Curricularizing Language Teaching and Learning:

Navigating Sociocultural Dilemmas in Teacher Education

by

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DEDICATION

To my middle school students, who changed me in fundamental ways.

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ABSTRACT

This dissertation explores sociocultural factors which influence the choices of language teacher educators deciding what to include in coursework and programs. The term "curricularizing" is used to describe the complex process of selecting, planning, and delivering teacher education content. Conflicting social values create dilemmas for teacher educators curricularizing language teaching and learning (LTL) in their practice. Three sociocultural domains of influence affect their work: their national environment, their professional field, and their individual experiences and beliefs. The two stand-alone studies in this dissertation each focus on a different domain and explore the following question: How do language teacher educators curricularize language teaching and learning for teacher learners?

The first study examines a German as a Second or Foreign Language (Deutsch als Zweit/Fremdsprache - DaZ/DaF) pre-service teacher education program in southwest Germany in which the future teaching-contexts of graduates is not yet determined. Data include observation fieldnotes and artifacts from fifty class sessions taught by three teacher educators in one semester of the DaZ/DaF bachelor's program. The study asks the research question: How do DaZ/DaF teacher educators curricularize content-specific aspects of teaching and learning the German language in their practice for teacher learners? The analysis and findings focus on how teacher educators present LTL in their practice through defining language, situating instructional methods in a teaching-context, and relating language teaching and learning to other connected topics. The discussion examines ways in which the factors from the national environment influence the curricularizing choices of DaZ/DaF teacher educators.

The second study explores an in-service teacher training program in Australia which prepares teachers to use a functional theory of language to support English literacy in the primary/secondary school context and centers the domain of the professional field. The study asks the following question: How do members of the 'community of explanation' (Freeman, 2016) implementing functional grammar and the Lexis program in schools, separated by geographical and professional distance, understand the factors which affect that work? Interviews with twelve educators involved in implementing the training program from Lexis Education were analyzed for common factors they discussed. The educators have various professional roles and live in different Australian states, but findings show they are connected as a community of explanation by a shared understanding of the theory of language and the curriculum materials, as well as factors which relate to those social facts. Findings also reveal factors related to the setting of implementation as the school context. The discussion explores dilemmas which are resolved through having a contextualized theory of language in teacher education and standardized materials and dilemmas which remain as a result of implementing the program in schools.

The final chapter explores how the same curricularizing framework was used to explore different research questions, diverse sociocultural influences on the work of teacher educators, and dilemmas specific to the teacher educators and programs in the studies by focusing on different domains. Future areas of research as presented, including the need to examine alignment between the curricularizing of language teaching and learning and the future teaching-contexts of teacher learners. The concluding remarks address the need for teacher educators to reflect on the ways in which they navigate sociocultural dilemmas and consider how small changes in their practice might help them work toward their goals in language education.

CHAPTER 1

Introduction

I have taught one adult in a private language lesson and I have taught a classroom of thirty-eight middle school students learning language alongside other academic content. These teaching-contexts are considerably different and the varied needs and goals of the students require different knowledge about language, how it functions, and pedagogical approaches to address those needs. I argue in this dissertation that language teacher educators need a contextualized theory of teacher education to prepare their teacher learners for such different teaching-contexts. As Freeman and Johnson first argued 20 years ago (1998), "for the purposes of educating teachers, any theory of [second language acquisition], any classroom methodology, or any description of that English language as content must be understood against the backdrop of teachers' professional lives within the settings where they work, and within the circumstances of that work" (p. 405). A contextualized theory of teacher education would be one that aligns the choices made in teacher education with the understandings from research and practice about particular teaching-contexts.

I define a "teaching-context" as the setting in which a particular group of learners are being taught specific content. While every single class is naturally a different teaching-context (as anyone who has had a very different second period and fourth period class in the same school and grade level can attest to), the more targeted the teacher education instruction can be to a particular teaching-context, the better prepared teacher learners will be to work with students. Language teacher education is comprised of any setting in which a teacher educator is preparing

a teacher learner to explicitly work with language as the content in the classroom. This definition includes teachers who are prepared to teach language as their main content and also teachers of other content areas receiving preparation to explicitly teach aspects of language in their lessons. The goal of language teacher education is to prepare teachers to work with language as the content to be taught to students in these different teaching-contexts.

The argument that this preparation should be contextualized stems from the idea in education that some knowledge needed in teaching is dependent on the teaching-context. Although teachers need general and specialized knowledge of their content area, they also develop knowledge of how to teach that content to particular groups of learners (Shulman, 1986). This pedagogical content knowledge (or PCK) includes "an understanding of what makes the learning of specific topics easy or difficult: the conceptions and preconceptions that students of different ages and backgrounds bring with them to the learning of those most frequently taught topics and lessons," as well as the "most useful" ways to represent that content for learners (p. 13). PCK therefore identifies that there exists "amalgam knowledge that combines the knowing of content with the knowing of students and pedagogy" and "offers a way to build a bridge between the academic world of disciplinary knowledge and the practice world of teaching" (Ball, Thames, & Phelps, 2008, p. 398). It therefore follows that teacher education would target what is known in the field as the most appropriate content and pedagogy for students in the particular contexts in which their teacher learners are most likely to work.

Pre-service teacher education for other content areas usually have a narrowed focus on teaching-contexts. For example, math, science, and language arts typically divide pre-service programs into elementary and secondary teacher education. Teachers enter to become high school science teachers or elementary art teachers. In the United States, certification programs in

these content areas prepare teachers to work in public schools within particular grade levels (e.g. K-8, 6-12, 6-8). The assumption is that someone trained to teach elementary math would not be equally qualified to teach college math at the end of the teacher education program. In-service training for these content areas continues the targeted focus on a particular teaching-context, often narrowing it further to the specific school in which the teacher works.

Pre-service language teacher education programs, however, often include teacher learners who aspire to teach K-12 students, college students, or older adults, in local public schools, university language classrooms, or in various class settings both inside or outside the country of the teacher education program. Researchers have found that programs in the United States designed to prepare teachers of English as an additional language to work in the local setting of the program have seen increased numbers of teacher learners who "graduate from MATESOL programs outside their own countries and then return home to teach" (Stapleton & Shao, 2018, p. 13). Teacher learners in these programs may ultimately teach in classes where language is the main content being taught or in classes where they must support the development of language norms for particular content areas. Many programs address the different contexts through the practicum experience, but that is an imperfect panacea if either the program has not prepared them for any particular context and relies on the practicum to focus their understandings, or if the program admits students who plan to move to another country to teach, but the practicum requires them to work in local schools.

The reality is many language teacher education programs attempt to prepare teachers for many teaching-contexts and teacher educators attempting to address all the potential contexts face a challenging task in selecting and presenting teacher education content. Different approaches to language and language teaching align with different language teaching-contexts

because of who the learners are and their goals and needs. However, as Bowers (1986) observed thirty-five years ago, in language education "the fact that we have learned to specify learner needs and wants does not mean that we are invariably adept at applying our prescriptions to the right patients" (p. 400). Teacher educators must decide which theories of language and which instructional practices best meet the needs of their teacher learners from "a proliferation of elements" in language curricula (Graves, 2016, p. 85). This proliferation presents a dilemma when the future teaching-contexts of their teacher learners are broad and varied. Even in in-service programs, the continued pressure to address multiple, sometimes conflicting, theories of language and their pedagogies may influence the decisions of teacher educators and affect the utility of the professional learning opportunity for teachers. As Singh and Richards (2006) describe, often "in-service courses are viewed as little more than a survey of current teaching methods" (p. 151), and not necessarily aligned with the teaching-context of the in-service educators.

The question is what happens in language teacher education when teacher educators try to navigate these dilemmas. This dissertation explores two language teacher education programs, one pre-service in which the teaching-contexts of the teacher learners is not yet determined and one in-service in which it is firmly established and how that difference affects the ways in which language teaching and learning are presented. It ultimately argues for the strength of focusing on a contextualized theory of language teacher education. This chapter describes two sociocultural frameworks for exploring choices in teacher education in general, dilemmas and curricularizing, and an analytic framework for considering content area specific choices. I then focus on language teacher education, the ways in which language has been conceptualized in language

education, and briefly introduce the two studies of language teacher education presented in the dissertation.

Navigating Dilemmas

Dilemmas exist in all teaching as conflicting social values about students, learning, and education weigh on the choices of educators. Dilemmas lie in the interaction between the sociocultural and the individual and thus the framework of dilemmas offers a sociocultural perspective for studying teaching. Berlak and Berlak (1981) state that "persons' activities cannot be understood apart from their biographies and the histories of the groups with whom they identify… or apart from the time and place in which they act" (p. 111). When teaching, educators enact the macro values of society in the microcosm of the classroom. Dilemmas are not problems for which there exist easy or right answers, but the "unceasing interaction of internal and external forces, a world of continuous transformations" (Berlak & Berlak, 1981, p. 133). Society exerts conflicting pressures on educators, and as they decide how to teach, consciously or subconsciously, they navigate and resolve these dilemmas.

Patterns of resolving dilemmas in society create the existing status quo. Through shifting patterns of navigation, educators can change what is emphasized and privileged in education and society. For example, how much of education should be content-centered versus child-centered has shifted over time. Historical traditions of rote repetition of answers (Mann, 1844) have shifted in teachers' practice to ideas of supporting students as individuals to construct their own knowledge (Fenstermacher & Richardson, 2005). In changing how dilemmas are navigated, teaching practice changes and therefore the experience of schooling changes for students.

Just as school-age children take cues from teachers about the organization and power dynamics in society, teacher learners may take away messages of what is important in teaching

and education from their teacher educators. Teacher education programs "define what is worth knowing and how it is best learned by those individuals who seek to become part of the profession" (Freeman & Johnson, 1998, p. 403). There has long been discussion of whether the learning in teacher education is "washed out" (Zeichner & Tabachnick, 1981) when teachers begin working in schools or never "washed in" the way years of experiencing schooling as a student is (Lortie, 1975; Ball, 1988). Framed by the idea that "*all* schooling… is political" (Berlak & Berlak, 1981, p. 253, emphasis in original), I draw from the assumption that social views and practices of education are transmitted through teacher education, even if the messages and lessons might sometimes result from traditional practices instead of innovative reforms. The way teacher educators resolve dilemmas in their practice conveys to teacher learners the important concepts in education, chosen over the concepts which are not given a focus in the curriculum. In that way, teacher education "provides norms for teaching" (Grossman & Richert, 1988, p. 58) and is "indeed a political undertaking" (Freeman & Johnson, 1998, p. 409).

Yet teacher educators are faced with conflicting sociocultural dilemmas as well in deciding how to teach. They prepare teacher learners in a sociocultural environment and must select from a tremendous amount of potential substance to teach them. Freeman (2009) defines the substance of teacher education as "what participants are expected to learn through [teacher education] designs" (p. 11). It is important to emphasize that the substance of teacher education is not the content area itself, but rather the *teaching and learning* of that content area. Figure 1.1 captures the difference between content in teaching and substance in teacher education using the instructional triangle (adapted from Cohen, Raudenbush, & Ball, 2003; Freeman, 2016). The entire instructional triangle of teaching (A) becomes the substance to be taught in the instructional triangle of teacher education (B).

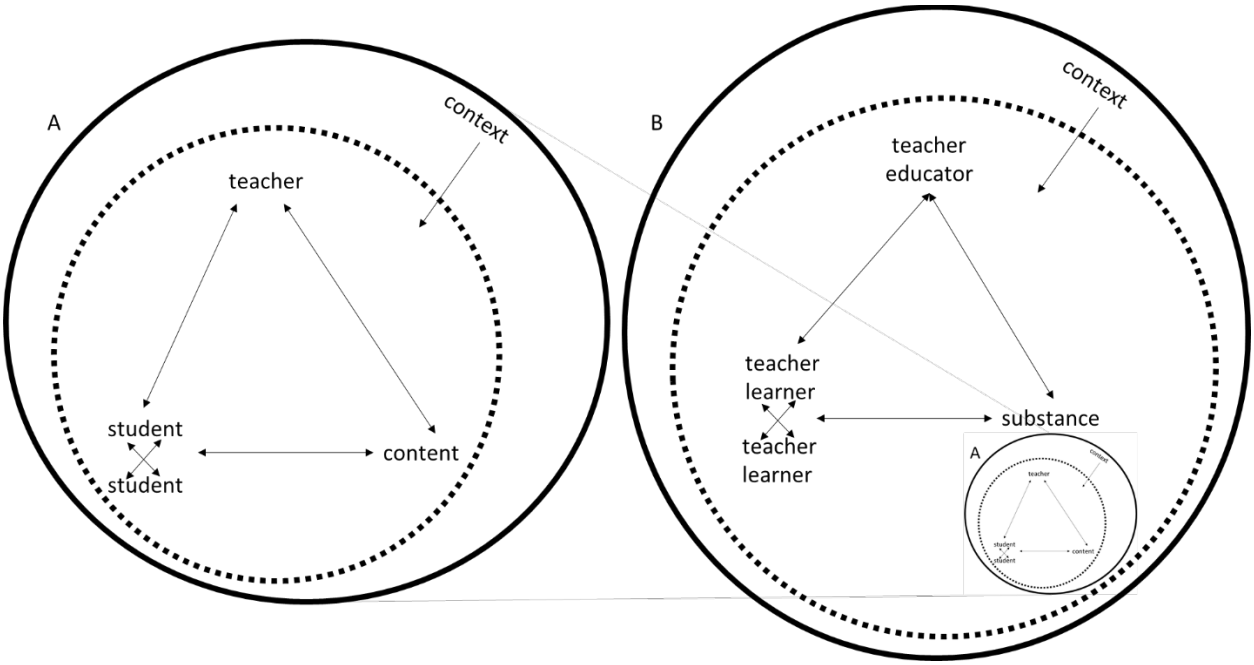

Figure 1.1: The instructional triangle in (left) teaching and (right) teacher education

Teacher educators must decide how much their teacher learners need to know about both general and content-specific methods of teaching, the theories of general education and content which ground those methods, and experiences teachers will have in schools outside of their classrooms, for example standardized testing procedures, IEP meetings, or developing school instructional plans. Teacher educators must decide how much time to dedicate in the program and in specific courses to each topic. Their selections are not neutral; every decision is value-laden. Every decision is the resolution of navigating a larger sociocultural dilemma for that teaching context at that time.

With so much potential substance, conceptualizing choices in teacher education as dilemmas offers language to simplify the complexity of the process "without over-generalizing or distorting the nuances and problems of school life" (Berlak & Berlak, 1981, p. 107). The dilemmas framework developed out of work Berlak and Berlak did in the late 1970s and early 1980s in Britain. They studied classrooms and teaching in Britain in the hopes of understanding

the "open" education movement, ideas from which were gaining traction in the United States. Their goal was

> …to formulate 'private troubles as public issues', to illuminate in one form of instructional life, schooling 'the intricate connections between everyday behavior and the course of history'; the relationships of the mundane, the ordinary – and sometimes unusual – events of everyday school life to the significant broader concerns of social and economic justice, and the quality of life. (p. 3)

Their book, *Dilemmas of Schooling*, drew on Karl Marx and George Herbert Mead to argue that individuals are shaped by social forces they may at times be aware of and at other times not (Berlak & Berlak, 1981, Part VI: Towards a dialectical account of teacher action, pp. 111-134). Berlak and Berlak sought to describe the individual actions taken by educators while representing "schooling processes that are in constant flux, and to illuminate the relationship of past, present, and future" (p. 125). Berlak and Berlak recognized that dilemmas are not resolved one at a time, but rather "a whole range of dilemmas that deal with social and knowledge control are simultaneously being resolved" (p. 264). Acknowledging that putting language to a phenomenon both "sharpens" and "distorts" (p. 111), Berlak and Berlak developed a set of sixteen dilemmas as a common language to describe what they were seeing.

One could use the dilemmas framework to study those sixteen original dilemmas as social values which create tension in teaching[1]. However, I use a broader notion of dilemmas as a sociocultural framework to conceptualize conflicting social values which educators resolve when they make choices, not specifically tied to the sixteen Berlak and Berlak (1981) identified.

[1] I would argue, however, that dilemmas in teaching practice change over time and space and while the original sixteen may still serve an important purpose in some places, researchers would need to consider which ones have become more or less salient and which new dilemmas have emerged in the changing education landscape.

Dilemmas provide a means to discuss the sociocultural influences on the decisions of teacher educators and the process they go through in curricularizing teaching and learning.

Curricularizing Teaching and Learning

A Note on Curricularizing

In developing a framework to consider sociocultural macro influences on the micro actions of teacher educators, I sought a term that would capture that navigating dilemmas in teacher education is a process, not a product. I eliminated terms which were too neat (e.g. packaging teaching and learning) or which suggested every decision was intentional (e.g. selecting). I decided on curricularizing to represent that it is not a set curriculum, as often teacher educators are given great flexibility in designing their coursework, but rather the process of that designing, as influenced by various social factors.

I wanted the framework to represent the relationship between education as it is perceived and practiced in the national environment versus concepts of education privileged in the professional field, while respecting that the individual teacher educator ultimately presents the substance of their teacher education courses. In doing so, I separated sociocultural influences and factors into domains. I included foundational ideas from teacher education research, such as communities of practice or teacher expertise, categorized into those domains of influence.

Guadalupe Valdés (2015; 2018; Kibler & Valdés, 2016) uses the term curricularizing to study a different process in education, how language is turned into a curriculum and how schools organize language education. Valdés' framework serves a separate purpose, as it attempts to frame and challenge the treatment of language in education and the ways in which is it is often politicized to the detriment of students in the United States (Kibler & Valdés, 2016). There are similarities between our use of the term, but it is important to note that the framework for teacher

education in this dissertation did not develop from Valdés' framework, where there are differences regarding the focus of study, the purpose of the framework, and the use of the term. For example, Valdés focuses on curricularizing as a process unique to the formal teaching of language in education, arguing that selecting and organizing language into teachable parts is unnatural. She argues that treating language as content approaches it "as if it were an ordinary academic subject the learning of which is parallel to learning science, history, or mathematics" and does not treat language as "a species-unique communicative system acquired naturally in the process of primary socialization" (2015, p. 262).

I argue that the curricularizing framework developed for studying teacher education can be used with any content area, as it is the teaching and learning that is selected, organized, and presented for teacher learners. I do not view it as an unnatural act (or at least no more unnatural than any other teaching), as choices must be made given the limited resource of time in teacher education. This framework is designed to describe teacher education from a sociocultural standpoint, and to provide a tool for teacher educators to reflect on their own practice, but it is not meant to be evaluative of teacher educators or their work. Instead, I seek to understand why choices have been made in teacher education given the conflicting factors influencing teacher educators.

