

LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION

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INTRODUCTION¹

Language teacher education programs are likely to be housed in departments of applied linguistics, education, or languages and literature: These three disciplines provide the knowledge base and opportunities for developing skills and dispositions for both prospective and experienced teachers. Until recently, applied linguistics (psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, discourse analysis, language description, and language teaching and testing methodology) formed the core of language teacher education, not unexpected, since language teaching has historically been the primary focus of applied linguistics (Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford 1997, Crandall 1995; 1996). However, during the last decade, general educational theory and practice have exerted a much more powerful influence on the direction of the education of both preservice and inservice language teacher education, resulting in a greater focus on: 1) practical experiences such as observations, practice teaching, and opportunities for curriculum and materials development (Crandall 1994, Johnson 1996b, Pennington 1990, Richards 1990, Richards and Crookes 1988); 2) classroom-centered or teacher research (Allwright and Bailey 1991, Chaudron 1988, Edge and Richards 1993, Nunan 1989, van Lier 1988); and 3) teacher beliefs and teacher cognition in language teacher education (Freeman 1996; 1998, Freeman and Johnson 1998a, Richards and Nunan 1990). In fact, the last decade can be viewed as a search for a theory of language teaching and, by extension, of language teacher education at both the micro and macro levels (Freeman and Johnson 1998b, Johnson 1996a, Larsen-Freeman 1990, Richards 1990). Language teacher education is a microcosm of teacher education, and many of the trends in current language teacher education derive from theory and practice in general teacher education. These trends include at least four major shifts.

First, there is a shift from transmission, product-oriented theories to constructivist, process-oriented theories of learning, teaching, and teacher learning. Traditional, transmission-oriented teaching involves top-down approaches which

present best practices for teachers to understand and imitate in their teaching (Richards 1990, Widdowson 1997). Traditional teacher education views teachers as passive recipients of transmitted knowledge rather than active participants in the construction of meaning (in learning by reconstruction). Nor does it take into account the thinking or decision-making of teachers. A shift to a constructivist perspective of teaching and teacher learning makes teachers a primary source of knowledge about teaching, reflected in an increasing focus on teacher cognition (Johnson 1999, Kleinfeld 1992, Richards and Lockhart 1994), the role of reflection in teacher development (Bartlett 1990, Freeman and Richards 1993, Schon 1983; 1987), and the importance of teacher inquiry and research throughout teacher education and development programs (Crandall 1994, Freeman 1998, Wright 1992).

Second, there is a growing sense that language teacher education programs have failed to prepare teachers for the realities of the classroom. As a result, efforts are being made to transform teaching through a focus on situated teacher cognition and practice (Bruner 1986, Lave 1988) and the development of concrete, relevant linkages between theory and practice throughout the teacher education program. The host of differences in learners, programs, curricula, materials, policies, and the socio-cultural environment that teachers are likely to encounter in their careers calls into question any set of "best practices" appropriate for all contexts or any attempts to transfer the knowledge and practice from teacher education programs directly to teaching (Casanave and Schecter 1997, Freeman 1989, Holliday 1994). Decontextualized theory fails to consider the multi-dimensionality and unpredictability of the classroom environment (Bailey and Nunan 1996, Doyle 1986, Johnson 1996b). Partnerships between programs of language teacher education and language teaching programs or schools provide opportunities for contextualizing and integrating preservice and inservice teacher education, encouraging prospective and experienced teachers, administrators, and researchers to learn together as they also provide enhanced programs for language learners (Crandall 1994, Darling-Hammond 1994, Holmes Group 1986).

Third, there is a growing recognition that teachers' prior learning experiences (what Lortie [1975] refers to as "the apprenticeship of observation") play a powerful role in shaping their views of effective teaching and learning and their teaching practices. These preconceptions are remarkably resistant to change unless awareness of that prior learning is developed in the teacher education program and opportunities for practical experiences and conscious reflection upon those experiences are provided throughout the program (Freeman 1991; 1996, Freeman and Richards 1996, Johnson 1994, Kennedy 1987, Richards and Lockhart 1994). Similarly, one can expect that the way teacher educators were taught will be replicated in their teacher education programs unless conscious reflection upon teacher-education practice also takes place. Self-observation and reflection on practice can help teachers move from a philosophy of teaching and learning developed during their 16 or so years as a learner to a philosophy of teaching consistent with their emerging understandings of the language learning and teaching

processes (what Freeman has referred to as InterTeaching, analogous to a language learner's development of interlanguage).

