reflection**.

J: Add **assessment.**

K: **Ask ?/Request** question from assessment language.

J: **Answer** question. **Give E/R** reasons. Intertextual reference to student.

K: **Questioning/Check** reference, student

J: **Answer.** Confirm.

K: **Ask ?/Request** for more info on reference, name.

J: Give **answer**, correct answer, confirm answer.

K: **AARA.** Accept.

J: **Answer.** Correct confirmation: Not Anita, but Sophie.

K: **AARA.** Accept correction.

J: Finish **assessment** on this high level Ss low interest.

K**: Add Interpretation.** Add to J's interpretation.

J: **AARA.** Agree**. Intertextually reference** another student. **Questioning** if I know?

K: **Ask ?/Request** something about reference.

J: **AARA.** Confirm. Add info. **Assess.** Reconfirm assessment.

11:32

K: **Praise assessment**. **Restate Interpretation.** Agree with half assessment: some already know how to use the language. Add to assessment.

J: **AARA.** Agree. From agreement, **assess** lesson problem.

K: **Interrupt. Praise Reflection.** Show approval at ST assessment. **Rhetorically Restate Assessment**: Restate assessment in rhetorical question.

J: **AARA.** Confirm. **Give ER**, examples.

K: **Add Interpretation**.

J: **Disagree. Give ER.** Reason.

K: **AARA.** Agree. **Laugh.** Accept.

J: **Give ER** reason for disagree.

K: **Questioning:** reason.

J: **AARA.** Confirm. **Give ER:** reason.

K: **Questioning:** Check word.

J: **AARA. Give ER.** Confirm word.

K: **AARA. Add Interpretation Question**

J: **AARA. Assessment.**

K: **AARA. Restate Interpretation Question.**

J: **AARA.**

K: **AARA. Redo?**

15:31

J: **Questioning/Check**

K: **Answer.**

J: **Not RA. Questioning/Check.**

K: **Answer. Redo?**

J: Redo Plan.

K: AARA. Add Interpretation

J: Considering/Thinking

K: Add Interpretation Question – because I ask about the activity. The activity is the addition.

J: Don't Know. Redo Problem.

K: AARA. Praise Reflection. Add Interpretation (Weldon hasn't taught you.)

J: Silent Pause
K: Add Interpretation.

J: Change Topic. Intertextual Reference to other teaching. Social Significance: Practicing teacher; Working hard to be a good teacher. Assessment.

K: AARA. Add Interpretation Question

J: Considering.

K: Not RA. Questioning.

J: Answer

K: AARA

00:19:14 – 00:30:11: Not a key passage because we are planning how to set up the redo or revised lesson. We are no longer discussing problems.

00:30:11

K: Ask ?/Request

J: Answer.

K: AARA. Redo Plan

J: Add Interpretation

K: AARA.

J: Praise Reflection. Assessment.

30:59

K: AARA. Intertextual Reference. Questioning.

J: Answering

K: Interjection.

J: Give ER.

K: AARA. Add Interpretation Question.

J: Answer.

K: Interjection. Add Interpretation. Assessment.

32:34

J: AARA. Assessment.

K: Interjection. AARA.

J: Restate Assessment

K: Add Interpretation Question

J: Answer.

K: AARA. Add Interpretation.

J: Polite Disagree. Intertextual Ref – disproving instance - Give ER.

K: Interjection

J: Assessment.

K: AARA. Change Topic. Assessment.

J: Rec/Ack. Add Interpretation (fills in my last word for me: ‘content.’)

K: AARA. Assessment.

J: Considering/thinking

K: Restate Assessment. Assessment. [Here I don’t know whether to call this Assessment because I am just adding to the Assessment but in a kind of interpretative way. Before I coded this as Assessment when Jun did it. So here, too, Assessment and not Add Interpretation as I had originally written.]

J: Add Interpretation.

K: AARA Interjection. But now No Ack/Rec.