Valdés (2018) also considers sociocultural influences in studying curricularizing by focusing on those factors (which she calls mechanisms) which influence language education in schools. She presents these mechanisms as hierarchical and unidirectional, with theoretical and ideological mechanisms influencing policies, contexts, and traditions, which in turn influence core program elements, in that direction. The framework in this dissertation also considers sociocultural factors, but categorizes them by the social domains to which they are most related,

such as ideologies belonging to the national environment while theories and discourses usually arise from the professional field. It does not view these factors as hierarchical, as factors influence each other in all directions, such as practices changing ideologies over time or individuals affecting a professional field.

Both frameworks acknowledge that there are sociocultural influences at work in making decisions about what to teach and how. Some of Valdés' mechanisms are included under the domains discussed in this dissertation as commonly accepted influences on education (e.g. ideologies, policies). I hope researchers will consider various ways to use the term curricularizing to study the processes of turning an entire field into teachable content for learners and consider which sociocultural factors are most aligned with that process in their field. In teacher education, I center the domains and factors described in this section as influences on teacher educators.

Curricularizing and Domains of Influence

I use the term "curricularizing" to represent the process in teacher education of navigating dilemmas and choosing what and how to teach as substance. This process is affected by the sociocultural influences of the national environment and the professional field on the individual making the decisions in a time and place. The *national environment*, *professional field*, and *individual* are all domains which exert sociocultural influence on the teacher educator curricularizing teaching and learning, with many factors involved in each domain (Figure 1.2). I argue that teacher educators in all content areas are influenced by these domains when curricularizing the teaching and learning of their content area and the framework can be used broadly to consider sociocultural influences on teacher education.

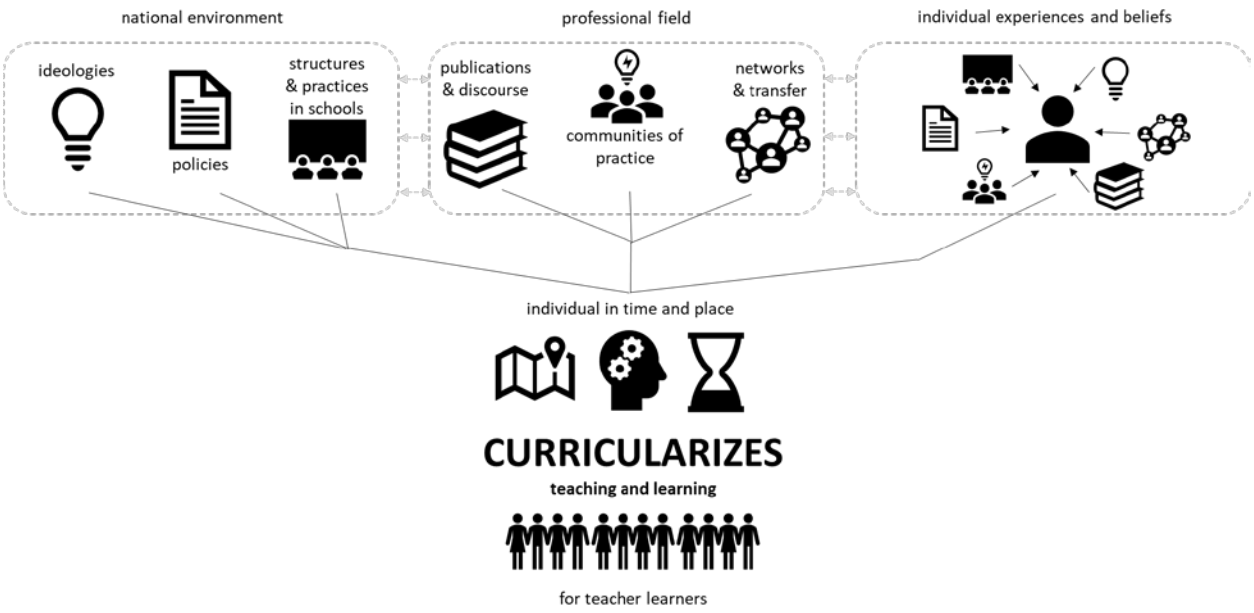

Figure 1.2: The curricularizing framework for teacher education

National Environment

The term *national environment* refers to the cultural and political setting of a country, its (albeit sometimes arbitrarily bounded) ideologies and policies, and its common educational structures and practices. Some of the factors in the national environment will be more closely aligned with the state, district, or school, but national environment is used to encapsulate all the levels of the education system in a country. The factors related to the national environment focus on cultural beliefs and practices as a collection of habits and customs in education (Lampert, 2010). Although the term context is frequently used to represent this idea, I attempt to avoid confusing national political context with teaching-context by referring to the former as an environment.

Ideologies, broadly defined, are "a systematic body of ideas, organized from a particular point of view" (Kress & Hodge, 1979, p. 6). Ideologies contain a "loading of moral and political interests" (Irvine, 1989, p. 255), meaning they are not a neutral point of view, but rather strongly

upheld by their ideologues and linked to power. Education is affected by ideologies related to how education should be organized and funded, who should receive education and how, and what should be learned and why. National ideologies related to content areas are guided by beliefs of the general public (i.e. not those of professional educators in that content area) about what is important to learn in that content and how it should be learned and taught. Teacher educators must contend with both the ideologies which they are aware affect them and ideologies which may influence their actions subconsciously. Teacher learners will also arrive in teacher education with beliefs related to the content area, often as a result of their time in school and the apprenticeship of observation (Lortie, 1975) and teacher educators must decide how to navigate those beliefs in their practice.

Ideologies affect *policies* in that they have political power, but policies also affect ideologies over time, as they provide or obstruct certain opportunities that influence people's beliefs and understandings. Policy is difficult to draw clear boundaries around as

> [it] is both 'textual'; that is, a document that announces an authoritative position and allocates resources in a given area, and also 'discourse'; that is, the debates and discussion that surround decision making about what is to be done in a particular area. (Lo Bianco & Slaughter, 2009, p. 17)

Policies include "all the measures, explicit and implicit" which impact actions and relations to a "political domain and its discourses" (Phillipson & Skutnabb-Kangas, 2009, p. 30). In education, policies affect everything from how schools are funded to how students receive services in schools. Teacher educators must consider which policies are necessary for teacher learners to explore and understand, such as including coursework related to assessment or legal rights of students with exceptionalities.

The last set of factors from the national domain is *practices and structures* in schools. These factors include how districts and schools are organized as a result of common practices (as opposed to those factors which result from policy). Some of these practices become *de facto* policies, blurring the lines between implicit policy and common practice. For example, the practice of having a homeroom to take morning attendance has changed into an advisory class, which is now policy in many districts. Common practices in content areas that have been established over time would be classified under structures and practices, such as push-in or pull-out classes for second language[2] students. These structures are likely the realities teacher learners working in these settings will face and therefore teacher educators must consider which aspects of practices in schools to curricularize in teacher education.

Professional Field

The *professional field* is the academic setting in which a teacher educator works or to which a teacher educator feels connected through their work. The field provides input for the educator on what is established as theory, knowledge, and practice and what is innovative, as well as the academic rationale for change and innovation. Richards (2008) calls this "internally initiated change" in which "the teaching professional gradually [evolves] a changed understanding of its own essential knowledge base and associated instructional practices through the efforts of… specialists in the field" (p. 159). Many aspects of the professional field influence

[2] Educators have pushed back against the terms, 'foreign' and 'second' languages, for many good reasons. A better way to position language in the context is Graves' (2008) notion of "target-language embedded" and "target-language removed" contexts for teaching. Removed contexts are those in which the language spoken outside the teaching-context is not the target language in the classroom. Removed contexts align more often with the traditional idea of 'foreign' language teaching. Embedded contexts are those in which the language spoken outside the teaching-context is the target language in the classroom, connected more closely to 'second' language teaching. Graves' terms, however, allow for the target language not being numbered, as it might not be someone's second language, but third, fourth, or fifth, as well as specifying the relationship between the language and the surrounding national environment. However, I use the terms 'foreign' and 'second' languages because it is what the teacher educators in my two studies used and because of their popularity in the field and understandings/traditions they bring as terms.

an educator, including participation in communities of practice, the ideas prevalent in publications and discourse in that field, and the transfer of knowledge between networks of educators.

One can argue that the professional field exists within a national environment in that universities and professional organizations are located in different states and countries. That is certainly true and there exists overlap in the influences of local school practices and the professional field. Professional teacher education programs may unintentionally reinforce ideas about national ideology or may intentionally include information teacher learners need to know about policies. Teacher education programs located in larger departments may be "under explicit pressure to conform to the prevailing ideologies of the departments" (Ramanathan, Davies, & Schleppegrell, 2001, p. 300). However, I locate the influences from the professional field as their own domain for two reasons: first, to represent that the discourse and ideas of the professional field (and specifically academia) often conflict with discourse and ideas in national ideologies, policies, and school practices and, second, to recognize the transnational movement of ideas through a field.

The professional field often provides theoretical perspectives on teaching and learning, as well as what is deemed desirable in content area teaching, regardless of whether it matches policy and practices in the national environment. For example, the argument for the advantages of bilingualism and supporting students' first language in the classroom often comes from the professional field of language education, even in countries where the national ideology is monolingual and policy enforces education in only the dominant national language. Teacher education works to bring desirable innovation to teaching, but it often must compete with

socialized conceptions of teaching (Lortie, 1975) and traditional pedagogy in higher education (Zeichner & Tabachnik, 1981).

The professional field includes both the conceptual influences from discourse and publications, but also the institutional influences from professional organizations working toward common goals in education, such as universities, companies, and administrative offices. Some influences from the professional field will arise from program organization, mandates or requirements. As teacher educators participate in the work of an institution, they become members of the communities of practice (Wenger, 1998) which function in that institution. At the same time, they are members of other communities of practice in the professional field, such as professional networks or educators working in the teacher educator's area of expertise. Influences from various communities of practice are important to consider when studying the curricularizing of teacher educators. One might, for example, explore which choices in curricularizing directly relate to institutional influences as opposed to other sources of ideas and discourse in the professional field.

Communities of practice work toward common goals in education. As Wenger (1998) states, "practice is always social practice" (p. 47) and we all belong to many communities throughout our lives. Wenger's theory of *communities of practice* (1998) argues that people engage in communities through two processes, participation and reification. Freeman (2016) expands upon this theory by shifting those processes into two types of community: communities of activity and communities of explanation. Communities of activity are connected by engaging in an activity which the members of the community recognize as meaningful (p. 241). The members of a community of activity are also members of communities of explanation in that they make meaning of their activities through shared understandings of their enterprise. These

shared meanings are expressed through common terms, or social facts, around which the communities of activity cohere and which explain the communities of activity.

Social facts relate closely to the idea of *discourse* in a professional field, or "the debates and discussion that surround decision making about what is to be done in a particular area" (Lo Bianco & Slaughter, 2009, p. 17). This meaning of discourse centers "the articulation, discussion, deliberation, and legitimization of our ideas about our actions" (Schmidt, 2010, p. 15) instead of discourse as a verbal exchange between parties. Discourse includes the ways of acting and enacting social identities (Gee, 1992). Through choosing, consciously or subconsciously, to focus on the same substance in teacher education, communities of activity and explanation navigate social dilemmas in similar ways. Over time, the social facts of professional communities of explanation become part of the established discourse in a field. They are reified through publications, presentations, and use. Textbooks are a good example of this reification, where key ideas become the expected topics to be taught in teacher education courses. Educators in a professional space become members of communities in their field through adopting and articulating these social facts (Freeman, 2016).

At the same time, ideas, social facts, and practices can move across communities in the professional field through *networks* which "facilitate the negotiation and settlement of global standards through regular interaction of experts and professionals" (Stone, 2012, p. 495). In a new professional field, these transfers potentially take on new meaning for new communities engaged in different activities. Teacher educators are influenced by what is privileged in the academic field as they work in communities of practice and are connected through transnational professional networks which "share their expertise, information and form common patterns of understanding" (Stone, 2012, p. 495).

Individual Teacher Educators

The teacher educator is an *individual*, who brings all their experience, expertise, and personal beliefs to their practice. Leung (2013) refers to this as independent professionalism. Although the national environment and the professional field have tremendous influence, we should not discount the individual in action. As educational research historically has shown, individual educators become experts (Berliner, 1986), make decisions about their practice (Shavelson, 1973), and recognize the dilemmas in the daily practice of the classroom setting (Lampert, 1985). Teacher knowledge has been written about widely, from pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1986) to practical knowledge (Elbaz, 1983) to specialized content knowledge and common content knowledge (Ball, Thames, & Phelps, 2008). These factors create individual difference in knowledge and expertise which influence curricularizing.

Individual experiences and beliefs do not develop in a vacuum. Beliefs, choices, and knowledge are the result of social interaction in the national environment and professional field. The teacher education program a teacher educator originally attended, for example, has potential influence on the social facts to which they adhere and the communities to which they belong. It is therefore possible, as with all domains in the framework, to focus on difference in the individual domain or to explore the relationship between the individual's beliefs and experiences and the other domains of sociocultural influence.

The individual appears in two places in the curricularizing framework. The domain of individual experience and beliefs represents knowledge and beliefs specific to a person. However, the individual in time and place, located in the center of Figure 1.2, represents "relationships between consciousness, behavior and the social context past, present and future that are 'in' individuals in the moments that they act" (Berlak & Berlak, p. 223). In other words,

the individual domain is about differences or similarities in individuals which may affect their curricularizing. The individual in time and place curricularizing is about how people instantiate sociocultural factors, both individual and communal, into the work they do.

Studying Curricularizing

As Figure 1.2 and the acknowledgement of overlap in the above descriptions represent, the sociocultural domains work in combination with one another. Their boundaries are artificial and permeable, and ideas transfer between them. For example, experts in the professional field are often a part of making policy. Teacher educators in professional communities of practice, ideally, influence the practices of the teacher learners they teach. Simultaneously, the structures in schools or the dominant ideology surrounding a content area affect the focus of the professional field. The individual's experiences are located within the national environment and professional field, yet an individual can become a powerful voice in education. Although I often discuss the domains separately in the two studies, they are always interacting with and affecting one another in many different ways. Using the framework to guide research means acknowledging the influence of the various domains on teacher educators, albeit to varying degrees depending in the research question and study.

The entire curricularizing framework for studying the work of teacher educators presents multiple smaller points of entry into exploring teacher education. Both papers in this dissertation begin with a different part of the framework, to be explained further in a later section of this introduction. The point is that to use the curricularizing framework does not require exploring every domain equally in every study. Instead, the framework allows one to center a particular domain or set of factors as the lens for exploring teacher education while recognizing that it is one part of a number of complicated, interrelated sociocultural and individual influences.

Curricularizing Content-Specific Aspects of Teaching and Learning

Content areas, as with everything else in education, are socially constructed. As Dewey stated (1916)

> The material of school studies translates into concrete and detailed terms the meanings of current social life which it is desirable to transmit. It puts clearly before the instructor the essential ingredients of the culture to be perpetuated, in such an organized form as to protect him from the haphazard efforts he would be likely to indulge in if the meanings had not been standardized. (p. 214)

Content areas serve an organizing function, as they allow educators to categorize knowledge, skills, and facts into domains and train teachers in those areas. Yet they are choices, the result of years of patterns of negotiating dilemmas, and how those dilemmas have been resolved reflect social values. Schwab (1978) posits that "there is no fixed catalogue of disciplines, for each of which we must seek structure" (p. 255). When changes take place in what is "desirable to transmit," content areas change. Educators navigate those dilemmas differently, and shifts happen in education and social thinking.

Teacher educators curricularize *teaching and learning*, not the content area itself. Yet because teacher educators tend to specialize in a content area, they often curricularize the *teaching and learning of that content* in particular. They must consider what is known about teaching the specific content area and decide which content-specific aspects of teaching and learning are most important for teacher learners to know. In doing do, they bound the substance of teacher education from all the possible knowledge in the broader content area. Through analyzing instances of language teacher education, this dissertation identified three content-

specific aspects of teaching and learning which teacher educators present for teacher learners (Figure 1.3).

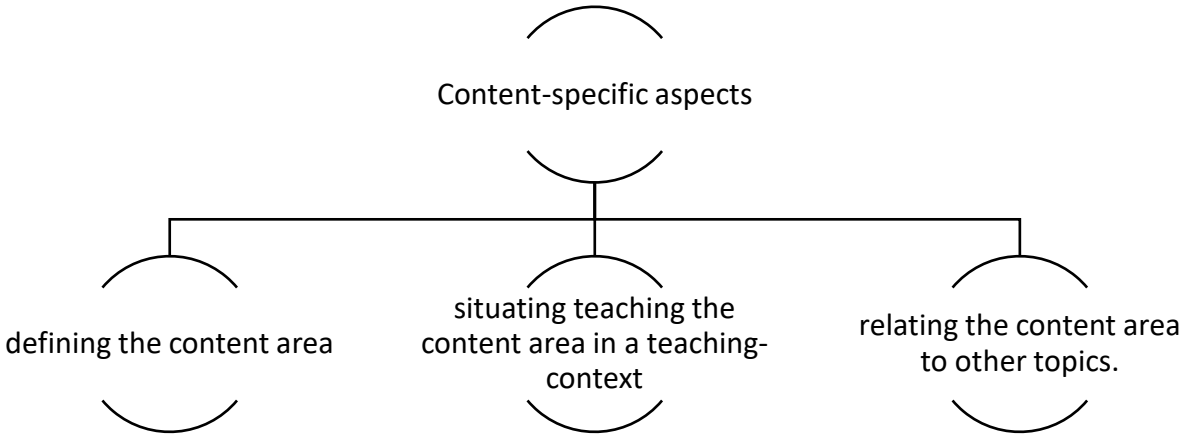

Figure 1.3: Three content-specific aspects of teaching and learning which teacher educators present

First, a content area is *defined*, explicitly or implicitly. What does it mean to teach one content versus another? As content areas are socially constructed sets of knowledge and skills related to a certain topic, how they are defined can vary across communities or individuals in the field. Although it is from the combined knowledge of different theories, approaches and perspectives that we build understandings of our fields and the world, time in teacher education is a limited resource and therefore selections must be made regarding which theories and approaches to present. All definitions and disciplinary camps cannot be addressed in the short span of a program or course, nor are they all equally as appropriate for teacher learners preparing for different teaching-contexts to study. Therefore dilemmas must be navigated and in curricularizing the teaching and learning of a content area, certain definitions are privileged, which has implications for teacher education practice and substance.