Fourth, there is a growing concern that teaching be viewed as a profession (similar to medicine or law) with respect for the role of teachers in developing theory and directing their own professional development through collaborative observation, teacher research and inquiry, and sustained inservice programs, rather than the typical short-term workshop or training program (Crandall 1993; 1994; 1996, Darling Hammond 1994, The Holmes Group 1986). Candlin and Widdowson, in their introduction to each volume of their series, *Language teaching: A scheme for teacher education*, sum up this trend in the following way: "If language teaching is to be a genuinely professional enterprise, it requires continual experimentation and evaluation on the part of practitioners whereby, in seeking to be more effective in their pedagogy, they provide at the same time—and as a corollary—for their own continuing education." Freeman (in Freeman and Richards 1996) argues that one function of inservice training for teachers is to enable them to be "bilingual," that is, to rename what they have been previously doing in light of what they are learning in their training, and by so doing, to function bilingually, adding professional language to the local language they use in their schools.

CONCEPTIONS OF LANGUAGE TEACHING AND MODELS OF LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION

Traditional language teacher education has involved a delicate balancing act between education and training. The former addresses the development of language knowledge and language teaching and learning. The latter emphasizes the development of skills to apply this knowledge in the practice of language teaching, with a limited opportunity to observe and practice that theory in actual classrooms or simulated contexts such as microteaching (Crandall 1998). Those involved in preparing prospective language teachers refer to themselves as either teacher trainers or teacher educators. Widdowson (1997) describes teacher training as solution-oriented, with the "...implication that teachers are to be given specific instruction in practical techniques to cope with predictable events..." while teacher education is problem-oriented, with the implication of "...a broader intellectual awareness of theoretical principles underlying particular practices" (1997:121). In both orientations, the prospective or experienced teacher is viewed as a passive recipient of transmitted knowledge; omitted is any understanding of the role that language teachers play in their own development, which teacher research has begun to demonstrate as being of considerable importance (Edge and Richards 1993, Woodward 1991). Teacher development is a life-long process of growth which may involve collaborative and/or autonomous learning, but the important distinction is that teachers are engaged in the process and they actively reflect on their practices. According to Wallace (1991), "The distinction is that training or education is something that can be presented or managed by others; whereas development is something that can be done only by and for oneself" (p.3).

Wallace (1991) identifies three major models of language teacher education: 1) a craft or apprenticeship model by which less experienced teachers learn through observing those with more experience; 2) an applied science or theory-to-practice model by which knowledge is learned from experts and then applied in real-world contexts; and 3) a reflective model by which teachers reflect upon, evaluate, and adapt their own practice. These three models broadly correspond to the three views of teaching identified by Freeman (1991; 1996): 1) teaching as doing (a behavioral model emphasizing what teachers do and encouraging a skills or craft model of teacher education); 2) teaching as thinking and doing (a cognitive model emphasizing what teachers know and how they do it, encouraging both theory and skills development and craft and applied science models of teacher education); and 3) teaching as knowing what to do (an interpretivist view emphasizing why teachers do what they do in different contexts, encouraging the addition of reflection and the development of frameworks of interpretation to theory and skill development in teacher education). Wallace's three models of language teacher education are likely to be needed in all teacher development, but in different degrees, depending upon teacher experience and understanding. However, neither traditional education nor training are sufficient; also needed are opportunities for teachers to reflect upon their beliefs and practices and to construct and reconstruct their personal theories of language teaching and learning (Bailey 1992, Flowerdew, *et al.* 1992, Freeman and Richards 1996, Sachs, *et al.* 1996). "Teaching depends upon the application of appropriate theory, the development of careful instructional designs and strategies, and the study of what actually happens in the classroom" (Richards 1990:vii).

FROM METHODS TO METHODOLOGY AND THE IMPORTANCE OF CONTEXT

The core of traditional language teacher education has long been the methods course, a course which presents the theoretical rationale and practical implications of language teaching approaches, methods, procedures, and techniques (Anthony 1963, Blair 1982, Celce-Murcia 1991, Larsen-Freeman 1986, Oller 1993, Oller and Richard-Amato 1983, Richards and Rodgers 1982; 1986, Rivers 1981, Stevick 1980). Methods courses often discuss the rationale for, and instructional practices reflected in "innovative" methods (e.g., Silent Way, Community Language Learning, Natural Approach, Content-based Language Instruction) as well as "traditional" ones (Grammar-Translation, Audio-Lingual, Communicative), and they often combine this discussion with specific attention to techniques for teaching the four skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing). Sometimes specific courses in oral or written skills are provided, as are courses in assessment and evaluation.