00:35:37 [This is the end of the original key passage. Here is the addition from this point of another 13/4 pages which I haven’t yet decided whether I am going to include.]

J: Adding Interpretation.

K: Interrupt. Change Topic.

J: AARA

K: Change Topic. Restate Jun’s Assessment.

J: AARA

K: Restating Assessment. Questioning.

J: Answer. AARA.

K: AARA. Restating Assessment. Questioning.

J: AARA.

K: AARA. Redo Scenario. Redo Questions.

36:45

J: Redo Plan.

K: Add Interpretation.

J: Redo Plan.

K: Accept. Add Interpretation Question.

J: AARA

K: Add Interpretation.

J: AARA.

K: Redo Scenario?

J: Questioning/Check

K: AARA. Redo Scenario?

J: Answer.

K: AARA. Redo?

J: Redo Plan.

K: Add Interpretation Question

J: Answer. Redo Plan

K: AARA. Redo?

J: Answer. Redo Plan.

K: AARA. Praise Reflection.

J: Assessment. AARA. Redo Plan (Past and future merge here.)

-End- But analytic thoughts below.

Assessment	**Building**	**Questioning/Check/Confirm**
Assessment Restate Assess. – (Restate Assessment) Give ER: Evidence or Reasons	Add Inter. (pretation) Restate Inter. (pretation) Add Inter ? (Question) Restate Inter ? Ask ?/Request more info from Assessment	Questioning/Check Answer/Confirm Rhetorically Rest. Assessment – (Rhetorically Restate Assessment)
Reacting	**Emotive Response**	**Reference/Direct Attention**
AARA - Agree/Accept/(Rec/Ack) Disagree/Not Accept/(Not Rec/Ack) Considering/Thinking Praise Reflection Interjection Don't Know Silent Pause	Laugh Express Exasperation	Open Question Interrupt Focus Intertext Ref. (ual Reference) Change Topic

Coaching & Revised Lesson Redo ? Redo Plan Redo Problem – dilemma Redo Scenario (?)		

Analytic Thoughts to here on 7.17.17:

The supervisor seemed to question for 2 reasons: to be sure that this *was* the Assessment, and to challenge assessments that were out of line with CLT professional ideology. The reasoning seemed to go that if an assessment was not matching professional thought, then its validity was questionable. For example, there is no good reason why I should doubt the observational assessment that a student didn't know the word 'groceries.' But in this instance, Jun was strongly implying that words like this that he introduced were beyond the students' ken and prevented his lesson from being communicative from the start. By CLT ideology, not knowing a vocabulary word is no reason for the teacher not having the students communicating in a lesson.

Questioning to reach mutual understanding on intertextual references, assessments, and interpretations, is an enormous part of our dialogical work. Very little of this is immediately agreed upon or accepted on hearing. Usually questioning is needed to establish recognition and acknowledgment (Bloome & Egan-Robertson, 1993). This bespeaks the complexity of a classroom. There are so many things happening simultaneously that it is difficult for one set of eyes to observe and interpret what is occurring. In these data, important observations or interpretations between the observing supervisor and the participating student teacher were often different in any given moment. However, the supervisor and student teacher tended to have similar interpretations characterizing a lesson over larger units of time. For example, though Jun and I had 14 instances of questioning and 4 instances of rhetorically restating assessment in just over 15 minutes of dialogue, we both agreed from the beginning that Jun was lecturing and the students were not communicating. I wrote of both of these things in the Minutes and Feedback, while Jun immediately brought these up in his first statement of the reflection.