Second, teacher educators *situate* teaching the content area within a teaching-context based on who the teacher learners' students will be and how they will use the content. Although

aspects of the same content may be spiraled throughout years of schooling (Bruner, 1960), the ways in which the content area is taught will vary based on the age of the learner, the goals of the learner, and the methods necessary to meet those goals. Situating the content area in a particular teaching-context means the teacher educator is better able to focus their curricularizing on the needs of the teacher learners and their future students.

Third, content areas are *related* to other topics that educators feel are important. Connected topics are aspects of teaching and learning teacher educators select that are specifically related to the content area in some manner. For example in language teacher education, a teacher educator may choose to focus coursework on language acquisition, language and identity, language and literacy, or language and power in society. Connecting language with other topics is different than defining it. It is unlikely that one would say language *is* acquisition or language *is* literacy. These two topics have their own definitions, but can be closely intertwined depending on how the teacher educator relates them.

Defining the content area to be taught, situating the teaching in a teaching-context, and relating the content area to other topics are both a part of the process of curricularizing, as teacher educators decide what to emphasize, and the outcome of the process. In that way, these three content-specific aspects of teaching and learning can be used as analytic categories to study the choices made regarding curricularizing the teaching and learning of the content area, as can be seen in the first study in this dissertation. At the same time, these choices may already be known at the beginning of a study, as is the case in the second study in the dissertation, in which case these categories serve as background information about the teacher educators' curricularizing choices.

This dissertation focuses on language as the content area of teacher education, with teacher educators curricularizing the broad field of language teaching and learning (LTL) for teacher learners. I use the acronym LTL to represent the selection and bounding of the content area which results from curricularizing it, not to trivialize the incredible amount of substance contained in the field. The acronym serves as a reminder that it is not only the teaching and learning of the content area of language which teacher educators must curricularize, but all aspects of teaching and learning, including general theories of teaching and learning and related pedagogies. Because the two studies in the dissertation are located in language teacher education, the next section provides background information on the field of language education, how it has defined language, contextualized language teaching, explored appropriate methods, and focused on connected topics.

Language as a Content Area

Language is similar to other content areas in many ways and yet also vastly different. On the one hand, language has a long history of being taught in schools, changes in practice over time, and different definitions of what language is, how people learn it, and how it should be taught. On the other hand, when language is the subject, as in foreign language education or sheltered second language classrooms, “the content is about itself; it is entirely reflexive” (Freeman, 2016, p. 36). When language is not the targeted subject, but the student is learning the language alongside the subject matter as in second language education, there is a dimension of learning not present in mother-tongue content coursework. In other words, language can be the medium and focus of instruction or language can be the gatekeeper to accessing content.

Language also has a different history of practices in schools, such as “foreign” languages being taught as optional courses or “second” language support being offered as a pull-out or

push-in resource and not a class itself. In addition, language has been conceptualized in various ways. These conceptualizations and related teaching practices are sometimes more aligned with one teaching-context than another. I therefore use Grave's (2016) notion of waves in language curriculum to explore to what degree teacher educators' definitions of language as content and the teaching practices they present correspond with the potential future teaching-contexts of their teacher learners.

Graves (2016) identified three historical "waves" in curriculum materials of different conceptualizations of language: the linguistic wave, the communicative wave, and the third wave. Graves argues that "while they are in some ways chronological, there is considerable overlap among them, and they are each still very much in play today" (p. 80). The three conceptualizations of language have been linked with particular pedagogical practices for language teaching. I therefore use the wave categories not only to mean conceptualizations in curriculum, but to describe waves of language teaching based on those conceptualizations. Each wave offers affordances in education depending on the needs and goals of the learners in different teaching-contexts.

The linguistic wave, similar to what Kumaravadivelu (2006) describes as the "language as system" vantage point (p. 4), views language as "a set of grammatical, morphological and phonological rule-governed systems" (Graves, 2016, p. 80). Similar to learning of one's mother tongue grammar in schools as "Latinate grammar" or the study of "individual parts of speech and the rules of pronunciation as well as how to analyse complete sentences" (Snyder, 2008, p. 14), the linguistic wave taught individual pieces of language in a linear manner. This focus "[acknowledges] that each unit of language, from a single sound to a complex word in a large text – spoken or written – has a character of its own" (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 4). Language in

the linguistic wave "are built up, pattern by pattern, to form sentences and dialogues" (Graves, 2016, p. 80). Corresponding teaching methods focus on ways to help students build up language in that manner. For students of traditional linguistics, this way of studying language is a powerful tool for understanding its parts and how they function in a system. For a foreign language learner who wants to learn language to travel, for example, the linguistic wave may meet some their needs by helping them build new sentences and dialogues, but they also need multiple chances to practice different ways to communicate.

The communicative wave frames language as "socially situated communication" and emphasizes "the ability to speak, write, read, and understand the language for different purposes in a range of settings" (Graves, 2016, p. 81). Language teaching reforms from the late twentieth century moved away from the linguistic wave in favor of the communicative wave (Graves & Garton, 2017).

> The most common reasons cited for these reforms, and for the adoption of communicative language curricula in particular, are globalization and the perceived need for an English-speaking population in order to compete in the global economy as well as to contribute to national development through international exchanges in a variety of fields such as business and technology. (Graves & Garton, 2017, p. 446)

The communicative wave connected the "notion of language proficiency" with the "four skills of reading, writing speaking and listening… and they became the building blocks of the communicative curriculum" (Graves, 2016, p. 81). This wave aligns with learner-center methods, in which activities "are meant to mirror those that learners will be expected to perform outside the classroom, for example, ordering from a menu or completing a job application" (Graves, 2016, p. 81). The communicative language approach is often "the basis of the English curriculum

in target language removed," or foreign language, settings (Graves & Garton, 2017, p. 448). This approach often aligns with the needs of a learner whose goals relate to travel, language for business, or language for tourism.

The focus on the four skills and communicative activities is, however, "not adequate for those who need English for specific professional and academic purposes" (Graves, 2016, p. 82). Graves (2016) argues content area classrooms "are natural contexts for classroom texts, roles and activities that revolve around subject-matter. They are not natural contexts for other types of roles, texts and tasks, e.g. socializing, getting things done, etc." (p. 84). Communicative pedagogies, therefore, are often not as useful to the second language learner working to develop academic language. Second language students learning the academic language in the school are expected to master the same content as their mother-tongue speaking peers while learning all the features of that language simultaneously. Schleppegrell (2020) observes that learners of English as a Second Language are

> expected to develop both English and subject area knowledge at a pace that keeps them on track to complete their educations with fully developed content knowledge in all subjects as well as control of the English language through which those subjects are taught and learned. (p. 18)

Language teaching methods associated with the third wave view "language as a resource for meaning-making contingent on a context of use" (Graves, 2016, p. 82). This wave includes genre- and text-focused approaches based on pedagogical reconceptualizations of systemic functional linguistics (Halliday, 1973).

Systemic functional linguistics (SFL) as a theory of language was developed by Michael Halliday in the 1960s and 70s (e.g. Halliday, 1973). SFL focuses on social contexts and how "the

words that are exchanged in these contexts get their meaning from activities in which they are embedded, which again are social activities with social agencies and goals" (Halliday & Hasan, 1985, p. 5). Linguists who study SFL explore language as a social-semiotic, or a social system of meaning, and connect the language choices people make to the contexts in which they are made. As a theory of language, SFL explores "how language varies from one context to another and, within that variation, the underlying patterns which organise texts so they are culturally and socially recognised as performing particular functions" (Hyland, 2003, p. 22).

Many educators and applied linguistics have adapted the ideas from SFL to classroom teaching (e.g., in alphabetical order but certainly not exhaustive, Maria Brisk, Frances Christie, Beverly Derewianka, Meg Gebhard, David Rose, J.R. Martin, Joan Rothery, and Mary Schleppegrell). As a pedagogical approach, SFL "offers tools for identifying the linguistic features that are relevant to the construction of different kinds of texts" most frequently used in classrooms and different content areas (Schleppegrell, 2006, p. 136). It therefore provides explicit attention to how language varies in the text types students are expected to read and write in the different content areas.

Many language teacher educators have argued the point that one view of language, one method, or knowledge of one topic related to education will not fit all teaching-contexts (e.g. Andon & Leung, 2013). But covering every possible method and approach leaves a program unfocused. Freeman (1989) argues that "one must have a clear definition of language teaching as the subject matter of language teacher education in order to develop a coherent view of the overall process of language teacher education and to suggest appropriate strategies for carrying out that process" (p. 28). Teachers must make "principled choices" based on "a *theoretical* stance and a *practical* understanding of *who the students are*, the *context* in which they are

learning and their *purposes* for learning" (Graves, 2016, p. 85, emphasis added) and teacher educators' work can help build the foundation for such choices. This task is complex given the many approaches to teaching language and the many teaching-contexts. How do language teacher educators navigate those dilemmas as they curricularize language teaching and learning for their teacher learners?

Two Studies of Curricularizing LTL

Curricularizing is always done in a time and a place and for particular teacher learners and their goals. The choices of the teacher educators are influenced by the national environment, their professional field, and their individual experiences, and cannot be understood outside of those sociocultural influences. Each of these domains provides a starting point for exploring some factors influencing of the process of curricularizing LTL. This dissertation includes two studies, both of which explore the process of curricularizing from a different point in the framework and which provide different examples of the relationship between language teacher education and teaching-context. The studies are located in two different national environments with different policies and practices to explore, Germany and Australia.

There are several parallels between the two national environments. Both countries are federal political systems in which state and local education authorities have a fair amount of independent control over education. Both are industrialized, developed countries. Germany's population is approximately 82 million across 16 states, while Australia's is 25 million in six states (and ten territories) (United Nations, 2017). The Human Development Index, which ranks countries based on indicators such as life expectancy, education, and per capita income, ranked Australia third in the world and Germany fifth (United Nations Development Programme, 2018). The two countries have strong education systems. In the most recent round of PISA testing, both

Germany and Australia scored in the top third of countries in reading, mathematics, and science (Schleicher, 2019).

Both Germany and Australia have had second language learners in schools for generations. In Germany, second language learners have historically been the children and grandchildren of guest workers from the mid-1900s (Auernheimer, 2006; Brinkmann, 2014). The German department of statistics (Destatis, 2019) reports that approximately 25% of Germans come from an immigrant background. German as a Second Language learners, however, have rarely received supports in schools in terms of language education (Kniffka & Siebert-Ott, 2012). They have struggled with social integration and success in the German school system (Auernheimer, 2006). After 2016, however, the focus on second language learners increased as a result of the refugee migration from Syria, Afghanistan, Iraq, Iran, Eritrea, and Albania (Dearden, 2017).

Australia, too, has had waves of immigration throughout history and currently approximately 28% of its population are first-generation Australians (OECD, 2016, p. 21). Early and mid-20th century immigration was mostly from Europe, including Great Britain, Ireland, Italy, and Greece (Munro, 2017). In the 1970s, increasing protests for the rights of both immigrants and indigenous Australians led to the development of policies and supports in schools (Djité, 2011). The demographics of the immigrant population has shifted since the 1970s, however, with an increasing number of immigrants from Asia and the Middle East (Munro, 2017).

However, the two education systems also have many differences, particularly regarding language education. As part of the European Union, Germany has focused on the teaching of foreign languages. Since 2005, second language sources have been offered to adult immigrants,

but second language learners in primary/secondary schools have received little support (Ellis, Gogolin, & Clyne, 2010). Newly arrived students in Germany are placed for two years in Internationale Vorbereitungsklassen (IVK – international preparation classes), often taught by teachers with no language training. The focus of the IVK has been on basic German, with little opportunity to learn subject area content or academic language (Kniffka & Siebert-Ott, 2012, p. 71).

Australia, in contrast, has had an adult ESL support program since the 1940s and primary/secondary schools have certified ESL teachers, trained to work with second language school-age learners and regulated with a set of national standards (Hammond, 2014). School-age students receive support in newcomer English Language Schools, which students attend for a year before moving to a mainstream school, or in schools "where the mainstream curriculum is taught via the ESL method: 'withdrawal' ESL classes in school and in-class ESL support" (Ellis et al., 2010, p. 444). Second language learners are considered "generally well catered for in schools" (p. 444).

The two studies therefore also differ in important ways. As German as a Second Language (Deutsch als Zweitsprache – DaZ) teacher learners in Germany are not prepared to teach school-age students, the first study explores for which teaching-contexts they are being prepared and how. The study is focused on a pre-service program and explores how factors in the national environment, such as the privileging of foreign languages, affects teacher educators curricularizing German language teaching and learning. The second study examines an instance of teacher education in Australia where the teaching-context is strongly established. It explores an in-service program which uses a theory of language from the third wave and standardized

curriculum materials to train teacher learners. It focuses on the professional field, as the teacher educators in the study are connected by a shared community of activity and explanation.

The individual domain of the framework is not addressed in either of the studies. In Germany, the data was from observing coursework and the decision to not focus on the individual was methodological, as the data did not align with exploring teacher educators' individual experiences, beliefs, or knowledge. In Australia, the focus was on what in the professional field created coherence across the community of educators and therefore not focusing on the differences in individual educators' experiences was an analytic decision. The role of the individual domain of sociocultural influence provides a rich approach for studying curricularizing in future research, discussed further in Chapter 4.

Preview of Chapters

Following this introduction, the dissertation consists of two chapters containing one study each, summarized briefly next in this section, and a chapter which looks across both papers and makes concluding remarks. Each paper is separated with a short narrative, which explains why I made decisions regarding what aspects of curricularizing LTL to study in each setting and the process along the way.

Chapter 2: Curricularizing German language teaching and learning: A case study of a DaZ/DaF teacher education program.

The first study is located in Germany in 2016, at the end of a year in which large numbers of refugees from Syria and other countries were received in Germany. As a result, the number of school-age students who needed to learn German to be successful in the academic setting increased dramatically in a short period of time. The original objective of the study was to explore what was changing in language teacher education as a result. However, the setting of the

study was the second semester of a bachelor's program in German as a Second/Foreign Language (Deutsch als Zweit- und Fremdsprache, DaZ/DaF). Teacher learners in the program were not being prepared to work with DaZ students in schools. In-service teachers could receive an endorsement in DaZ, but no route existed for pre-service DaZ teachers to become certified to work in primary/secondary schools.

I observed teacher educators teaching pre-service courses to study how they curricularized language teaching and learning in those courses. The data include observation field notes and artifacts from seven classes across a thirteen-week semester as well as supporting interviews with the three teacher educators I observed, studying curricularizing through its enactment in practice. The analysis and findings focus on how the three content-specific aspects of teaching and learning are curricularized when the future teaching-contexts of teacher learners is unclear. The discussion connects those findings to the national environment factors of language ideologies and practices in schools.

Chapter 3: "Slowly, slowly, slowly it becomes this is what accepted practice is": Shared understandings of implementing functional grammar teacher professional development in Australian schools.

The second study focuses on the professional field by exploring how a community of educators engaged in the shared activity of implementing a functional grammar teacher training program in primary/secondary schools understand the factors that influence implementation. Across various roles in the education system, these educators are connected by a shared pedagogy from the third wave of language teaching based on systemic functional linguistics (Halliday, 1973), and a shared curriculum, which constitute social facts around which the community coheres despite geographical and professional distance.

The teaching-contexts in the study were clearly established, as teacher educators trained in-service teacher learners in their schools. Data include interviews with twelve teachers, teacher educators, school literacy coaches, and state literacy coordinators and therefore focuses on their thinking about curricularizing rather than the enactment. The analysis focuses on which factors related to implementation emphasize the shared understandings of working with those social facts and which emphasize the general social facts of working in the school setting. The discussion highlights how a shared theory of language and teacher training program create purpose and scaffolds for curricularizing even within a national environment and school settings which do not always support the educators' enterprise.

Chapter 4: Domains, Dilemmas, and Directions for Future Work

The fourth chapter examines how the curricularizing framework was used differently across the two studies, as well as how the dilemmas present in DaZ/DaF teacher education in Germany and the Lexis teacher training program in Australia differ and why. The goal is not to compare or evaluate the two teacher education programs, but to look across the studies to consider how the framework allows one to explore curricularizing in different settings. The chapter then returns to the argument that language teacher education would benefit from a contextualized theory of education. It then discusses how the curricularizing framework can be used in research on teacher education and how teacher educators can use it to reflect on their own practices, to question the ways in which they resolve dilemmas, and to understand one way individuals in education can be a part of social change.

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CHAPTER 2

Curricularizing German Language Teaching and Learning: A Case Study of a DaZ/DaF Teacher Education Program

Abstract

This case study explores how three German as a second/foreign language (DaZ/DaF) teacher educators in Germany positioned language in their practice following the large refugee migration in 2015-2016. The teacher educators taught at an independent school of education in southwest Germany in the DaZ/DaF bachelor's, master's, and endorsement programs. The data come from seven courses across thirteen weeks of the second semester of the DaZ/DaF bachelor's program. The data are mostly comprised of observation field notes, with teacher educator interview excerpts serving to support findings from the field notes. The study asks the following research question: H*ow do DaZ/DaF teacher educators curricularize content-specific aspects of teaching and learning the German language in their practice for teacher learners?* Using three categories of content-specific aspects of curricularizing language teaching and learning, the analysis focuses on how they defined language for teacher learners, how they situated instructional practices in teaching-contexts, and which topics they presented as related to language teaching and learning in their practice. First, findings show that they defined language either through focusing on the four skills of speaking, listening, reading, or writing or focusing on grammar and syntax. Second, the majority of the time when they presented instructional methods, they did not situate them in a teaching-context for teacher learners. The discussion

explores how these three ways of curricularizing German language teaching and learning reflect influences and factors from the national environment of Germany and established school and language practices in that environment.

Narrative: Why Germany

I wanted to explore the choices teacher educators make when curricularizing language teaching and learning outside the United States, particularly outside the English-language context, as they prepare teacher learners to work with school-age students learning the school language. In 2015-2016, Germany had an influx of over a million refugees, which meant increased numbers of students in schools learning German as a Second Language (Deutsch als Zweitsprache, or DaZ). This event provided an opportunity to explore both established practices in DaZ teacher education and how change affected the navigation of dilemmas. I also speak and understand German.