While courses in language teaching methods are still central to language teacher education, there is growing concern that they not be taught in prescriptivist terms, as recipes or cookbooks for effective teaching. Rather, they need to investigate the range of instructional options language teachers have available in

their repertoires and, through case studies, interviews, or introspection, examine the kinds of decisions teachers make in planning and carrying out instruction (Richards 1990, Roberts 1998, Stevick 1998, William and Burden 1997). The shift from methods to methodology is consonant with constructivist theories of learning—a shift away from a top-down approach to methods as “products” for teachers to learn and “match” and toward a bottom-up approach to methodology as reflections on experiences. The shift involves prospective teachers in “...exploring the nature of effective teaching and learning, and discovering the strategies used by successful teachers and learners in the classroom” (Richards 1990:vii).

While few language teacher educators believed that the role of the traditional methods course was to make future teachers into “methods” teachers (cf. “methods actors”), the counter view, that prospective teachers should pick and choose from among the techniques described in an “eclectic approach,” conveyed little coherence. Several recent core texts for methodology courses (Brown 1994, Nunan 1991; 1999, Omaggio Hadley 1993) are more cognizant of the role of context and the need to engage prospective and experienced teachers in analyzing their own theories of teaching and learning as they practice, discuss, and reflect upon instructional techniques (Graves 2000, Hartman 1998, Nunan and Lamb 1996). Collections of “what works” or “new ways” of teaching or educating teachers (e.g., Freeman and Cornwell 1993) continue to provide teachers with practical options, but analysis and evaluation of teaching and learning strategies that teachers use in a variety of contexts help bring coherence to the process. Focusing on teachers—their beliefs about teaching, learning, or classroom interaction—can help balance more top-down, product-oriented conceptions of language teaching, with more nuanced, bottom-up, process-oriented descriptions of specific language teaching events. Studies of teachers, either undertaken by teachers themselves or in collaboration with researchers (Shulman 1992), can help illuminate the processes by which language teachers plan and make decisions about their teaching (Woods 1996). Central to these studies is the need to examine underlying teacher beliefs and teacher thinking.

1. Teacher cognition and beliefs

Traditional teacher education has largely ignored the substantial set of beliefs about teaching, learning, teacher-student roles, and the like which teacher candidates bring to their program from their experiences as students and language learners. Teachers do not engage in mere implementation of routinized procedures, but are constantly engaged in thinking, problem-solving, and decision-making. While content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge remain important underpinnings of language teacher education, also needed are opportunities for prospective teachers to become aware of their own beliefs about effective teaching and learning, and they need opportunities to acquire the ways of thinking (general strategies, personal orientation, and habits of mind) that characterize being a member of the language teaching community. Case studies

and teacher narratives, teaching videos, and teacher journals offer windows into that thinking (Kennedy 1987, Richards and Lockhart 1994, Woods 1996).

Teacher cognition is “situated” in practice (Lave 1988); thus, it is important to consider the effects of context upon teacher decision-making and teaching and learning. Traditional language teacher education programs have attempted to capture some of the diversity of language teaching situations in broad terms through courses and texts which look at learners with respect to common patterns of variation: different ages (teaching young children or adults), different levels of proficiency (teaching beginners or advanced learners), different purposes for learning (academic, professional, or “general”), and different contexts (second or foreign language; intensive or occasional). But these attempts are not likely to provide sufficient preparation for the heterogeneity of learners or contexts that teachers actually encounter. Fanselow (1987; 1992), Head and Taylor (1997), and others offer a number of activities to make teachers’ underlying beliefs more explicit and to encourage the development of alternative perspectives.

Studies of teachers and teaching reveal the number of decisions which teachers make, often with competing demands and not much time to think back to principles or applications derived from teacher education programs (Burns 1995, Freeman and Richards 1996, Kleinfield 1992). Woods (1996), in the first major study of teacher cognition in language teaching, describes how teachers rely upon experience and call into play their beliefs, assumptions, and knowledge in that decision-making. Richards (1996) identifies eight maxims or principles derived from experience which teachers use to explain the decisions they make during teaching. Often tacit, these maxims need to be made explicit if teachers are to consider new techniques or changes in practices.

2. The role of reflection

What is often missing from traditional language teacher education is recognition of the role that the teacher plays in generating knowledge through teaching experience and reflection (conscious recollection and evaluation of that experience; Bartlett 1990, Freeman and Richards 1993, Wallace 1991). As Bruner (1986; 1990) explains, universities have traditionally focused on scientific knowledge which is abstract, decontextualized, and impersonal, but teachers also need access to narrative ways of knowing which relate theory to specific practices in concrete, contextualized, and personal ways. In focusing on “how,” language teacher education has ignored the important “what” and “why” questions which can only be answered by teacher reflection and research. Bartlett (1990) suggests a cycle (similar to action-research cycles) moving from observation, to interpretation, introspection and questioning, to consideration of alternatives, and then to adaptation of instruction. Wallace (1991) also provides a scheme by which teachers can recall their practice and engage in critical reflection. Fanselow (1987) suggests that teachers “break rules” and then observe and reflect upon the consequences. Reflection on experience provides a means for prospective and experienced teachers

to develop more informed practice, making tacit beliefs and practical knowledge explicit, articulating what teachers know and leading to new ways of knowing and teaching. Long ignored, teacher inquiry and reflection are now viewed as important to the development of language teaching theory and appropriate language teacher education.