So why, if our overall assessments were so similar, was there the need for all of this questioning? I think one simple reason was to make sure that we had gotten our general assessment right, that we hadn't missed something that would disconfirm them. We had to check our evidence. We were generally curious it seems to see if it was in line. Another reason is that the questioning revealed thinking. Since most of the questions came from the supervisor, this questioning revealed student teacher thinking. Through questioning I came to see that student teacher thinking both determined the plans they chose to execute and how they would teach in the future scenarios we envisioned and mapped. In my role as supervisor, I probed student teacher thinking through questioning, and then sought to bring it in line with CLT ideology. I wasn't conscious of the extent to which I was doing this until examining these data in research. The extent, however, became clearly evident in the first reflective session with Liying. When she defends her teacher-centered vocabulary teaching, I continually question her reasoning, even when it is quite good. One of her good reasons is that the students are "full of culture shock" like she was when she came, and she had to learn all of these words that put her in culture shock on her own without assistance. Her vocabulary instruction was going to teach these words so they can avoid some of the culture shock. While in analysis I can see this is a good reason, at the time I wholeheartedly questioned

and disputed her equating of the students with herself. I asked if they weren't older, and cited their enthusiasm about hotels to suggest that they already had the background knowledge to prevent this culture shock from occurring. Invariably the truth lies between our two positions. However, I wouldn't accept her answer, and used my supervisory authority to take us through a long supervisor-centered coaching session of how to improve her vocabulary teaching through more student-centered activities in line with CLT ideology. Through this, Liying largely listened and agreed. This coaching perhaps filled a knowledge gap remaining from her program learning in that she reported not learning ways to more communicatively teach vocabulary through communicative methods. However, my supervisor-centered pedagogy in this instance aligns with the very teacher-centered vocabulary teaching which she did, and reinforces this pedagogy.

Appendix K

Tables of Problem Initiation and Agreement from First Reflections

Table 1:
Problems in Chaoxing's First Lesson

Problems	S noted problem in Minutes, Feedback	ST initiates discus-sion of problem	S agrees with ST problem identifi-cation	S initiates discus-sion of problem	ST agrees with S problem identif.	ST doesn't agree, but ack-nowledges lack of comm-unication in lesson part
Chaoxing Reading a Handout with Phrases and Vocabulary	✓			✓	✓	
Unclear Instructions for the Role Play	✓			✓	✓	
No Modelling of the Role Play	✓			✓	✓	

S = Supervisor. ST= Student Teacher

Table 2:
Problems in Dilin's First Lesson

Problems	S noted problem in Minutes, Feedback	ST initiates discus-sion of problem	S agrees with ST problem identifi-cation	S initiates discus-sion of problem	ST agrees with S problem identif.	ST doesn't agree, but ack-nowledges lack of comm-unication in lesson part
Explaining Vocabulary	✓	Feng initiates	Dilin discusses			✓
Complicated Menu		✓	✓			
Unclear Instructions for the Role Play	✓			✓		✓
No Modelling of the Role Play	✓			✓		✓
Grouping Students	✓	✓	✓			
Not Determining to Teach the most Im-portant lesson part.		✓	✓			

Table 3:
Problems in Jun's First Lesson

Problems	S noted problem in Minutes, Feedback	ST initiates discus-sion of problem	S agrees with ST problem identifi-cation	S initiates discus-sion of problem	ST agrees with S problem identif.	ST doesn't agree, but ack-nowledges lack of comm-unication in lesson part
Lecturing	✓	✓	✓			
Explaining Vocabulary	✓	✓	✓			
Students weren't communicating	✓	✓	✓			
Reading Scripts	✓	✓	✓			
Focus on Teaching Language, Not Functions	✓			✓	✓	
No Student Grouping	✓			✓	✓	
No Communicative Activity	✓			✓	✓	
Distancing from students	✓	Can't locate and was likely never discussed.				✓

Table 4:
Problems in Liying's First Lesson

Problems	S noted problem in Minutes, Feedback	ST initiates discus-sion of problem	S agrees with ST problem identifi-cation	S initiates discus-sion of problem	ST agrees with S problem identif.	ST doesn't agree, but ack-nowledges lack of comm-unication in lesson part
Explaining Vocabulary	✓			✓	"Oh" is a type of agreement	✓

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