I organized a study of one semester of the DaZ/DaF (Deutsch als Fremdsprache/German as a foreign language) bachelor's degree program in the summer of 2016. The program had established a new endorsement program for in-service teachers only the year before (2015) explicitly for supporting DaZ learners in schools, but because the endorsement spanned an academic year, I was only able to observe two courses in that program. I therefore bounded the study to the second semester of the bachelor's program. The only pathway to teaching DaZ learners in schools was to add DaZ as an endorsement for already certified teachers. The bachelor's program did not graduate teachers to work in that teaching-context.

As a result, my focus shifted to how then were teacher educators preparing teacher learners to work in the DaZ/DaF field, both as it was established and given the changes happening in schools. What did teacher educators focus on as the substance of language teaching and learning that their teacher learners should know? How did the focus on that substance align with the national environment in Germany, where graduates were being prepared to teach in every teaching-context except the school-age DaZ classroom?

Introduction

Germany has a long history with linguistic and cultural diversity in its population and yet the focus of preparing teachers has not been on those students learning German as a Second Language (Deutsch als Zweitsprache – DaZ). The focus of language teaching and learning has often been divided between teaching other modern languages, as per European Union policy (European Commission, 2019), and teaching German as a Foreign Language outside of Germany (Deutsch als Fremdsprache – DaF). As such, language teacher preparation has often centered around modern/foreign language pedagogy. Recent attention to the number of adult and school-age immigrants, particularly as a result of the refugee migration in 2015-2016, has led to increased discussion of DaZ learners and their needs. These discussions create potential change in how teacher educators curricularize German language teaching and learning in Germany.

As explained in the opening chapter, I refer to curricularizing as the process of turning the wide field of language teaching and learning (LTL) into the manageable substance teacher educators believe future language teachers (hereafter, teacher learners) should know. Freeman (2009) defines the substance of teacher preparation as "what participants are expected to learn through [teacher preparation] designs" (p. 11). Conflicting social values weigh on teacher educators making decisions in their practice, creating dilemmas with no right answer (Berlak & Berlak, 1981). Focusing on one area in teacher education practice inevitably means less time to focus on others. In curricularizing, teacher educators make meaning from the complex field as they select, emphasize, or deemphasize the aspects of language teaching and learning they view as pertinent to teacher learners in that particular national environment.

The curricularizing framework in the study uses three sociocultural domains to explore different influences on the work of teacher educators (Figure 2.4). The first domain is the

national environment, which includes ideology, policies, and practices in schools. The second domain is the professional field of teacher educators and the third is their personal experiences and theories of language and learning, with the understanding that these are also influenced by the other two sociocultural domains. My conceptualization of curricularizing emphasizes the conflicting social values which arise within and across domains and the resulting dilemmas teacher educators must navigate and resolve.

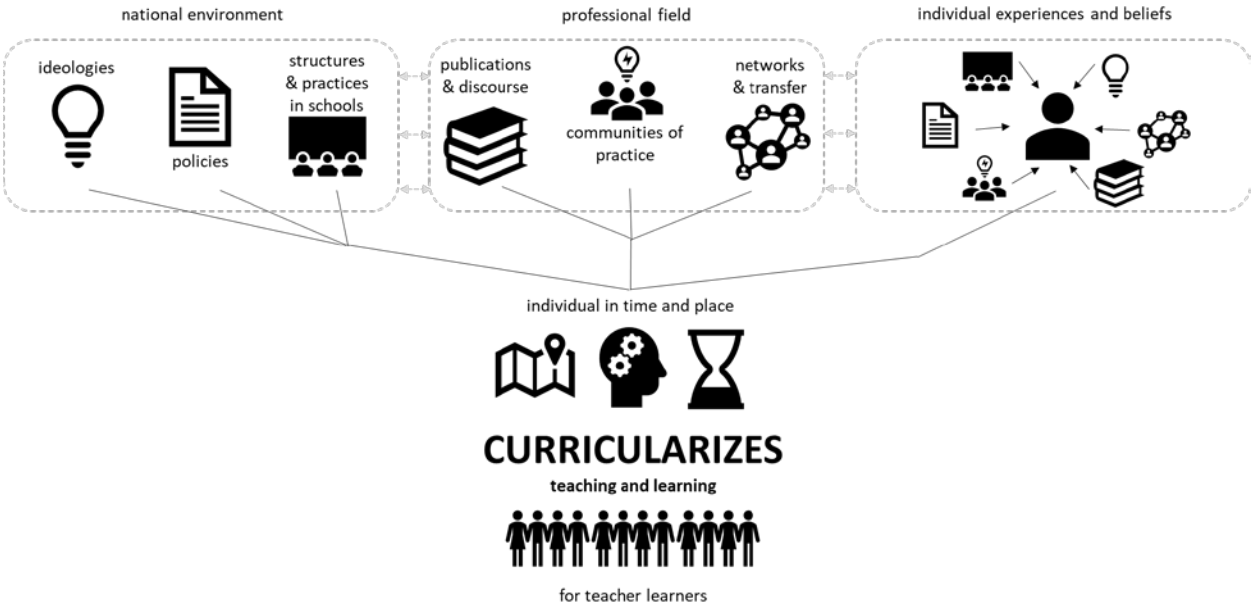

Figure 2.4:The curricularizing framework for teacher education

In this case study, the question is how LTL is curricularized by teacher educators in one DaZ/DaF department in a German school of education in 2016. Yin (1994) argues that a researcher should conduct a case study "when 'how' or 'why' questions are being posed, when the investigator has little control over events, and when the focus is on a contemporary phenomenon within some real-life context" (p. 1). Yin further states that case study is appropriate when "the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident" (p. 13), as is the case in teacher preparation, where the curricularizing of LTL would be difficult to separate from larger societal, cultural, and academic contexts. This case, as an exploration of

language teacher educators navigating sociocultural dilemmas, serves to highlight decisions language teacher educators make in practice as they define, contextualize, and relate their content to other concepts within a broader national environment.

The study explores three DaZ/DaF teacher educators training teacher learners. The setting for the case study is an independent school of education in southwest Germany in 2016, shortly after a large influx of refugees from Syria, Afghanistan, Iraq and other countries (Dearden, 2017). It is independent in that it is unaffiliated with a university, which is true for all the schools of education in that state. Across other German states, some schools of education are independent, while some are integrated with universities. In independent institutions, teacher learners come to the school directly out of secondary school and spend their undergraduate years only within the school of education[3].

The school in the study serves approximately 4,400 teacher learners[4] and most departments within the school certify teachers to work with students in the primary/secondary setting. The DaZ/DaF program, however, does not result in a teacher certification for school-age students because national and local ideologies, priorities, and practices place constraints on the ability of teacher learners who graduate with a degree in DaZ to work in schools. Instead, teacher learners in the program are trained to teach DaF outside Germany to adults or school-age students or DaZ to adults within Germany. The DaZ/DaF department provides bachelor's and master's degrees (approximately 60 students each) in second and foreign language teaching, as well as a DaZ endorsement for in-service teachers, newly designed at the time of the study

[3] Teacher learners at the school of education are able to take courses in their discipline at a nearby university for credit.

[4] The numbers provided are from the Statistisches Jahrbuch (statistical yearbook) for the school for the summer semester 2016, when the study was conducted. These numbers may not be the current enrollment. The reference is not given in full to protect the anonymity of the school.

(capacity set at 40 students per year). The bachelor's program is six semesters long, the master's program is four semesters, and the endorsement is a two-semester series of courses for licensed teachers working in primary and secondary schools.

The study is a case of three DaZ/DaF teacher educators in one semester of the bachelor's program, working to prepare their teacher learners for the settings in which they are most likely to work. At the same time, they are influenced by the national environment in terms of language ideologies, policies, and practices. The study looks at the ways the DaZ/DaF teacher educators navigate sociocultural dilemmas within their national environment as they curricularize LTL through investigating the ways they present language teaching and learning.

Literature

In order to understand how DaZ/DaF teacher educators curricularize LTL in Germany, it is important to look at the language landscape in Germany, existing ways DaZ education has been implemented, and the related ways DaZ teacher preparation has been organized. The information provided here is background for the reader on the social situation at the time of the study in 2016 and will aid the understanding of topics later presented in the discussion.

Demographics

With an overall population of 83 million people, the Federal Statistical Office of Germany reports that approximately 25% of Germans today come from immigrant backgrounds (Destatis, 2019). According to statistics from 2010[5], 31% of minors have an immigrant background and in large cities, that number jumps to 46% (Wiese, 2015, p. 342). The largest population groups by immigrant background are from Turkey (2.8 million), followed by Poland

[5] The last major census prior to the study taking place in 2016.

(2.3 million), Russia/former Soviet Union (1.4 million), and Kazakhstan (1.3 million) (Destatis, 2019).

Overall, immigrants in Germany come from over 200 countries and most likely represent even more language groups (Ellis, Gogolin, & Clyne, 2010[6]). Statistics are not available, however, on the languages spoken by these groups, as that is not a part of the national census[7]. Stevenson (2015) questions whether the "paucity of statistical information on languages in Germany is attributable to naiveté about relationships between language and nationality or ethnicity or to a willful policy of neglect" (p. 73). To that end, I turn now to the ideology and policy background in Germany.

History, ideology, policy, and practice

Germany has a long history of linguistic diversity, beginning with immigration from within Europe (Hansen-Thomas, 2007). Some old, established language groups, known as autochthonous, have maintained a protected status in Germany, such as Frisian, Danish, Sorbian, etc. (Ellis et al, 2010). More recently, in the mid-1900s, Germany encouraged guest workers from south-eastern Europe, mainly from Turkey (Auernheimer, 2006; Brinkmann, 2014). Many stayed in Germany and their children and grandchildren grew up as German citizens, which was a "surprise for policy-makers" (Ellis et al., 2010, p. 450). In addition, the fall of the Soviet Union "brought waves of non-German speaking immigrants" into the country (Hansen-Thomas, 2007, p. 256) and a more-recent refugee migration (2015-2016) brought over a million refugees into

[6] This article addresses language ideology in both Australia and Germany. Ellis and Clyne both work in Australia, while Gogolin works Germany and particularly in the field of DaZ. When this article is cited in the rest of the paper, it only shows Ellis' name (i.e. Ellis et al.), but it is important to note that there is the perspective of German researchers and educators working in the DaZ field reflected.

[7] Some German states and/or cities do have "home language surveys", which Stevenson (2015) claims are the result of the PISA shock and create a "revealing, if patchy, picture of self-reported language proficiency" in select locations (p. 73).

the country. Most of these refugees came from Syria, Afghanistan, Iraq, Iran, Eritrea, and Albania (Dearden, 2017).

Within the mother-tongue German-speaking populace, German historically has had many regional folk-dialects. In addition, Germany was a divided country for almost thirty years during the Cold War, with distinct dialects evolving in the east and the west. The reunification in 1990 created awareness of just how different east and west German had become (Hansen-Thomas, 2007). As a result, there was a reform of the German language (Rechtschreibreform) in 1996 (Ellis et al., 2010). It laid out a standard, 'proper' German (Hochdeutsch) and defined what it 'means' to speak German. Folk-dialects continue to be seen as "a part of a national folk culture" (Wiese, 2015, p. 341). However, immigrant-dialects such as Kiezdeutsch[8] are treated as 'other' and subjected to "the projection of social and sometimes racist deliminations onto the linguistic plane" (p. 341).

Only six years prior to the study, which took place in 2016, "the public self-conception was – and still is – that of a monolingual, monocultural country" despite the multilingual, multiethnic history (Ellis et al., 2010, p. 450). Germany does not have an official national language according to the Constitution (Pfaff, 2011). Yet Stevenson (2015) argues there is a "national identity in Germany in which the idea of a common language plays a central part" (p. 77). The continued existence of these sentiments was echoed in conversations with DaZ/DaF teacher educators in 2016. Hochdeutsch is the socially privileged "idealized standard variety" (Wiese, 2015, p. 345) and German has to be used in official legal situations (Ellis et al., 2010). Hansen-Thomas (2007) states that the "one-nation, one-language ideology has been pervasive in both public discourse and general sentiment and has informed the nation's policies on important

[8] Kiezdeutsch translates roughly to "neighborhood German" and is a "dynamic blending of features of German and other languages, most frequently Turkish and Arabic" (Stevenson, 2015, p. 75).

issues ranging from immigration to education to citizenship" (p. 261). This "monolingual habitus"[9] (Gogolin, 1994) is reflected in policies such as not asking about language on the census. In Germany, the social environment privileges Hochdeutsch and either ignores or blatantly discriminates against the multilingualism brought by its many international citizens and residents.

At the same time, Germany has "adopted a 'multicultural ethos' for their school systems" (Ellis et al., 2010, p. 451). In the foreword of a 2015 national report on language diversity in Germany, the then-federal minister for education and research (Bundesministerin für Bildung und Forschung), Dr. Johanna Wanka, stated that it was the task of federal policy to create the circumstances for growing up and learning more than one language (Gahn, Treude, & Zündorf, 2015). As part of the European Union (EU), Germany has focused on the teaching of 'foreign' languages. The EU has set priorities for "foreign language competence" and protecting linguistic diversity as part of an objective to create "intercultural dialogue throughout the EU" (European Parliament, 2018). One priority is the "mother-tongue plus two" policy, which sets as its objective "enabling citizens to learn at least two foreign languages from an early age" (European Commission, 2019).

In addition, the Council of Europe created the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) as a holistic measure of language competence in "foreign languages" to support the "mother-tongue plus two policy" (Council of Europe, 2020a). The framework outlines six levels on a scale from A1 to C3 and provides "can-do" competencies for each level. The CEFR is part of the European Union's Language Policy Programme, which outlines the goal "to promote linguistic diversity and plurilingualism" (Council of Europe,

[9] Habitus is "strategic practice which is structured by a social environment" (Ellis et al., 2010, p. 440, drawing on Bourdieu).

2020b). The programme supports not only the teaching and learning of the most widely spoken European languages through the European Centre for Modern Languages of the Council of Europe, but also regulates the European Charter for Regional and Minority Languages.

However, more resources have been allocated to foreign language teacher preparation with an emphasis on French, Spanish, and English, and to some extent classical Greek and Latin, than to languages spoken by most German immigrant groups (Stevenson, 2015). Those educators working for the inclusion of other modern languages and particularly for the languages of German immigrant groups have had "little voice or weight in the conception of these multilingual education policies that remain firmly in the hands of general education policy-makers and officials" (Garcia, 2014, p. 45). As Ellis et al. (2010) stated, "such recommendations are characteristic of committees that are enlightened and well informed but working against the tide of public opinion and actual practice" (p. 451). As such in 2016, certain privileged European languages remained the focus of 'foreign' language education in Germany and "language policy and education in Germany are a clear case of there being strong links between language and power, rather than being related to any possible aesthetic, educational or ethical argument" (p. 455).

As an extension of that same EU policy environment, German has been taught around Europe and the world through organizations such as the Goethe Institut. The Goethe Institut, within a "highly competitive language market", has promoted "the learning of German within a policy envelope acknowledging the importance of multilingualism" (Stevenson, 2015, p. 79). The Goethe Institut claims that "promoting German as a foreign language abroad is one of the foremost tasks of German cultural and educational policy" in an attempt to internationalize Germany "as a locus of higher education, training and innovation as well as securing skilled

labour for the future" (Goethe Institut, 2015b). An estimated 15.4 million people learn German around the world outside Germany (Goethe Institut, 2015a).

Ironically, however, in a country that emphasizes promoting German across Europe in the name of multilingualism and the necessity of speaking a standard German within Germany, little has been done in primary/secondary schools to support school-age DaZ learners (Kniffka & Siebert-Ott, 2012). These learners have struggled with social integration and success in the German school system (Auernheimer, 2006). The initial PISA testing showed Germany among the countries with the "largest disparities in results between students of immigrant and non-immigrant backgrounds", with a small improvement in the second round (Pfaff, 2011, p. 7).

Despite growing up in Germany, the second and third generation[10] from immigrant families were more likely than the first generation to experience discrimination and difficulty in the school system (Brinkmann, 2014, p. 28). The guest workers who arrived as adults in the mid-1900s were placed in jobs which set them in a low socioeconomic status in Germany, but they were welcomed as workers (at least initially). Their children and grandchildren, however, were confronted with unequal schooling and future job opportunities despite spending their entire lives in Germany. Researchers who conducted a study of second generation Turkish students across European cities argue that the rigid, highly stratified tracking system in German schools is in part to blame for this, in which students are sorted into tracks younger and with fewer opportunities for movement between tracks (Baysu, Alanya, & de Valk, 2018). Second and third generation immigrants encountered more discrimination and were more likely to feel pessimism and self-doubt (Brinkmann, 2014, citing Fertig, 2004).

[10] There are conflicting definitions of generations of immigrants. First-generation can refer to the generation who moved to a new country, but were born elsewhere, or to the first generation born in a country to parents who immigrated. Here, I will use the former definition and use second/third-generation to mean people who were born in the country to which their parents or grandparents immigrated.

In 2016, the only common support in schools for immigrant children was for newly arrived students (about 10% of children with an immigrant background according to Ellis et al. 2010), who received up to two years in International Preparation Classes (IVK) before they were mainstreamed into general content area classes (Kniffka & Siebert-Ott, 2012). The IVK were frequently taught by teachers with no explicit training in second language education, as DaZ was not a content area eligible for teacher certification[11] (Krumm, Fandrych, Hufeisen, & Riemer, 2010, p. 1076). The focus of the IVK had been on basic German, with little opportunity to learn subject area content or academic language (Kniffka & Siebert-Ott, 2012, p. 71). In the city where the study was conducted, an education report from 2017 stated that one of the strengths of 2015 and 2016 was that 1,200 newly-arrived immigrant students were placed in forty-six IVK around the city[12]. The report continued that in the next few years, the majority of these students would be integrated into mainstream classrooms or vocational education opportunities.

For these students, once mainstreamed, and for students who were born in Germany but speak another language at home, there was "no provision for second language teaching, except for remedial lessons if the child turns out to have learning difficulties" (Ellis et al., 2010, p. 445). In the same city education report, Deutsch als Zweitsprache was only addressed with regard to continuing education in vocational programs which offered adult DaZ support. German-only policies have been lauded in some schools (Pfaff, 2011). In many ways, "in spite of more than 50 years of immigration experience, Germany is a developing rather than a developed country with respect to teaching German to immigrants" (Ellis et al, 2010, p. 446).