3. Teacher narratives and case studies

Many ways of tapping into teachers' knowledge and helping teachers to make explicit their own beliefs about teaching have been proposed, including analyses of teacher logs, diaries, or journals; audio or video recordings of teaching; interviews; and teacher narratives or case studies of teacher practice (Kleinfield 1992). Narratives (stories, cases, lessons, anecdotes, and extended examples), long a part of teacher education, were dismissed as "practitioner lore" by scientific positivism, and have only recently been brought back into teacher education (Shulman 1992, Wideon, *et al.* 1998). Teaching case studies and stories (like those used in the medical, legal, or business education) provide a means of bridging theory and practice and demonstrating the complexity of teaching as a profession. They provide contextualized portraits of the many factors which influence teacher decision making and behavior in the classroom

Teacher narratives, or "stories" that teachers tell about their classroom experiences, convey the daily experiences of teachers and the ways in which they try to make sense of these experiences through talking or writing about them (Bailey and Nunan 1996, Casanave and Schecter 1997, Hartman 1998, Plaister 1993, Richards 1998). Teachers avoid abstract theoretical statements in talking with each other about their work because these lack connection to classroom experience. Stories help teachers understand students; they address the dilemmas of teaching and the competing roles that teachers carry out; and they provide professional development through reflection on practice. Narratives represent a primary way in which teachers organize and understand the complexities of their profession, involving competing demands, constraints, policies, and power relations. In working with case studies, prospective and experienced teachers become actively involved in the kinds of decision-making they face in their language teaching (Plaister 1993). Case studies also offer a way to help teacher educators avoid the imposition of culturally inappropriate teaching philosophies (Bax 1995a; 1995b).

4. The role of practical experience

The growing respect for the situated knowledge of the teacher, the recognition of the teacher as central in the teaching and learning process, and the crucial roles of the teacher as program and materials developer, needs analyst, decision-maker, problem-solver, and researcher of his or her own classroom (Richards 1990), has led to a call for teacher preparation programs to create opportunities for prospective teachers to access this knowledge and test theories and

principles with actual practice. Practica (practical experiences such as observations, internships, apprenticeships, student teaching, or other teaching practice) have long been a part of most language teacher education programs. Richards and Crookes (1988) found that 75 percent of the language teacher education programs they reviewed included a practicum experience, ranging from observing experienced teachers or peers, being observed by or conferencing with supervising or mentor teachers, participating in peer or microteaching, or being responsible for classroom instruction. However, these experiences are often too few, too late, and not sufficiently focused on the realities of the classroom, the program, or the school (Crandall 1996). A number of language teacher educators (Crandall 1994, Johnson 1996b, Richards 1990) have called for more extensive and intensive practical experiences to be integrated throughout the teacher education program, providing prospective teachers with greater opportunities to link theory with practice and to receive support and learn from experienced teachers, while also offering experienced teachers an opportunity to learn from their new counterparts (Stoynton 1999). Within general teacher education, prospective teachers spend more time in real teaching situations than is often the case in language teacher preparation programs, especially those housed outside of education departments. Partnerships between university-based teacher education departments and schools offer prospective and experienced teachers opportunities for engaging in collaborative research and teaching, while also benefitting the language learners in the classroom. (See Crandall 1994; 1995 for a description of a professional development center approach which engages prospective and experienced language teachers in research, program planning, curriculum development, and teaching to benefit secondary school immigrant students as well as improve teacher education and development.)

Observation of mentor teachers or peers and self-observation through video recordings, accompanied by reflective activities such as journal writing and feedback or discussion sessions, are especially important for language teacher preparation and continuing teacher development (Crandall 1994, Fanselow 1987). Unfortunately, because observation is characteristically used in teacher supervision and evaluation, the self-knowledge it can provide has too often been ignored. A number of observation schemes and instruments have been developed that enable teachers and researchers to focus attention on specific aspects of classroom interaction, management, or instruction, and construct or reconstruct understandings of language teaching and learning.

Teacher-education programs can also provide practical experiences that encourage prospective teachers to continue their professional development after leaving the program. These experiences help prepare them for a variety of professional activities: writing for publication, developing proposals for conference presentations or grant funding, or working on public speaking and professional presentations (Crandall 1996).