[11] German teachers specialize and are certified in two content areas. These are often specializations, e.g. physics and chemistry in science education. The point here is that DaZ is not an option for a second – or even third – content area subject.

[12] This report is left uncited to protect the anonymity of participants.

The two-year increase over 2015-16 of over a million refugees who do not speak German as a first language put a strain on the system (e.g. Inhoffen, 2017; Jakubowsky, 2016; Zickgraf, 2015). Many companies were offering jobs to refugees if they learned enough German to reach a certain level of proficiency (Bona, 2016). The influx meant an increased focus on integration language courses for adult learners. Adult learners of DaZ who wanted to become German citizens were allotted 600 hours of DaZ education (Ellis et al., 2010). The goal is to score at a B1 level in the European Reference Framework for Languages. In addition, they could receive 30 hours of "civic 'orientation' in historical, legal, and cultural aspects of German life" (Pfaff, 2011, p. 10).

DaZ/DaF teacher preparation

Language teacher preparation in Germany had much to navigate with the 2015-2016 refugee migration into a monolingual German national environment and a selectively multilingual policyscape. Multiple options for DaZ education created dilemmas for teacher educators, who inevitably had to balance in their practice what they believed was true about DaZ teaching with the realities and views of the larger policy environment. Dilemmas in education are unsolvable issues, where there is no right or wrong side. Each choice comes with benefits and costs. Berlak and Berlak (1981) used the term "dilemmas" to discuss the complexity of teaching "without over-generalizing or distorting the nuances and problems of school life" (p. 107).

Educators who worked in the field and have long recognized that the need to address language is not new saw DaZ become a topic of discussion, not only in redesigning teacher preparation programs, but also in numerous education projects emerging around the country, and in the public discourse surrounding refugees and their future in Germany (e.g. Djahangard, 2017; Euen, 2015; Jakubowsky, 2016). Policy discussions and media attention increased (e.g.

Djahangard, 2017; Vitzthum, 2015). Conferences such as Lehrerausbilding in NRW im Kontext der aktuellen Fluchtmigration (July 2016) (Teacher Education in NRW in the Context of the Current Refugee Migration) were offered as a space for policy makers, educators, and other workers in the field of diversity management to come together and discuss next steps. Suggestions for change in DaZ education included the possibility of certifying DaZ teachers to work with primary/secondary refugee students; DaZ teacher preparation coursework for all teachers of other content areas; and the increased attention in education in general to the language of schooling (Schleppegrell, 2004) and the challenges of academic language for all learners (Jung & Kniffka, 2015).

However, these suggestions for change faced opposition. How teacher educators perceive this opposition potentially affects to what degree they address these suggestions in their practice. While certifying DaZ teachers to work in schools would increase the number of teachers available to support students, some opponents argued that DaZ as a certified content area leads to segregation of students and a deficit view of language learners as needing support. In a conference on teacher preparation in the context of the 2015-2016 refugee migration, a state policymaker in North Rhein-Westphalia, said “Ich halte nichts davon, Deutsch als Zweitsprache als separates Fach anzubieten. Ich befürchte eher, dass wir damit sozusagen auch separieren” (I don’t agree with offering German as a Second Language as a separate subject. I worry more that we separate [DaZ students] with that) (Wehrhoefer, 2016).

Yet many models for supporting language learners in schools do not require separate classes for the entire school day. Alternative models include co-teaching, coaching, one resource support class, or push-in teaching. Therefore, having DaZ certified teachers would not necessarily lead to segregated content area classes. Instead, content area teachers might receive

better support for working with language through coaching, or a single resource class could provide a space for children to receive specific language instruction alongside other content area classes.

Katz and Raths (1992) identify common dilemmas in teacher preparation, one of which is whether to emphasize "current practice versus innovative practice" (p. 381)[13]. In this instance, teacher educators had to decide whether to include the teaching-context of school-age DaZ learners in Germany when they curricularized LTL, considering DaZ teachers in schools would be an innovative change, which at the time of the study seemed unlikely to happen. They also had to consider how much to address established DaF teaching-contexts versus the increased number of adult DaZ teaching-contexts in Germany.

At the time, graduates focused on DaZ, therefore, were trained to work with adults, where there were a number of options for teaching German as a Second Language. Courses were offered from universities and private language schools for a fee; state-provided free classes were offered through the Volkshochschulen (akin to community colleges), language schools, and through government offices. People seeking permanent residency are required to complete both the language and integration classes, as well as pass an exam on both. Such language classes were what DaZ teachers had been trained to teach and where they were often hired.

At the same time, teacher preparation prepared teacher learners to teach DaF, usually either in secondary/post-secondary settings or through language schools and organizations such

[13] Some researchers (e.g. Lampert 1985; Ball 1990) have used dilemmas as a framework to study the act of teaching or the knowledge necessary for teaching. Lampert (1985), for example, moves the framework of dilemmas from larger cultural complexities related to education into the complexity of the daily personal work teachers do in their classrooms. She emphasizes the navigation of dilemmas in teaching as "endemic and even useful" (p. 192) to the work of teaching. However, Lampert openly acknowledges that the Berlak and Berlak (1981) view of dilemmas differs from hers: "[the Berlak and Berlak] analysis focuses on cultural contradictions and opportunities for social change as they are manifest in teachers' dilemmas and gives less attention to the practical work involved in managing dilemmas in the classroom" (Lampert 1985, p. 181).

as the Goethe Institut. The German Foreign Office focuses on school-age DaF learners, as the vast majority of those learning DaF are in primary or secondary schools, and the second largest group in post-secondary setting such as universities (Goethe Institut, 2015a, p. 16). Therefore, in the teacher preparation program in the study, graduates' degrees were in both Deutsch als Zweit-/Fremdsprache (DaZ/DaF). They were prepared to either teach adults learning German in Germany or to teach adults or school-children in a country where German was not used outside the classroom.

To summarize, German "language education policies remain to a large extent shaped by [the] self-perception as a monolingual nation-state" (Garcia, 2014, p. 44). DaZ teacher preparation was geared toward teaching adults in Germany or teaching in a context outside Germany, and did not lead to primary/secondary teacher certification. School-age DaZ students were taught by teachers with no explicit second language training. Suggestions for reform included various ways to ensure DaZ students have teachers with knowledge of language, particularly as the number of refugee students created increased need for language supports in schools. Given the cultural and political setting and the dilemmas it potentially creates, this case study explores the following: *How do DaZ/DaF teacher educators curricularize content-specific aspects of teaching and learning the German language in their practice for teacher learners?*

Methods

As argued earlier, curricularizing LTL is closely tied to the national environment. In describing the focus of case study, Nisbet and Watt (1982) stated, "it is the context [here: environment] which is often the key to understanding effects in education" (p. 9). As such, to investigate how one community of educators in one particular national environment curricularized LTL, I drew on case study methodology to study one language teacher preparation

program. In particular, I explored one case of language teacher educators curricularizing LTL to "consider how social actors, with diverse motives, intentions, and levels of influence, work in tandem with and/or in response to social forces to routinely produce the social and cultural worlds in which they live" (Bartlett & Vavrus, 2017, p. 1). Although cases are often bounded by a place or setting, Bartlett and Vavrus (2017) argue that researchers should consider time in their analysis. When did the phenomenon occur, what was happening at the time, and what were the historical influences on that case in particular? In this study, the case of curricularizing LTL occurred at the end of a year of increased immigration, when society was adjusting to an influx of adults and school-age language learners, and historical trends did not support students in schools or provide DaZ education its own focus.

This case study took place in 2016 in an independent[14] college of education in the southwest of Germany. All four teacher educators in the department agreed to participate in the study, but only three were teaching in the second semester of the bachelor's program, Frau Graf[15], Frau Schubert, and Frau Engel. Although they each taught courses to the DaZ/DaF Bachelor and Master learners, they also were individually part of various projects in the department or city. Table 2.1 displays both the projects in which they were involved and the courses which I observed them teaching.

[14] To reiterate, independent here means not affiliated with a university. Students complete their entire course of study at the school (college) of education. They can take courses at a nearby university through a partnership, but their degree comes from the college of education. This is not uncommon, particularly within the state, but also across Germany.

[15] All names are pseudonyms.

Teacher Educators	Role/Project	Courses Observed (translated from German)
Frau Graf	• Head of the department • Involved in all pieces of the reaccreditation and program design • Led internship in Integration Classes (adult students)	• Didactics and Methods • Reading and Writing • Second and Foreign language Acquisition
Frau Schubert	• Led a project in the city training preschool and kindergarten teachers on Continual Language Education • Led internship in Preparation Classes (K-12 students)	• Diversity Management • Transcultural Communication • Language Level and Support diagnostics
Frau Engel	• Department member part of reaccreditation team for the Bachelor/Master programs	• Listening, Speaking, and Interaction

Table 2.1: Teacher educator participants, their roles and projects, and courses observed in the study

I observed seven classes from the second semester of the bachelor's program over a semester-long (13-week) period. The courses broadly focused on the "four skills" of language (speaking, listening, reading, writing), understanding and assessing language learning, teaching methods, and issues and practices related to cultural awareness in language work. Diversity management, for example, is an idea taken from American business concepts to increase diversity in the workplace or equitable practices in professional settings (Köppel, Yan, & Lüdicke, 2007). People working in diversity management often work in human resources or in specific support departments of bureaucratic institutions. For example, in the Diversity Management course, teacher learners watched videos of refugees arriving at a state immigration department and receiving unfair treatment. Teacher learners then discussed what someone in the field of diversity management could have done to support both the refugee and the civil employee in that instance.

Because of class cancellations due to holidays, conferences, and various other reasons, the number of observed sessions varied for each course. In total, I observed 50 individual class sessions, took field notes, and collected artifacts such as readings and worksheets used in those

sessions. Instances and percentages in the findings represent only the class sessions for which I was present. In addition, I interviewed each teacher educator during the semester. Some questions were general to all (e.g. What will change in the near future in DaZ education?), while some questions were specific to the teacher educators' projects and courses (see Appendix 2A for interview protocol). All data were collected in German. I am proficient in German, but it is my foreign language and therefore there is always room for error or misunderstanding that is important to acknowledge.

Analysis

The analysis in this study led to the development of the three categories for content-specific aspects of curricularizing teaching and learning described in the Introduction Chapter. The first round of coding was open coding of topics (Maxwell, 2012). Field notes from each class session were coded for what was being done or discussed, for example learning about language, cultural discrimination, an instructional method, or a particular group of learners. Figure 2.5 provides an example of the first round of topical coding (indicated with dashed lines) from a classroom instance in which the teacher educator played an audio recording from a speaking test to have teacher learners first identify what the student could and could not do, followed by assessing the student using the CEFR framework, not included in the Figure to keep the example short. The entire instance was coded as a focus on language as speaking, with an embedded discussion of language as syntax and grammar and the task the instructor gave coded as an instance of discussing assessment.

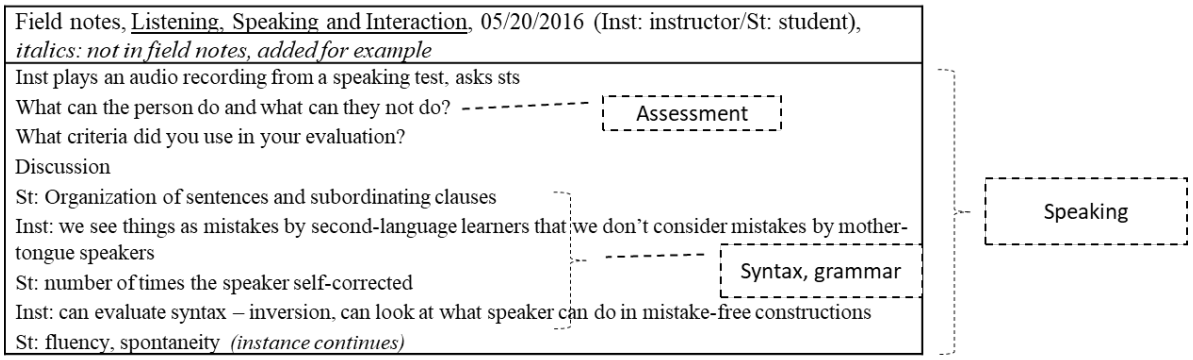

Figure 2.5: Field note example, topical coding

All classroom instances were then further coded in a second round which categorized the topic codes. Three categories were developed for what teacher educators do in the process of presenting content-specific aspects of teaching and learning (Figure 2.6): teacher educators *define* the content area (discussing language as teachable and learnable content), *situate* teaching in a teaching-context (naming or giving examples with a particular group of learners), or *relate* language teaching and learning to other concepts (discussing topics which affect the teaching and learning of language specifically).

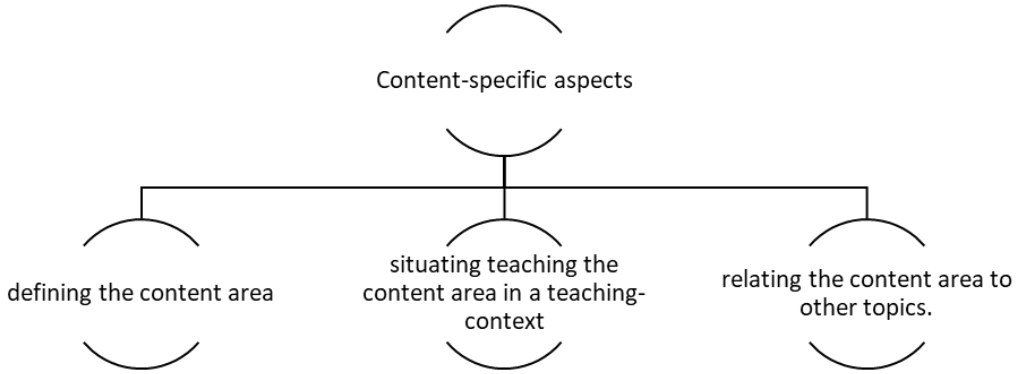

Figure 2.6: Three content-specific aspects of teaching and learning which teacher educators present

Defining

Under the content-specific aspect of defining language as a teachable and learnable content, I further categorized the different definitions of language according to Graves' three

waves of conceptualizing language[16] (2016). The first wave, the linguistic wave, includes teaching approaches most related to defining language as grammar and syntax. The second wave, the communicative wave, is most connected with thinking of language as communicative skills (particularly the four skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing) and practicing language for particular interactions and activities. The third wave of conceptualizing language includes different approaches to thinking of language teaching in context, but includes for the purpose of this study considerations of the academic needs of school-age students in content area classrooms. Table 2.2 displays examples of the topical codes which were clustered by wave.

Wave of conceptualizing language	**Examples of codes from the study categorized under each wave**
Linguistic wave	grammar, syntax, vocabulary, phonology, pronunciation
Communicative wave	listening, speaking, reading, writing, communicative language teaching
Third wave	meaning-making, continuous language education, academic language, language of schooling

Table 2.2: Waves of conceptualizing language and examples of codes applied to each

Teacher educators did not often explicitly define language by saying "Language is…", but frequently implicitly defined language as content by implying it was teachable through the emphasized approaches (e.g. teaching reading, teaching vocabulary, or teaching academic language).

Situating

In situating language teaching in a context, teacher educators might explicitly name the learners or the setting as DaZ/DaF. For example, a discussion of IVK classes meant the instance was coded as school-age and DaZ, whereas a discussion about integration classes was coded adult and DaZ. However, often the context was shown in some manner but not explicitly said.

[16] As discussed in the Introduction chapter, Graves (2016) uses the three waves to discuss conceptualizations of language in curriculum, whereas I use the same waves to discuss how language has been conceptualized as a content area and its teaching and learning. I therefore use the term waves with conceptualizations of language (here: how teacher educators define language) and with waves of language teaching (methods linked to conceptualizations).

For example, analyzing a video of a DaF high-school classroom was coded as DaF and school-age even if the teaching-context was not explicitly stated for teacher learners.

In contrast, some instances of addressing language teaching practices were not situated in any teaching-context explicitly or implicitly. These instances include teaching instructional practices or methods without naming who the students are. In the instance in Figure 2.5 above, for example, the teacher educator never says who the students from the speaking test are or where the test was given. Another way in which teacher educators left the teaching-context decontextualized was to name DaZ and DaF together, often as one thought, 'DaZ/DaF', and therefore neither teaching-context was specified as more appropriate for the method. Perhaps the method is considered equally applicable in every teaching-context, but this was not made explicit for teacher learners. Therefore any instance coded as 'instructional method,' but not cross-coded with a particular group of learners was considered decontextualized.

Figures 2.7-2.9 provide three examples of instances in which teacher educators defined language and either did or did not contextualize instruction. The figures display the topical codes with dashed lines and the content-specific categories with bold lines. In the first example, Figure 2.7, the teacher educator in Second and Foreign language Acquisition presented a study of German language acquisition (Diehl, Christen, & Leuenberger, 2000) often used in the courses observed.

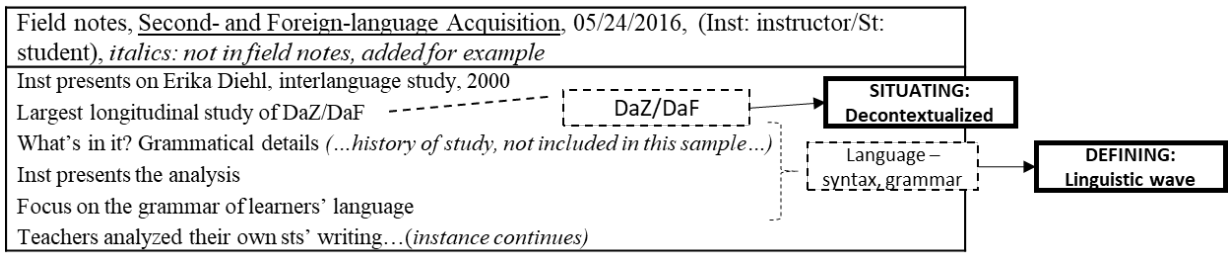

Figure 2.7: Field note example with decontextualized and linguistic wave instances

The Diehl et al. study (2000) defines language acquisition through the use of particular grammatical elements over time. The instance was therefore coded as defining language as syntax or grammar and categorized into the linguistic wave. At the same time, the teacher educator mentioned it was a study in DaZ/DaF (although the study was conducted in a DaF school-age setting), leaving teacher learners to decide whether DaZ and DaF and school-age and adult learners acquire language in the same progression as the students in the study. It was therefore left decontextualized as a model of language acquisition.

The example in Figure 2.8 comes from an instance in Didactics and Methods in which the teacher educator presented the steps to teach a listening activity.

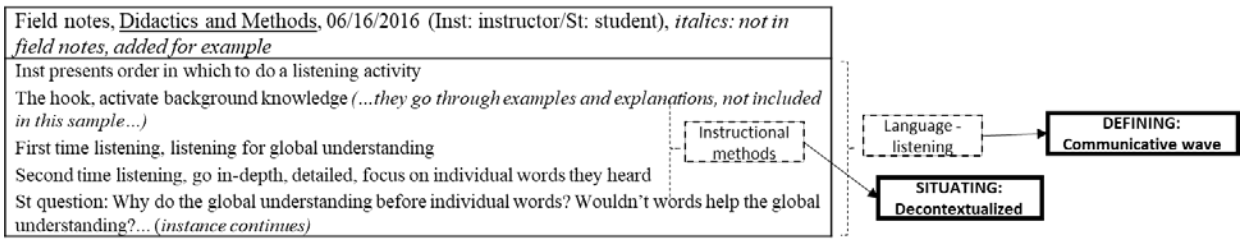

Figure 2.8: Field note example with decontextualized and communicative wave instances

The steps for how to teach a listening activity were coded as instructional methods, but they were not situated in a teaching-context. The entire segment focused on teaching language through listening, so the instance was categorized in the communicative wave of language teaching.

The third instance, Figure 2.9, provides an example of the teacher educator defining language teaching with regard to the third wave.

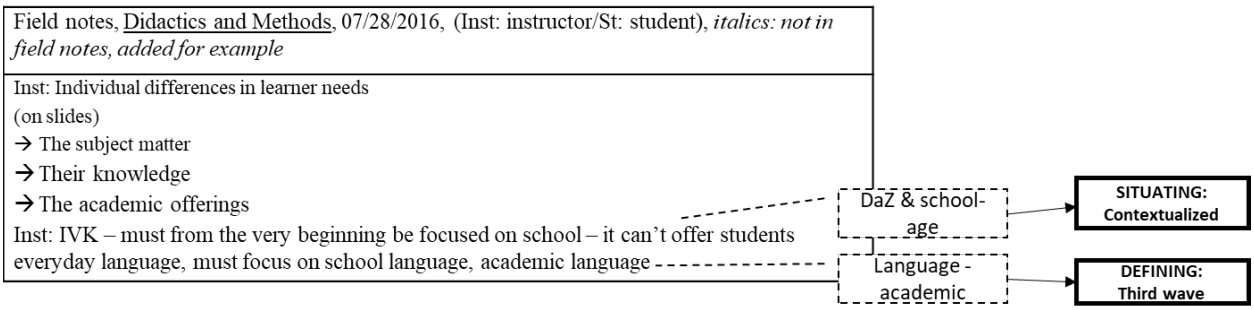

Figure 2.9: Field note example with contextualized and third wave instances

The teacher educator describes the need to focus on particular language for the needs of school-age DaZ learners as the students in the IVK. The instance therefore presented teaching academic language as necessary in that particular teaching-context.

Relating

Teacher educators addressed other major topics related to LTL frequently in the coursework of the language teacher preparation program. The topics connected to language reflect what teacher educators believed teacher learners would need to know once they were working or teaching. For example, in Diversity Management language teaching and learning was discussed often in relation to identity and culture, as well as issues of language discrimination (one example shown in Figure 2.10 from slides presented on ethnic rationalization for discrimination).

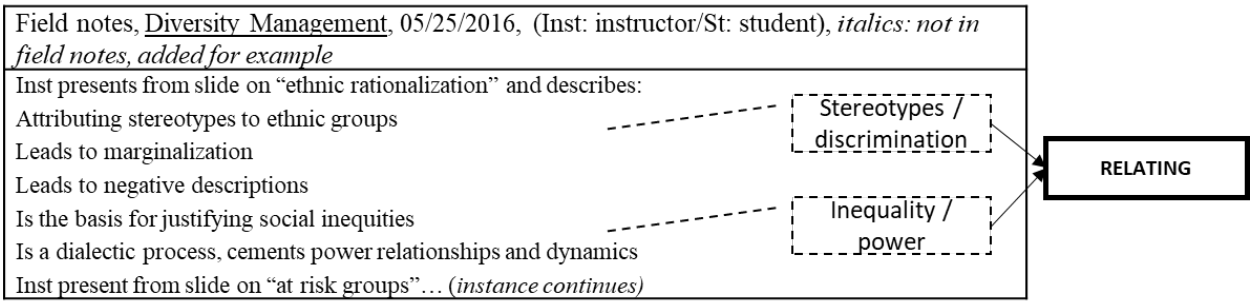

Figure 2.10: Field note example of relating topics to the language content area

Such instances presented language in connection with the work teacher learners would have to do and related LTL to topics teacher learners would need to understand to do that work.

Clarifications about the data and analysis

Teacher educator interviews were then used to support with direct quotations ideas captured in field notes. Teacher educators were not asked about particular instances or even courses, but topics which arose in coursework were reflected in their interviews as important in the DaZ/DaF field and in teacher preparation. Therefore, the interview quotations presented in

the study are not directly in reference to any one teaching instance, but rather illustrative of how teacher educator discussed the topics they addressed in their practice generally in the interview setting.

An instance in the study is defined as a change from one activity or topic to the next. For example, learning about error analysis and doing a practice error analysis was one instance, then changing topics to ways to support speaking was a new instance. However, this meant that the length of instances varied significantly, as some activities or discussions took 30 minutes and some took 10. The question was not how long teacher educators focused on any one topic, but which topics they presented. The focus in the study was how language was presented and how often in various ways for teacher learners.

Because of the focus of particular classes, the classes themselves seemed split among the different aspects of content-specific teaching and learning. Two classes were on the four skills explicitly (Listening, Speaking, and Interaction; Reading and Writing), while one was on assessment (Language level and support diagnostics), and all three courses frequently defined language as content to be taught and learned a particular way. One class was on instructional practices across contexts (Didactics and methodology) and one on language learning across contexts (Second and Foreign language Acquisition), which led to frequently situating language in context. Two classes which frequently related language teaching and learning to other topics were focused on cultural understanding and diversity work (Diversity Management; Transcultural Communication). However, I continued to track the instances for the three content-specific categories of curricularizing language teaching and learning and their sub-codes across all the classes.

Findings

Defining Language as Content

One content-specific aspect of curricularizing language teaching and learning is to define the content. Defining language was done by the teacher educators in the case study in various ways across the seven classes and these aligned with the three waves of language teaching described in the analysis and in the Introduction chapter (Graves, 2016). Overall language as content appeared in thirty-one of fifty class sessions. Within those thirty-one sessions, there were 104 instances of the teacher educator, explicitly or implicitly, defining language as content for teacher learners. The dominance of instances which focus on the linguistic (focus on grammar) and communicative waves (focus on the four language skills) of language teaching echoes traditions of foreign language pedagogy and ideologies which emphasize Hochdeutsch ("high German"). The occasional presence of defining language according to third wave approaches, and particularly in the school setting, hinted at teacher educators' attempts to draw awareness to the situation for school-age students, but occurred rarely and only in particular courses.

In the largest number of instances, forty-eight (46%) of the 104 total, language was defined related to the linguistic wave of language teaching. Derewianka and Jones (2016) argue that traditional linguistics in education "describes language in terms of grammatical classes (form), such as prepositions, pronouns, adverbs, conjunctions, and so on" and "sees language as a set of rules to be followed" (p. 16). Typically, teacher educators in the study were addressing aspects of language such as grammatical syntax or pronunciation. For example, in a Second and Foreign language Acquisition class, models of language acquisition (e.g. Diehl et al., 2000) were presented. These models were strongly based on the acquisition of syntactic features, such as subject-verb agreement or word order. The other way this focus came up was in assessment

strategies or error analysis. For example, in the class Listening, Speaking, and Interaction, teacher learners were one day provided with a list of sentences with errors and asked to identify what type of error it was.

Forty-three instances (41%) were categorized under the communicative wave and pertained to one of the four skills of language: speaking (15 instances), writing (12), listening (8), and reading (8). These instances were often, but not always, connected to the two classes specifically addressing skill areas, Listening, Speaking, and Interaction and Reading and Writing. Frau Engel, who taught the Listening, Speaking, and Interaction course, discussed in her interview the choice to dedicate entire classes to those skill areas:

> You can't reasonably cover all four skills in one course and then it is just the decision, do you pack the receptive and productive together or as we've done, oral and written. And the decision was then that we wanted to adopt [the idea of] interaction more strongly. (Translation, Interview, 07/14/2016)

Frau Engel presented no hesitation about whether entire courses should be dedicated to the four skills, but rather simply which ones to focus on in each course. She addressed the idea of interaction as a key idea in the course, which also aligns with the communicative wave and its use of the four skills.

The four skills were also present in other courses. For example, in Didactics and Methods, a class session entirely on the communicative approach emphasized speaking through all the instances of addressing language in that class. Sometimes language skills were presented in overlap, as one would expect in classes such as Listening, Speaking, and Interaction. Often the four skills arose in the context of discussing the CEFR.

The remaining thirteen (13%) instances in which language was defined were focused third-wave approaches to language teaching, such as academic language and the social norms related to language as meaning-making resource (see Figure 2.11 for percentages in comparison).

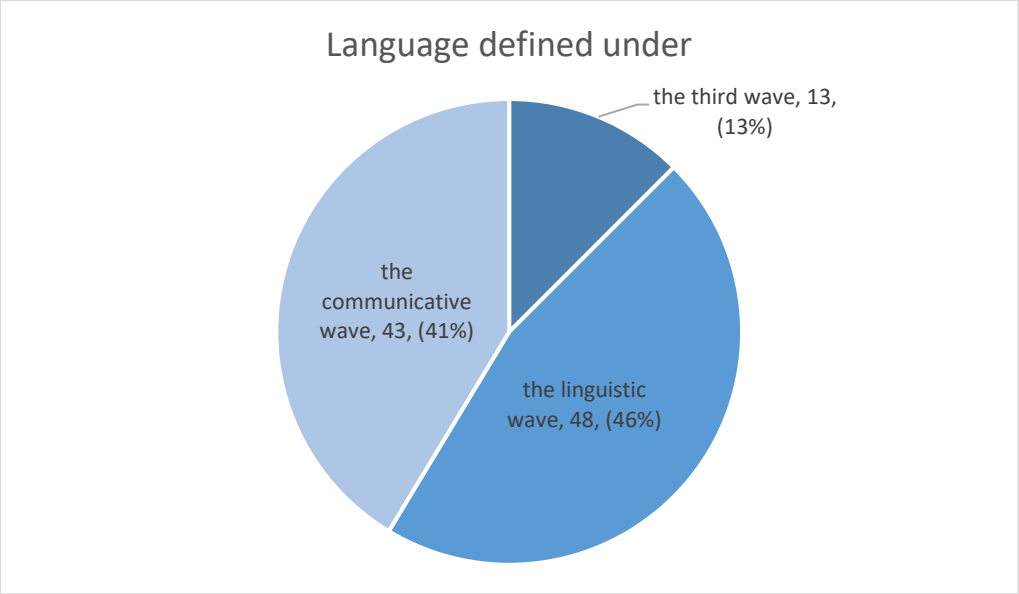

Figure 2.11: Categories of how teacher educators defined language and frequency, out of 104 instances (percent)

For example, in the Reading and Writing course, the teacher educator, Frau Graf, emphasized the need to explore school genres and the common ways they are organized. Frau Graf was the one who focused on the language of schooling (Schleppegrell, 2004) most in her practice, including explaining to students the work she was doing on an IVK textbook that was designed to teach students about the layouts, activities, and genres in traditional school textbooks.

However, teacher educators in interviews discussed third wave approaches to language teaching and language in relation to the language of schooling much more often than they discussed language as traditional grammar or language as skills. Frau Schubert stated,

> For us what Mary Schleppegrell describes as the language of schooling… it is coming into the view of those working in education and training stronger because we need, so to

> say, competence in academic language as a foundation. (Translation, Interview, 06/02/2016)

As discussed earlier, the teacher educators were asked in interviews what they felt should happen in German schools to support DaZ learners. The ideas they discussed in the interviews were therefore possibly more aligned with influences from the professional field than what was happening in the national environment. They presented language as a meaning-making resource and related to the language of schooling often when asked what should be happening, but it is not what is happening in DaZ/DaF education. They therefore in their practice mostly defined language as traditional grammar and language as the four skills for their teacher learners.

Situating Language Teaching in a Teaching-Context

There were sixty-seven instances of teacher educators explicitly presenting language teaching instructional methods or talking about language pedagogy. The focus on instruction was centered in four classes, Reading and Writing, Didactics and Methods, Listening, Speaking, and Interaction, and Second and Foreign language Acquisition. Of those sixty-seven instances, twenty-six (39%) were contextualized in a teaching setting, i.e. either DaZ or DaF, school-setting or adult classrooms (Table 2.3 displays the number of instances). However, that means that the vast majority of the time (61% of instances), the teaching-context was left undefined or unspecified. It is unclear from the data in this study whether this ambiguity results from teacher educators navigating the dilemma of so many possible future teaching-contexts for teacher learners or whether they truly saw those instructional methods as equally appropriate for all teaching-contexts.

Language in a teaching-context				
	(unspecified age)		School-age	Adult
DaZ	4		4	3
DaF		5	2	--
(unspecified target teaching-context)	41		5	--
				3

Table 2.3: Frequency of instances in which teacher educators positioned language in a teaching-context

The split between DaZ (4) and DaF (5) was generally even when no age group was specified. For example, conversations about DaZ that do not specify the students to be taught included discussing the use of DaZ students' mother-tongue in the classroom to support their learning or the need to help DaZ students develop a global understanding of a text before reading. More often, though, DaZ instruction was bounded within an age group (7 instances). Frau Engel argued in her interview that this distinction was the more salient one for teaching: "My impression is also that the big difference or the bigger difference isn't really so much DaZ or DaF, but rather much more school or not-school, so to say… whether one works with kids or one works with adults" (Translation, Interview, 07/14/2016). Students often watched video examples of adult DaZ classrooms and debriefed their reflections after watching. One such instance happened after watching a video of an integration class where adult students were coloring posters and the discussion that followed focused on the need to not infantilize adult DaZ learners in a language classroom. Other times the teacher educators simply provided an example that was clearly placed in a context. For example, Frau Graf described in detail an elementary setting where they developed a whole unit to support DaZ learners with map scale and math.

Similarly, debriefing a video that showed a DaF high school classroom meant the discussion focused on foreign language and school-age instructional practices (1 of the 2

instances where this was the case). DaF was never explicitly linked to adult learners, but was often talked about generally. In the Didactics and Methodology course, for example, there was a conversation about where DaF students could access German language input outside the classrooms. Ideas included films, German radio, the Goethe Institut, language partners, Skype, and other publicly available resources.

Of the sixty-seven instances where teacher educators focused on instruction, forty-one of them did not specify any teaching-context. Thus, that means 61% of the time instructional techniques were not contextualized as beneficial for any particular group. Frau Schubert acknowledged in her interview the fact that teaching DaZ and DaF are often not positioned as different, stating, "We always switch a little between the ideas DaF/DaZ" (Translation, Interview, 06/02/2016). Frau Engel echoed this statement in her interview, adding that it is related to the career opportunities for graduates: "For us, we have really different occupations that we ultimately prepare people for… we have a very wide field, DaZ and DaF, schools and adults" (Translation, Interview, 07/14/2016). For example, the vast majority of the time conversations about listening strategies, error correction, language acquisition, and teaching methodologies in general were not presented as any different when used with school-age or adult learners.

Language Teaching and Learning Related to Other Topics

Alongside language and instruction, the teacher preparation program focused on specific topics related to language teaching and learning, which reflect societal issues and practices related to language in the broader national environment (Figure 2.12).

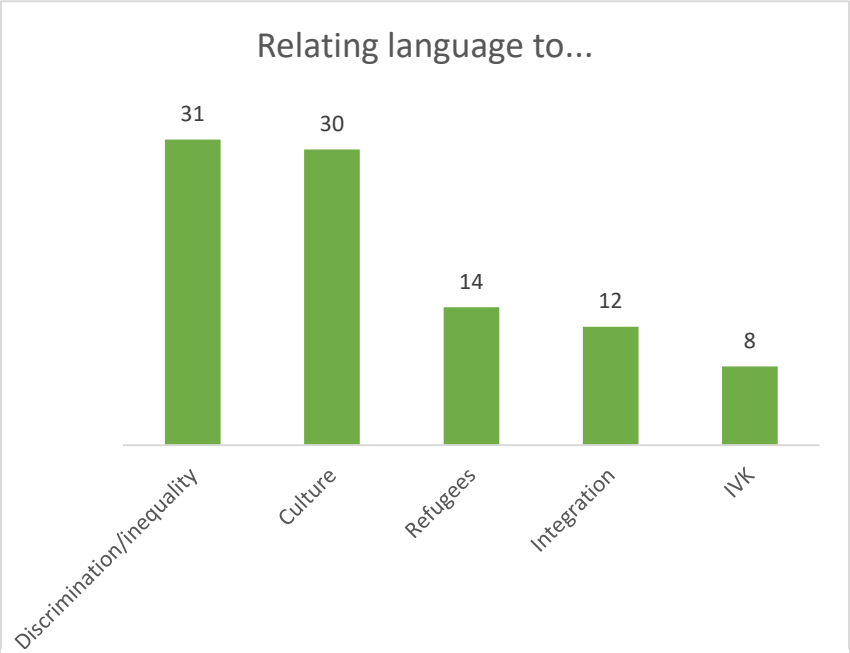

Figure 2.12: Topics which teacher educators related to language teaching and learning

Discussions of discrimination, stereotyping, inequality, culture, refugees, integration, and the International Preparation Classes (IVK) occurred the most frequently. Teacher educators emphasized the need to challenge discrimination, stereotyping, and deficit mindsets often in their interviews. Frau Schubert stated in her interview, "For a long time, multilingualism in Germany was, unless it was English, the lingua franca or French, seen somewhat as a deficit" (Translation, Interview, 06/02/2016). She emphasized that a teacher with no training in language often does not recognize all the assets multilingual students bring with them to school.