5. The role of research

Classroom research, research that is carried out in the second or foreign language classroom to answer questions about teaching and learning, plays an increasingly important role in both initial teacher preparation and ongoing teacher development. This research can focus on teachers (e.g., questioning strategies, teacher decision-making, error correction, or teacher modifications); learners (e.g., learning styles and strategies, learner interaction, affective variables, or language output from specific tasks); or the interaction between teachers and learners (Burns 1995, Nunan 1989, van Lier 1988). Research on language acquisition and learning was traditionally conducted by university researchers (sometimes in collaboration with language teachers) and reflected their research traditions, using experimental, ethnographic, discourse, or interactional analyses (Chaudron 1988), often with a goal of identifying “best practices” in language teaching or learning. Studies of teachers attempting to implement these best practices reveal that teachers adapt them substantially to fit their specific teaching contexts. This adaptation process has led to the addition of action or teacher research grounded in the specifics of individual teacher contexts. Allwright and Bailey (1991) offer a number of suggestions for small-scale and large-scale research and provide guidance on conducting research and analyzing findings. Such research can be undertaken collaboratively by teacher educators/researchers and teachers or individually by teachers researching their own classrooms (Crandall 1994; 1995). Research undertaken by teachers and focused on observation, analysis, and potential changes of one’s own teaching represents one means by which teachers can reconsider their assumptions and practices and enhance teacher professionalism. Often, this research is most successful when teachers collaborate in the research process or engage in inquiry or study groups which meet periodically to discuss findings; otherwise, the daily responsibilities of teaching may take precedence. The publication of the results of teacher research in journals, stories, or case studies can also provide opportunities for other teachers to explore changes in their own practice as well.

ASSESSMENT IN LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION

Congruent with increased emphasis on performance assessment in language teaching is the increasing focus on performance assessment of prospective and experienced teachers, especially in new teacher-evaluation schemes resulting from the standards movement (Johnson 1996b). These performance assessments may include audio- or videotapes of classroom teaching; examples of student work; lesson plans, curriculum guides, or syllabi; entries from a teaching log or journal; statements of a personal (evolving) philosophy of teaching; or simulated performances such as microteaching, role plays, or interviews. Frequently, these documentations of performance are combined into a teaching portfolio (along with a curriculum vita, transcripts, letters of reference, teaching evaluations, and brief annotations or reflections on the significance of the contents of the portfolio), providing concrete evidence of teacher capability and ongoing development. In

some teacher education programs, the teaching portfolio serves as documentation of the student teaching experience; in others, it is integrated into the entire program and serves as one of the final evaluation criteria.

NATIVE- AND NON-NATIVE-SPEAKING PROFESSIONALS IN SECOND AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE CONTEXTS

Another concern in language teacher education which is receiving a great deal of attention in both the foreign and second language teaching communities is the role of the native speaker (Kramsch 1997). Because of the globalization of English, the growing prominence of World Englishes, and the increasing need for English teachers around the world, the issues of appropriate competencies, expectations, and roles for native- and non-native-speaking teachers have received frequent discussion (Braine 1998, Cook 1999, Medgyes 1992; 1994). Determining who is a "native speaker" is not quite so simple as previously imagined, and the linkage between native-speaking proficiency and professional competence is also often misconstrued (when teachers are hired not because of their preparation, but because they are "native speakers"). Recently, a number of researchers and language-teacher educators have called for the rejection of near native-speaker proficiency as a model for language education (Cook 1999) and have pointed out the advantages of non-native speakers. Teachers who share the same linguistic and cultural experiences with their students can provide a good model for them, anticipating problems and sharing strategies they have used in their own language learning (Kahmi-Stein, *et al.* 1999, Medgyes 1994).

Research has also documented the concerns that non-native-speaking teacher candidates have in teaching in a context in which most of the teachers are native speakers (Kahmi-Stein, *et al.* 1999, Polio and Wilson-Duffy 1998), including a lack of self-confidence about target-language proficiency, perceived bias in favor of native speakers in hiring, and, when engaged in teacher education outside their own country, a lack of role models and voice in their own profession. Ways to address these issues include pairing non-native and native-speaking students in field experiences and other practica; assigning non-native-speaking teacher candidates to non-native-speaking mentor teachers; integrating issues related to non-native speakers throughout the curriculum; and addressing language-proficiency needs. Similarly, language teacher education programs need to address foreign-language contexts, especially the more problematic situations involving large classes, limited materials and resources, and unfamiliar educational policies and teaching practices (Braine 1998).

SOME SPECIAL CONSIDERATIONS FOR EXPERIENCED TEACHERS

While much of the above discussion has focused more on inexperienced teachers and teacher preparation, as well as inservice teacher education and development, there are a number of studies which address the specific issue of teacher development with experienced teachers. These studies include the

importance of shared responsibility for the design and delivery of inservice programs, sustained time for learning and reflection, and opportunities for feedback and reflection (Bax 1995a; 1995b, Darling-Hammond 1994, Hayes 1995). In discussing an inservice teacher-training program in Thailand, Hayes (1995) argues that sessions should be task-based, classroom-centered, and practical, focusing not only on the application of theory to practice, but also including awareness-raising sessions, with shared responsibility in both the design and the implementation of the program. Teachers should also have opportunities to practice innovations through microteaching, peer teaching, and poster sessions before returning to their classrooms and, where possible, engage in follow-up sessions.

NOTES

1. Reviewing any field requires difficult decisions, but this is especially true of language teacher education. The last decade has witnessed the publication of hundreds of books and articles in this field. In choosing among these, I have drawn more from the ESL/EFL teacher-education resources, especially those written about the United States context, because I know that literature best. However, much of what is written about English language teacher education may be applicable to other language teacher education if issues of cultural appropriateness or cultural appropriation are taken into consideration.

ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

[The large number of texts and articles published in the last ten years on language teacher education make it impossible to be comprehensive. In the references, I have explicitly eliminated discussion of texts related to teaching specific language skills (listening, speaking, reading, or writing) or specific language systems (pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary) except as these are discussed in more general methods texts. I have also not included texts focused specifically on a particular method or approach or the use of corpora, technology, or other new resources. It was also necessary to eliminate texts focused on specific learners (children or adult, beginners or advanced, school or university, or students with special needs such as learning disabilities). The fact that hundreds of these resources have been published in the last ten years is one demonstration of the increasing professionalism of the language teacher education field.]

Bailey, K. M. and D. Nunan (eds.) 1996. *Voices from the language classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

This collection of stories told by language teachers and teacher educators in a wide range of contexts (ESL classes in Pakistan, KwaZulu high school classrooms in South Africa, dual-language classrooms in Hungary, junior high classes in the US, and bilingual classrooms in Peru) is intended for prospective and experienced teachers, teacher educators, and researchers in second and foreign language education. Using data from observational field notes, teachers' and learners' journals, interviews, stimulated recall protocols, and lesson plans and transcripts, the stories provide an opportunity to listen to teachers talk about their understandings of teaching and learning, and the interpretations they make of their own experiences in thinking, problem-solving, and decision-making in a variety of contexts. Issues such as class size, student anxiety in class participation, fear of failure in a writing classroom, student and teacher reactions to changes in curriculum, and the effects of different pedagogies or program structures are all explored.

Candlin, C. N. and H. G. Widdowson (series eds.) *Language teaching: A scheme for teacher education*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Designed to involve language teachers in their own professional development through “critical appraisal of ideas and the informed application of these ideas in their own classrooms” (introduction to the series), this integrated series is organized in three sub-themes of inquiry and practice in language teaching and learning: 1) language knowledge, dealing with linguistic description (pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, and discourse); 2) modes of behavior, applying that knowledge in the teaching of the four language skills (speaking, listening, reading, and writing); and 3) modes of action, operationalizing knowledge and behavior in language teaching (syllabus design, language-course content, methodology, and evaluation). Each volume is organized into three sections: 1) explanation (theoretical background); 2) demonstration (the application of that theory), and 3) exploration (small-scale classroom-centered research activities for teachers to undertake). Titles in the series include:

- Anderson, A. & T. Lynch. *Listening*.
Batstone, R. *Grammar*.
Bygate, M. *Speaking*.
Cook, G. *Discourse*.
Dalton, C. & B. Seidlhofer. *Pronunciation*.
McCarthy, M. *Vocabulary*.
Nunan, D. *Syllabus design*.
Rea-Dickins, P. & K. Germaine. *Evaluation*.
Tribble, C. *Writing*.
Wallace, C. *Reading*.
Wright, T. *Roles of teachers and learners*.

Freeman, D. (series ed.) *TeacherSource series*. Boston: Heinle and Heinle.