These topics were unevenly distributed across courses, with some courses focusing on them almost exclusively and others not at all. For example, the Transcultural Communication course focused on culture twenty-three of the thirty times it was the focus and discussed discrimination/inequality in five of its thirty-one instances. The clear focus of that class was on cultural understanding and challenging deficit views of immigrants in Germany. Frau Graf in her interview echoed that this focus was a goal for this semester: "Every semester they have an

assignment that goes in their accompanying portfolio that they should reflect on. This semester they were actually supposed to reflect on how the idea they have about culture changed" (Translation, Interview, 08/03/2016).

The Diversity Management course related all of these topics to language teaching and learning at some point (discrimination/inequality 20 times, refugees 8 times, the IVK 2 times), whereas the Didactics and Methodology course only explicitly addressed one of these, the IVK, 3 times. The Second and Foreign Language Acquisition course addressed refugees (6), culture (6), and integration (9) more often than the other explicitly language-focused classes. From this list of related topics, the Reading and Writing class only discussed integration twice; the Listening, Speaking, and Interaction course explicitly addressed none of these topics.

Discussion

Exploring the case of a semester of a language teacher preparation program which graduates students in DaZ and DaF provides a snapshot of language teacher preparation. This discussion explores how I understand the three ways teacher educators curricularized the content-specific aspects of language teaching and learning to reflect the social, cultural, and practical factors affecting DaZ education. Teacher educators defined language according to linguistic and communicative waves of language teaching, which reflects existing national language ideologies, policies, and practices. They contextualized language instructional practices less than half the time, leaving them unspecified for teacher learners who could potentially teach in a range of contexts. Simultaneously, they presented language as related to historical and modern discrimination in the German national environment and provide opportunities for teacher learners to consider how they might challenge that discrimination in their future work. Figure

2.13 presents how the DaZ/DaF teacher educators in the case study curricularized aspects of LTL and which influences of the national environment each reflects implicitly or addresses explicitly.

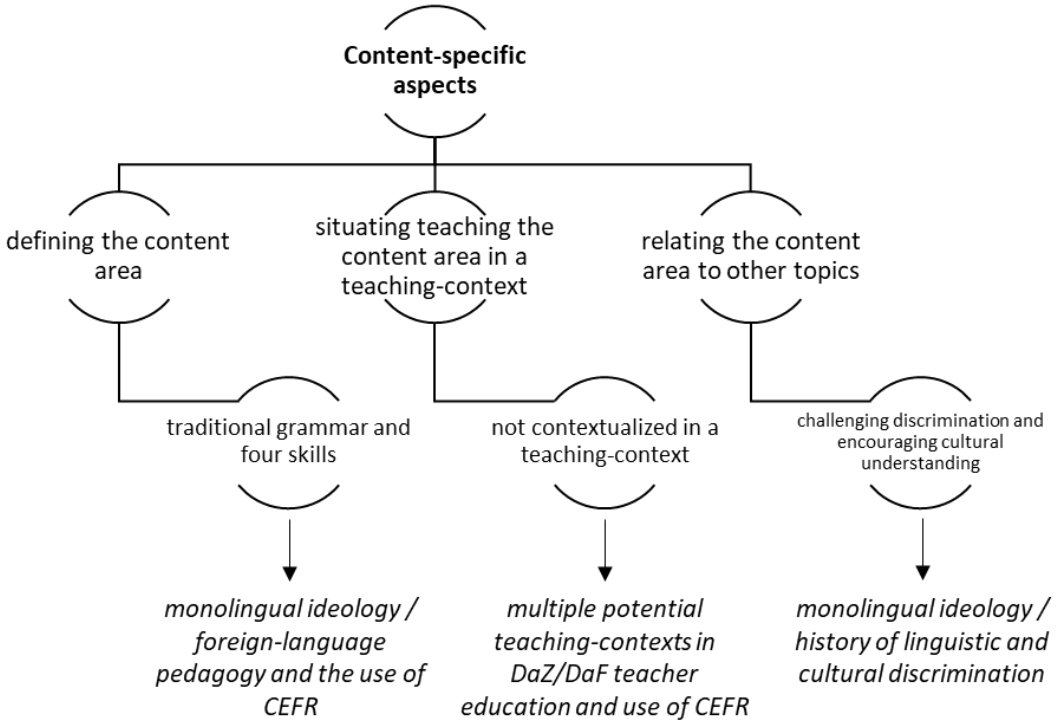

Figure 2.13: How DaZ/DaF teacher educators curricularized content-specific aspects of teaching and learning in their practice and related factors of the national environment

While curricularizing LTL, teacher educators emphasized defining language as structure and form and how to practice it in each language skill of speaking, reading, writing, and listening. This tendency reflects a national environment where "in the new immigration legislation… 'language knowledge' (in the sense of proficiency in standard German) became a key yardstick of national belonging and criterion for citizenship" (Stevenson, 2015, p. 77). The focus of adult DaZ education is therefore on the structure and form of the standard grammar needed to integrate into this 'monolingual' society. The emphasis of DaF education is on standard German in the traditional sense of learning a foreign language as learning the grammar.

The focus on the four skills aligns with the communicative wave of language education, which also reflects an emphasis on foreign language teaching and the use of the CEFR. For

example, the self-assessment rubric of the CEFR is separated into the following categories: listening, reading, spoken interaction, spoken production, and writing (see Appendix 2B for the CEFR self-assessment rubric). As a common framework provided by the Council of Europe, the CEFR was used by DaZ/DaF teacher educators frequently to orient teacher learners to ways of assessing students' proficiency. The CEFR is presented as "six levels of foreign language proficiency" and is intended to provide "member states with internationally comparable data on the results of foreign language teaching and learning in the European Union" (Council of Europe, 2020a). In other words, the focus is on foreign language competencies and assessing them through the four language skills.

Presenting language in these two ways prepares teacher learners to work in the established DaZ/DaF educational system. Teacher educators curricularizing LTL for DaZ/DaF discussed in interviews the need to prepare their teacher learners for a variety of potential occupations. In preparing teacher learners to work with DaZ adults in Germany, defining language as standardized syntax reflects the "monolingual habitus… too deeply embedded in the policy-making process" to accommodate the social change of accepting the many languages and dialects spoken by immigrants in Germany today (Stevenson, 2015, p. 77). The other main focus on language as four skills prepares teacher learners to work with and assess DaF students in other European countries or outside Europe with the CEFR as a common framework.

The much smaller focus on the third-wave of language teaching, addressing the language of schooling and language as a meaning-making resource, perhaps provides teacher learners "with answers to questions they have not yet asked and [prepares] them for eventualities rather than actualities" (Katz & Raths, 1992, p. 379). Teacher educators curricularizing LTL by defining language in this manner introduced an idea that may gain traction if DaZ teachers are

ever utilized in schools. They discussed this need frequently in interviews when asked what was needed in schools. Frau Graf was the teacher educator who did this most often in her teaching practice, perhaps suggesting the influence of her personal experience, research, and beliefs. The focus of the study was on the relationship between the national environment and the curricularizing of LTL, but an avenue for future research would be to explore how the third domain influencing curricularizing, teacher educators' individual experiences, relate to their individual curricularizing choices. By introducing this definition of language in her teacher preparation practice, she appeared to open up the possibility that in the future teacher learners could work in a DaZ school-age context as well.

However, the teacher educators in the study do not often situate instruction within a particular teaching-context. How instruction would change based on the teaching-context was explicitly addressed less than half the time. The majority of the time (61%) that instructional strategies or pedagogies were taught, teacher educators did not situate it in a teaching-context. Any specific needs in the DaZ/DaF or adult/school-age teaching-contexts, which are sometimes vastly different, were not frequently addressed. Instead, the program tried to cover too many "whom's" and too many "where's" and did so by not explicitly contextualizing the teaching most of the time.

The decontextualized instructional focus also aligns with the use of the CEFR. Some researchers argue the CEFR is strengthened by its "flexible and context-amenable nature" (Jones & Saville, 2009, p. 51). Others argue that this opens the CEFR up to criticism and misuse, as it was "developed to aid foreign language learning in the adult context in Europe but – because of its perceived usefulness and currency – it has been used widely at all education levels, also with L1, and with languages for specific purposes" (Figueras, 2012, p. 483). This use of the CEFR

treats it as a decontextualized diagnostic. Similarly, the teacher educators in the study used the CEFR often to discuss assessment or when focused on the communicative skills of language without specifying if its use was more appropriate in a foreign language or second language, school-age or adult teaching context.

The question is whether instructional strategies for DaZ or DaF, school-age or adult learners do overlap that often or whether decontextualized resources such as the CEFR should be used more specifically in some teaching-contexts than others. If different teaching-contexts require different pedagogical strategies or knowledge, programs need to consider how to most adequately prepare teachers for those contexts. Attempting to prepare teacher learners for multiple contexts creates a dilemma in terms of how much to focus on any one context. The teacher educators in this case navigated the dilemma by trying to cast a wide net, with the possible risk that no context is covered in depth or that the ones covered less often are eclipsed by the most frequent. In a national environment that simultaneously pushes multilingualism within Europe (thereby privileging certain European languages) and monolingualism domestically, teacher preparation programs that do not specify a teaching-context will continue to try to address the teaching of German in and outside Europe, to children or adults, without the resource of time to focus on what teacher learners might need to know in each specific setting.

Even within one teaching-context as I have bounded them in the study (for example, DaF adult contexts as one, DaF school-age contexts as another), many other contextual factors require consideration. If one considers every unique classroom a different teaching-context, it is naturally impossible to address every single one. However, it is possible to focus more narrowly than childhood through tertiary education through adulthood, with learners' needs ranging from travel phrases to learning the academic language of other content areas. In a degree program that

does not specify the age group or DaZ or DaF teaching-context, more specific teaching-contexts may prove even farther out of reach for teacher educators to address, even when they are known.

Teacher educators need to address explicitly how the language needs of primary/secondary school students and adult learners differ and how effective teaching activities and strategies are different or the same in those contexts. As it currently stands, DaZ instruction is often treated as though the same strategies are equally applicable for all contexts and age-groups, despite arguments that the communicative approach may be more appropriate for foreign language and third-wave approaches for second language school settings. Teacher educators in the study attempt to cover all teaching-contexts and the result is that they rarely focus on a specific context. Not contextualizing teaching in that manner runs the risk, as David Cohen once said, that teacher preparation becomes so broad as to prepare teachers to "teach nothing in particular to no one in particular" (D. K. Cohen, personal communication, lecture, October 6, 2015).

As the same time, language was related in the semester observed to culture and identity, issues of discrimination, and assets of multilingualism. The teacher educators are working in a national environment in which "language seems to be one of the final hide-outs where openly racist remarks are still socially acceptable in modern society, and as such, it is a very powerful domain for the construction of social out-groups" (Wiese, 2015, p. 363). Therefore, they used their program (in the offerings of courses) and practice (in their instruction) to push back against the deficit views of immigrants and language learners in Germany. The underlying implication is that negative views of language learners will affect DaZ education at both the adult and school-age levels. Yet in the current ideology in Germany, the linguistic and cultural resources of multilingual immigrants are underappreciated and underrepresented. One example is the census

neglecting to ask about language. DaZ teacher educators and researchers in the field have fought against stereotypes and for inclusion in Germany for years. While national attention is being given to DaZ education, teacher educators are using the opportunity to highlight and combat discrimination as they curricularize language teaching and learning in their practice.

Teacher educators' push to respect the linguistic and cultural diversity of DaZ students is a different multilingual rhetoric than the dominant one in Germany, which advocates for the learning of French, Spanish, or English. Emphasizing the linguistic diversity of DaZ students as an asset curricularizes LTL with a focus on inclusion in the hopes that future generations of teachers will be equipped to challenge the deficit-mindset. Teacher educators in the study led discussions of inequality in Germany with questions such as "What can diversity management do about this?" or "What training would we want people working in those settings to have?" In other words, they worked to help teacher learners develop practical ideas for combatting what Wright (2000) called "a conspiracy of silence on the matter" (p. 120). In relating language to respecting cultural differences and combating discrimination, teacher educators worked to combat ideologies that privilege only German mother-tongue speakers and do not reflect the rich reality of life in Germany today.

In summary, the ways DaZ/DaF teacher educators curricularize content-specific aspects of teaching and learning reflect influences from the German national environment and the professional field. First, defining language as a standardized grammar echoes the notion that there is a correct German for DaZ/DaF students to learn. Emphasizing communication skills and the four language skills reflects the larger professional field of foreign language teaching, while lack of attention to academic language in schools mirrors a national system where DaZ school-age students are not given support in content area classes. Second, not situating language

instruction over half the time in any teaching-context relates to both a German language field that is attempting to cover DaZ school-age contexts, DaZ adult contexts, and DaF school-age contexts outside Germany, as well as to the larger professional field of language teaching and learning, which incorporates research and content from second and foreign language education and all possible teaching-contexts for that content. Lastly, relating language education most often to issues of language discrimination, respecting and encouraging cultural diversity, and integration and the refugee situation reflects teacher educators navigating a historically monolingual national environment while working to create space for language diversity in education.

Concluding Remarks

The study initially began with a question about preparing teacher learners to work with school-age DaZ learners and how teacher learners in Germany were trained to teach them. But in the programs which prepare language teachers exclusively to teach DaZ or DaF, teacher educators were trapped navigating the dilemmas created by a national environment which constrained their ability to reach DaZ school-age learners. Instead, teacher learners were given general training to teach language broadly, defined as teaching grammar and the four skills by the national and EU environment, across a range of contexts, and situated in a national environment with historically neglectful or deficit views of linguistic diversity in its populace. Teacher educators curricularized LTL based on what they perceived teacher learners might need in the various teaching-contexts they could encounter. At the same time, they rarely focused on one context explicitly in an attempt to cover every possible context.

I reiterate that in-service and other content area programs were beginning to develop school-age DaZ endorsements and coursework, which offers a glimmer of hope for school-age

DaZ students. Work is being developed to support DaZ in schools even if DaZ/DaF program graduates are not being utilized in that setting. Changes are happening to adjust to increased numbers of DaZ learners and DaZ school-age students can hope to have some teachers trained to work with language in the future. How these new training opportunities for in-service and pre-service content area teachers are implemented and how language teaching and learning is curricularized therewithin offers a potential next avenue for studying DaZ teacher education in Germany.

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Appendices

Appendix 2A

Interview protocol – DaZ Teacher Educators

Common questions to teacher educators	
Was hoffen Sie, dass die Studierenden nach den Seminare von diesem Semester machen koennen? (Was sollen sie am Anfang ihrer Praktika schon wissen und koennen?)	What do you hope the students can do after the seminars this semester? (What should they know and be able to do before the start of their practicum?)
Was wird sich in nächster Zeit ändern? Was heißt das für DaZ und die DaZ Abteilung? (Mit DaZ als Seminar für Lehramt Studierenden, z. B.?)	What will change in the near future [in DaZ education]? What does that mean for the DaZ and DaZ department? (With DaZ as a class for content area teachers, for example?)
Wie wuerde das aussehen, wenn alle Fachlehrer auf DaZ vorbereitet wuerden? (Ideal oder realistisch)	What would it looks like if all content area teachers were prepared for DaZ? (ideal or realistic)
Wie wuerde Sprachfoerderung in den Schulen dann aussehen?	How would language support in schools look?
Was sind die Hürden dagegen, das DaZ als Lehramtfach anerkannt wird? Was muss gemacht werden?	What are the barriers against DaZ as a certifiable content area? What needs to be done?
Gibt es sonst etwas, was Sie mir über DaZ oder die Situation zur Zeit erklären wollen?	Is there anything else you want to tell me about DaZ or the current situation?
(Gibt es sonst etwas?) (Können Sie das weiter erklären?) (Und zwar?) (Zum Beispiel?)	(Anything else?) (Can you tell me more about that?) (And that is?) (For example?)
Examples of specific questions to teacher educators based on their roles	
Frau Engel - Wieso wurde der DaZ-Studeniengang letztes Jahr geändert? Wie war dieses Prozess? Wie haben Sie das gemacht?	Frau Engel – Why was the DaZ program changed last year? How was this process? How did you do it?
Herr Dietrich - Wie wurde die neue Zertifikat entwickelt? Wieso? Was sind die Schwierigkeiten, einen solchen Studiengang (kompakt-Module, etc.) zu planen und durchführen? Wieso haben Sie sich (als Team) für diese bestimmte Module entschieden? Was hoffen Sie, dass diese Lehrer nach dieser Zertifikat in Schulen machen werden?	Herr Dietrich – How was the new certificate developed? Why? What are the difficulties in planning and implementing such a program? Why did you as a team decide on this particular model? What do you hope the teachers will do after the certificate?