This series positions the teacher's voice at the center of language-teacher development, focusing on the teacher's point of view in coming to understand aspects of teaching and learning. Each volume consists of three strands: 1) teachers' voices, where practicing language teachers in various settings talk about their experiences with the topic; 2) frameworks, which lay out key concepts and issues related to the topic; and 3) investigations, which provide activities to engage readers to relate the topic to their teaching contexts. Titles in the series include:

- Anderson, N. *Exploring second language reading: Issues and strategies*.
- Bailey, K. *Learning about language assessment: Dilemmas, decisions, and directions*.
- Campbell, C. *Teaching second-language writing: Interacting with text*.
- Becker, H. *Teaching ESL K-12: Views from the language classroom*.
- Freeman, D. *Doing teacher research: From inquiry to understanding*.
- Graves, K. *Designing language courses: A guide for teachers*.
- Irujo, S. *Teaching bilingual children: Beliefs and behaviors*.
- Johnson, K. E. *Understanding language teaching: Reasoning in action*.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. *Teaching language: From grammar to grammaring*.
- Moran, P. *Teaching culture: Perspectives in practice*.
- Scovel, T. *Learning new languages: A guide to second language acquisition*.
- Stevick, E. *Working with teaching methods: What's at stake?*
- Johnson, K. E. *Teachers understanding teaching*. [CD-ROM]

Freeman, D. and K. E. Johnson (eds.) 1998a. *Research and practice in English language teacher education*. [Special issue of *TESOL Quarterly*. 32.3.]

Perhaps no other volume in the last decade better portrays the major concerns in language teacher education than this special issue of the *TESOL Quarterly*. Following a lead article by the editors on "reconceptualizing the knowledge-base of language teacher education, subsequent articles explore issues of research, practice (especially "best practice"), and collaboration in teacher education." The issue concludes with a number of thematic reviews of teacher education books and series.

Freeman, D. and J. C. Richards. 1993. Conceptions of teaching and the education of second language teachers. *TESOL Quarterly*. 27.193–216.

In their attempt to answer the question: "What is an appropriate theory of effective language teaching?" the authors analyze a range of ESL/EFL approaches and methodologies, using Zahorik's (1986) tripartite division of teaching conceptions: 1) science/research conceptions, which operationalize learning principles, follow a tested model, or base their notion of what

effective teachers do on empirical studies; 2) theory/ philosophy conceptions, which rely on rational or values-based explanations, rather than empirical evidence; and 3) art or craft conceptions, which take an eclectic approach to both methodology and techniques and place more emphasis on the teacher than on the methodology. The authors point out that no teacher teaches according to just one of these; no one conception of teaching is superior to another (myth of supremacy); nor does a teacher consciously select a teaching conception at some point in training (myth of correct choice). There is also no evidence that teachers go through stages of professional development, accepting and then rejecting one conception (for example, science/research) only to embrace another. Their analysis of teacher training programs suggests that teacher educators take one of three positions with regard to these conceptions of teaching: 1) noncompatibility, accepting one and rejecting others; 2) eclecticism, treating all conceptions as equal and encouraging teachers to choose among them; and 3) developmental, viewing different conceptions as appropriate at different stages of professional development.

Freeman, D. and J. C. Richards (eds.) 1996. *Teacher learning in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

“In order to better understand language teaching, we need to know more about language teachers...what they know about language teaching, how they think about classroom practice, and how that knowledge and those thinking processes are learned through formal teacher education and informal experience on the job” (p. 1). The 15 studies in this collection offer insights into the thinking and experiences of teachers and their responses to training and teaching from three perspectives: the usefulness of preservice training, the importance of learning in the practice of teaching (teacher decision-making during teaching), and the role of teacher education in teaching practices.

Hartman, D. K. (ed.) 1998. *Stories teachers tell: Reflecting on professional practice*. Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook Co.

This collection of presentations from the 1998 Northeast Conference on Foreign Languages is the first to be authored by classroom teachers and presented in narrative form. These 40 “professional stories,” grouped into “beginnings,” “evolution,” “revelation,” and “extinction,” are written by and for novice or experienced foreign- and heritage-language teachers teaching in a wide range of kindergarten through university contexts. The contributors spent a weekend together in a writers workshop where they discussed, wrote, rewrote, and edited their contributions together. One of the most interesting stories for teacher educators is that of a student teacher whose creativity and confidence in the Spanish classroom is nearly destroyed by one supervising teacher, only to re-emerge when the student

is assigned to another. G. Richard Tucker, in his review of the stories at the end of the collection, identifies "...strong correspondences between classroom practice and current language education theory ...," with teachers incorporating "...exemplary practices into their classrooms on a continual basis" (218–219). But he also notes a discordant discrepancy between how teachers present themselves in these stories ("anxious, creative, empathetic, ingenious, and sensitive") and the exemplary ways ("highly focused, intellectually confident, productive, and task-oriented") in which language researchers, policy makers, and administrators present teachers (220).

Head, K. and P. Taylor. 1997. *Readings in teacher development*. Oxford: Heinemann.

Written by two language teachers and teacher trainers with extensive experience in English language teacher development, this collection of readings and activities is designed to inspire and help teachers in their own development. The book begins by defining teacher development and then explores ways in which teachers can learn about themselves in relation to the learners in their classrooms and their interactions with colleagues. The final chapters focus on personal well-being, including coping with challenges and potential burnout, managing change, and assessing one's own progress. The book draws upon a wide range of sources (general educational theory and practice, psychology, and group dynamics, as well as language teaching and teacher development) in the brief text excerpts; it then provides a "jigsaw" of activities which can be undertaken alone or with others to promote greater self-awareness, confidence, willingness to experiment and change, and personal growth as a teacher.

Lee, J. L. and B. VanPatten (series eds.) *The McGraw-Hill foreign language professional series: Directions in second language learning, and Perspectives on theory and research*. New York: McGraw Hill.

These two related series of texts for second and foreign language teachers, teacher educators, and researchers explore the relationship between second language acquisition research and second and foreign language teaching. The "Directions" series focuses on classroom instruction and management and is intended for teacher educators and teachers, while the "Perspectives" series is primarily for researchers of second language acquisition and teaching. Titles in the two series include:

Bardovi Harlig, K. & B. Hartford (eds.) *Beyond methods: Components of second language teacher education*.

Lee, J. F. & B. VanPatten. *Making communicative language teaching happen*.

Musumeci, D. *Breaking tradition: An exploration of the historical*

relationship between theory and practice in second language teaching.

Sauvignon, S. J. *Communicative competence: Theory and classroom practice.*

Richards, J. C. 1990. *The language teaching matrix.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

With a goal of engaging "...teachers and teachers-in-training, as well as teacher educators, in the investigation of classroom teaching and learning ..." (ix), this collection introduces the "matrix," Richards' metaphor for an "...interactive and multidimensional view of language teaching..." consisting of a number of factors, including teachers, learners, the curriculum, methodology, and materials. Chapters address curriculum development, the design of instructional materials, and particular issues in the teaching of listening comprehension, spoken conversation, reading, writing, and content-based instruction (the latter written with Daniel Hurley). Throughout, the emphasis is upon a bottom-up description of the processes of teaching and learning (methodology), rather than a top-down approach to methods or products, consistent with the approach that Richards outlines in the second chapter, "Beyond methods." Much of what Richards discusses in his last chapter, on directions for language teacher education, is occurring today, including a shift from "training" to "education" perspectives; an emphasis on research in both preservice and inservice development; an inquiry, discovery-oriented, and reflective approach to teaching and learning; and an increased dependence on educational research and theory (especially curriculum and instruction) and reduced dependence on linguistics and language theory in language-teacher development.

Richards, J. C. and D. Nunan (eds.) 1990. *Second language teacher education.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

A goal of this collection is to help prospective teachers develop critical decision-making skills and self-awareness as a teacher. The first chapter, by Richards, discusses the need for a "theory of effective teaching." He considers both a micro approach, looking at individual teacher behaviors such as questioning, pacing, or wait time, and a more macro or holistic approach, looking at teacher-student interaction in the classroom, including turn-taking, task organization, and classroom management. Also included are chapters by Nunan on "Action research in the classroom" and by Bartlett on "Teacher development through reflective teaching," one of the earliest discussions of the place of reflective teaching in ESL/EFL teacher education.

Underhill, A. (series ed.) *The teacher development series.* Oxford: Heinemann.

Intended for teachers, trainers, and academic managers, this series is focused not only on "...subject matter and teaching methods ...," but also on the "...people who are working with the subject and using the methods." The goal of the series is to widen the perspective of language teaching and to encourage teachers to become students of their own learning. Titles in the series include:

- Bowen, T. & J. Marks. *Inside teaching*.
Head, K. & P. Taylor. *Readings in teacher development*.
Impey, G. & A. Underhill. *The ELT managers' handbook*.
Scrivener, J. *Learning teaching*.
Underhill, A. *Sound foundations*.

Wallace, M. J. 1991. *Training foreign language teachers: A reflective approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

After discussing two traditional models of language teacher education (craft and applied science), Wallace focuses on a third, involving reflection, which he develops throughout the book. He describes ways for teachers to recall their experiences and engage in reflection, suggesting the use of a number of media (audio, video, teacher logs), as well as approaches to recording, coding, and interpreting the findings.

William, M. and R. L. Burden. 1997. *Psychology for language teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

This educational psychology text for language teachers reviews major developments in psychological theories and discusses their relevance for language teaching and learning. Beginning with a review of behaviorism, humanism, and cognitivism, the authors then focus on integrating a social-interactionist perspective with a social-constructivist approach to learning, discussing in detail Feurestein's concept of mediation, Vygotsky's zone of proximal development, the role of attribution theory to individual learner variables, learner training, and the importance of context (both outside and inside the classroom) on teaching and learning. A final chapter reviews 10 basic principles for language teachers which emerge from the previous discussion.

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