Appendix 2B

CEFR Self-Assessment Rubric, English (Council of Europe, 2020c)

		A1	A2	B1	B2	C1	C2
UNDERSTANDING	**Listening**	I can recognise familiar words and very basic phrases concerning myself, my family and immediate concrete surroundings when people speak slowly and clearly.	I can understand phrases and the highest frequency vocabulary related to areas of most immediate personal relevance (e.g. very basic personal and family information, shopping, local area, employment). I can catch the main point in short, clear, simple messages and announcements.	I can understand the main points of clear standard speech on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. I can understand the main point of many radio or TV programmes on current affairs or topics of personal or professional interest when the delivery is relatively slow and clear.	I can understand extended speech and lectures and follow even complex lines of argument provided the topic is reasonably familiar. I can understand most TV news and current affairs programmes. I can understand the majority of films in standard dialect.	I can understand extended speech even when it is not clearly structured and when relationships are only implied and not signalled explicitly. I can understand television programmes and films without too much effort.	I have no difficulty in understanding any kind of spoken language, whether live or broadcast, even when delivered at fast native speed, provided I have some time to get familiar with the accent.
	Reading	I can understand familiar names, words and very simple sentences, for example on notices and posters or in catalogues.	I can read very short, simple texts. I can find specific, predictable information in simple everyday material such as advertisements, prospectuses, menus and timetables and I can understand short simple personal letters.	I can understand texts that consist mainly of high frequency everyday or job-related language. I can understand the description of events, feelings and wishes in personal letters.	I can read articles and reports concerned with contemporary problems in which the writers adopt particular attitudes or viewpoints. I can understand contemporary literary prose.	I can understand long and complex factual and literary texts, appreciating distinctions of style. I can understand specialised articles and longer technical instructions, even when they do not relate to my field.	I can read with ease virtually all forms of the written language, including abstract, structurally or linguistically complex texts such as manuals, specialised articles and literary works.
SPEAKING	**Spoken Interaction**	I can interact in a simple way provided the other person is prepared to repeat or rephrase things at a slower rate of speech and help me formulate what I'm trying to say. I can ask and answer simple questions in areas of immediate need or on very familiar topics.	I can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar topics and activities. I can handle very short social exchanges, even though I can't usually understand enough to keep the conversation going myself.	I can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken. I can enter unprepared into conversation on topics that are familiar, of personal interest or pertinent to everyday life (e.g. family, hobbies, work, travel and current events).	I can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible. I can take an active part in discussion in familiar contexts, accounting for and sustaining my views.	I can express myself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. I can use language flexibly and effectively for social and professional purposes. I can formulate ideas and opinions with precision and relate my contribution skilfully to those of other speakers.	I can take part effortlessly in any conversation or discussion and have a good familiarity with idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms. I can express myself fluently and convey finer shades of meaning precisely. If I do have a problem I can backtrack and restructure around the difficulty so smoothly that other people are hardly aware of it.
	Spoken Production	I can use simple phrases and sentences to describe where I live and people I know.	I can use a series of phrases and sentences to describe in simple terms my family and other people, living conditions, my educational background and my present or most recent job.	I can connect phrases in a simple way in order to describe experiences and events, my dreams, hopes and ambitions. I can briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans. I can narrate a story or relate the plot of a book or film and describe my reactions.	I can present clear, detailed descriptions on a wide range of subjects related to my field of interest. I can explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.	I can present clear, detailed descriptions of complex subjects integrating sub-themes, developing particular points and rounding off with an appropriate conclusion.	I can present a clear, smoothly-flowing description or argument in a style appropriate to the context and with an effective logical structure which helps the recipient to notice and remember significant points.
WRITING	**Writing**	I can write a short, simple postcard, for example sending holiday greetings. I can fill in forms with personal details, for example entering my name, nationality and address on a hotel registration form.	I can write short, simple notes and messages relating to matters in areas of immediate needs. I can write a very simple personal letter, for example thanking someone for something.	I can write simple connected text on topics which are familiar or of personal interest. I can write personal letters describing experiences and impressions.	I can write clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects related to my interests. I can write an essay or report, passing on information or giving reasons in support of or against a particular point of view. I can write letters highlighting the personal significance of events and experiences.	I can express myself in clear, well-structured text, expressing points of view at some length. I can write about complex subjects in a letter, an essay or a report, underlining what I consider to be the salient issues. I can select style appropriate to the reader in mind.	I can write clear, smoothly-flowing text in an appropriate style. I can write complex letters, reports or articles which present a case with an effective logical structure which helps the recipient to notice and remember significant points. I can write summaries and reviews of professional or literary works.

CHAPTER 3

"Slowly, Slowly, Slowly it Becomes This is What Accepted Practice is": Shared Understandings of Implementing Functional Grammar Teacher Professional Development in Australian Schools

Abstract

This study explores how one community of educators in Australia, connected by a common professional development program, has worked to implement training for teachers in schools based on a functional theory of language and how they understand the factors which influence that implementation. The process of curricularizing includes planning, selecting, organizing, and implementing teacher education substance for teacher learners. The Lexis Education program standardizes the first three parts of the process in its training materials. The study examines what affects the implementation part of the process. These educators are members of a community of activity in the work they do to train teachers using the Lexis Education program and simultaneously members of a community of explanation, bound by social facts related to their theory of language and their shared training materials. The study asks the following research question: *How do members of the community of explanation implementing functional grammar and the Lexis program in schools, separated by geographical and professional distance, understand the factors which affect that work?* Data include interviews with twelve educators with different professional roles in the school system and across three Australian states. Findings show that they advocate strongly for their theory of language, use the

built-in supports from the training materials, and navigate tensions present in the school setting. The discussion considers the implications of a contextualized theory of language teacher education, including the advantages of having many of the dilemmas teacher educators typically face already decided, such as how to conceptualize language, which instructional practices or teaching-context to focus on, or which concepts to connect to language learning. Having agreed-upon understandings about those dilemmas provides space for educators to focus on resolving the tensions which arise from the daily challenges of the school setting, such as advocating for time, securing funding, or convincing reluctant teachers or leadership to support the initiative.

Narrative: Why Australia

My initial desire to better understand the choices made in language teacher education to prepare teachers for school-age second language learners was not possible in studying pre-service DaZ education in Germany, where teachers, at least in 2016, were not being prepared for that teaching-context. As a result, I sought for a second study a national environment where training teachers to work with second language learners was perceived in the field as established and successful. As discussed in the introduction, various conceptualizations of language serve purposes in different teaching-contexts. For school-age students who have moved to a national environment where they do not speak the dominant language, the struggle to access texts and discourse in the school context requires particular attention to the language features which create meaning in academic disciplines. Although experts in the field of systemic functional linguistics (SFL) work in nations around the world, Australia provides a unique environment, as the birthplace of SFL, through the work of Michael Halliday, and the continued work of educators who have recontextualized SFL for teaching. SFL used in education has provided students with explicit attention to the functions and features of language used in different contexts and has supported them in understanding the features of language in different content areas.

Through Brian Dare, a co-director of a teacher professional development program called Lexis Education based on the functional model of language, I was able to interview educators working to implement a functional linguistics based teacher training in primary/secondary schools in three states in Australia. I knew functional linguistics teacher training was happening in Australia through programs such as Lexis; the question was how it was happening in the realities of the school teaching-context. What form did the work take in practice? What enabled the teacher trainings to happen? What challenges were there to implementation?

Introduction

In a field of competing approaches to teaching literacy, educators working with systemic functional linguistics (SFL) in Australia have created and maintained a strong voice in the discussion of literacy and pedagogy. At various points in time, entire states have invested resources in professional development for teachers in using the functional model of language. Educators in the field who use SFL argue the approach enables students to build an understanding of how language is used in schools and empirical studies on recontextualizations of SFL in schools demonstrate benefits the approach can have for teachers and students (e.g. Schleppegrell & O'Hallaron, 2011; White, Mammone, & Caldwell, 2015). This study explores how one community of educators, connected by a common professional development program, have worked to implement training for teachers in schools on the functional model of language.

These educators work in different professional roles and in the different geographical locations of Queensland, South Australia, and Victoria, but they are connected by the shared theory of language and the shared training materials. Implementing the same program creates a "community of activity", which Freeman (2016) defines as "a group of people who are doing a recognized or recognizable activity" (p. 241). The recognizable activity in this community of activity is implementing in schools the professional development program from Lexis Education focused on a functional model of language. Lexis Education is a private teacher professional development company which uses a train-the-trainer model. This model allows trained educators to continue professional development for other teachers in their schools after they have completed the course.

The choices for what to include in a professional development program are influenced by broader sociocultural factors. I refer to the complicated process of selecting and designing

teacher education substance as curricularizing and use a framework which includes three domains of sociocultural influence. In the first domain, the curricularizing framework explores ideologies, policies, and school practices as common factors in the *national environment* which affect the process of teacher education. The second domain in the framework includes factors related to the *professional field*, such as the ways in which an academic setting privileges particular knowledge and content through publications and discourse, conferences and networking, and local and global communities of practice. The third domain is the *individual educator's experiences*. Individual factors include factors such as personal experiences in education, knowledge and expertise, and personal beliefs. Figure 3.14 provides an infographic for the curricularizing framework.

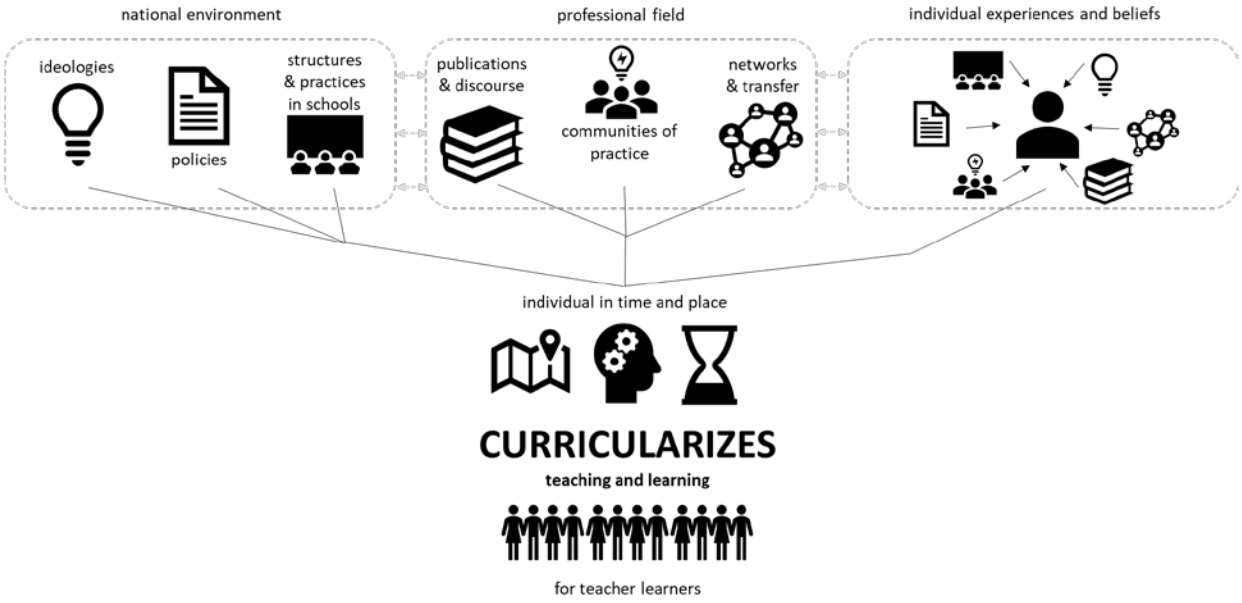

Figure 3.14: The curricularizing framework for teacher education

The process of selecting, planning, and delivering the substance of professional development to teacher learners, i.e. those learning teaching, is complex. The field of language teaching and learning (LTL) is full of different potential substance to teach teacher learners. Teacher educators must decide which theory of language they believe it is important for teacher

learners to understand to meet the needs of the students in their future teaching-contexts, instructional methods that align with the theory of language and the teaching-context, and any other topics related to LTL that they feel are important for language teachers to know. As discussed in Chapter 2, trying to cover the entire scope of the field can lead to a decontextualized treatment of language definitions and pedagogies.

However, the Lexis Education program provides common materials, meant to be implemented in a standardized manner to train teachers working with school-age students, and presents a functional theory of language as the definition of language necessary for those students in that teaching-context. As such, the instance of Lexis tutor trainers implementing the training in schools creates a community of educators in which the curriculum and instructional strategies, the definition of language, and the teaching-context are all already agreed upon. This case study focuses not on the materials themselves or what was selected as the substance of the program (although they are described as background information), but on the implementation part of the process in the school setting.

The goal of a case study is to understand "the meaning people make of their lives in very particular contexts" (Dyson & Genishi, 2005, p. 9). In this instance, the particular context is both the broad realm of Australian education and the individual sites of implementing a functional model of language in schools. The study is not a case of one physical site. Instead, I argue that the case is bounded by the shared theory of language and the shared curriculum being implemented in the context of Australian education. The educators in the study were identified by a Lexis Education co-owner as having success in implementing the program in schools. In this case study, the common curriculum decides the planning part of the curricularizing process. The study explores what shared factors affect the educators, connected by the common

curriculum and theory of language, in different professional roles and geographic locations as they implement a coherent program in schools.

The first section provides background on the history of the dispute over literacy and how to teach it in Australia as context for the national environment in which the educators in the study work. It also explains the place of the functional theory of language in this dispute and how the Lexis program came to be. The second section explains the sociocultural framework of communities of activity and explanation (Freeman, 2016), and how various aspects of that design theory apply to the case study. The third section describes the methods and analysis of the case study, followed by the findings section, which explores which factors affecting the implementation directly relate to the functional theory of language, which to the Lexis program, and which factors are a result of the common logistics of schools and teachers' work. Last, the discussion section brings together the literacy dispute in Australia with the understandings of the educators in the case, which aspects of the Lexis program and the school setting educators perceive as most useful for the implementation work, and how research on school initiatives echoes the power of these factors as vital to enacting change through teacher professional development in schools.

Literature

The educators in the study work in literacy and language education. However, the specific goals of literacy and language education in Australia are highly contested. Snyder (2008) argues that "there is no simple, correct view of literacy that would be universally accepted" and that "literacy is intensely value-laden – influenced by what people variously aspire to and hold important" (p. 11). At various points in the early 2000s, Australian media outlets published articles written mostly by "defenders of traditional approaches to literacy, not the advocates of

contemporary practice" (p. 7). Snyder provides a list of overt and implicit questions highlighted in the articles:

> Should there be a core literacy curriculum? How much attention should be given to basic literacy skills? Which books should be included in a literature course? Does popular culture have a place in the English classroom? Has the English curriculum been dumbed down? What does postmodern theory have to offer literacy education? Should critical literacy be an integral component of the curriculum? To what extent are the battles over literacy about other things? (p. 6)

The result of such articles is "always powerful, with the public assuming that there is a literacy problem and that educational systems and teachers are to blame" (pp. 7-8).

As measured by the ability to read and write, Australia is a highly literate country (Freebody, 2007). However, the rhetoric about a literacy crisis persists, which means resources have been allocated to literacy goals. Providing literacy resources in schools means the number of school-age students who speak English as a Second Language (ESL[17]) or English as an Additional Language or Dialect (EAL/D) receive support on the literacy practices privileged in schools. With 21% of Australians speaking another language at home and many students speaking a dialect of Australian English, EAL/D students comprise an estimated 25% of Australian students (de Courcy, Dooley, Jackson, Miller, & Rushton, 2020). These students were often born and raised in Australia, while students who are newly arrived in Australia also receive ESL services and are referred to as newcomers. This section explores the background of

[17] ESL and EAL/D are both commonly used in Australia. Although literacy supports are generally acknowledged to provide support for students learning Australian English as a second language or as an additional dialect, I use the ESL abbreviation to maintain consistency with the term second language used throughout the dissertation.

languages in Australia and the relationship between ESL and literacy. It elaborates on the literacy wars, the functional theory of language, and the development of Lexis Education.

Languages in Australia

Australia was originally inhabited by Indigenous Aboriginal groups who spoke an estimated 250 languages (Ellis, Gogolin, & Clyne, 2010). Starting in 1788, a "mixture of convicts, supervisors and administrators" arrived from Britain, with devastating long-term effects on Aboriginal languages and cultures (Leitner, 2004a, p. 4). According to the 2016 census, there are 798,400 Aboriginal and Torres Strait Island people in Australia (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2019b). As of the start of the 21st century, an estimated 100 or so Indigenous languages remain "with approximately only 20 regarded as having sufficient vitality to survive the next few decades" (Ellis et al., 2010, p. 448). A number of creole languages have emerged alongside traditional languages (p. 448).

In the 19th century, other settlers arrived from Germany, China, Italy, Denmark, Norway, Sweden, and other countries, mostly in Europe (Leitner, 2004b). For years, these immigrant groups maintained their mother-tongue and created education services for their children, but "few communities created the necessary infrastructure to ensure longterm [sic] maintenance" (p. 159). Gradually with the passing of education laws in the 20th century, these community languages were usurped by English in public life and education.

A renewed influx of immigrants after World War II and the relaxation of laws on immigrants from Asia in the 1960s further diversified Australia's linguistic population. In 2019 there continues to be great diversity in languages spoken and used among the 25.5 million inhabitants of Australia, albeit not as much diversity in languages learned in schools. Approximately 79% of Australians only speak English at home (Ellis et al., 2010). As measured

in 2018, 7.3 million people living in Australia were born in another country and migrated (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2019a). Common languages other than English (LOTEs) spoken at home are Italian, Greek, Cantonese, Arabic, Mandarin, and Vietnamese (Ellis et al., 2010), but overall there are more than 350 LOTEs used in Australia (Lo Bianco & Slaughter, 2009).

ESL and Literacy

Australia has supported ESL education for generations. An adult ESL program started in the 1940s is considered "perhaps the world's most successful large-scale enterprise in teaching the national language to immigrants" (Ellis et al., 2010). School-age ESL students receive services in schools either as newcomers in intensive short-term English programs or in mainstream schools through push-in or pull-out ESL support in other content areas (Ellis et al, 2010). In the 1970s, as a result of civil rights movements in various countries, the political mood shifted to support multiculturalism. Language advocates began pushing for a more pluralistic society, Indigenous populations began fighting for more rights, and economic drivers encouraged Australia to develop policy related to multilingualism (Djité, 2011). The large number of immigrants in the middle of the 20th century and a proclamation of "multiculturalism as official policy" by Labor Prime Minister Gough Whitlam (Moore, 2000, p. 28) and continued support by Liberal Prime Minister Malcolm Fraser led to the design of the *National Policy on Languages* (Lo Bianco, 1987), or NPL. The NPL stipulated resources directly for ESL education for both adult and school-age learners.

Successive changes in government brought shifts in language policies. In 1991, the Department of Employment, Education and Training (DEET, 1991) created *Australia's Language: The Australian Language and Literacy Policy* (ALLP). It "claimed the policy was 'a continuation' of the NPL" (Moore, 2000, p. 30), but Moore argues that "the ALLP's role was to

replace a pluralist approach with one that set narrower priorities" (p. 35). As the 1990s continued, strong claims about declining English literacy and the need to be competitive on the economic market created a fervor around the need to improve English skills in Australians and the crisis rhetoric surrounding literacy has remained through the 2010s (Snyder, 2008).

ESL became "submerged within [the] strategically foregrounded pedagogical discourse – 'literacy'" (Moore, 2005, p. 313). In an article poetically named "ESL in the time of literacy", Lo Bianco (2002) argues that "without clarity of intent, even in an action document, unwritten assumptions gleaned from the consequences of a national literacy plan give ESL educators little traction as they try to argue for improvement in ESL provision" (p. 6). As such, ESL lost the guaranteed attention and funding resulting from explicit policy, with "long-term ESL requirements subsequently [disappearing] from federal government policymaking" following 1994 (Moore, forthcoming, p. 24).

The relationship between ESL and literacy is therefore complicated. On the one hand, some ESL support in schools comes from literacy funding sources (to be discussed in findings). Programs like Lexis Education are used as literacy initiatives, but were designed to support ESL students through the explicit use of a functional approach to language in teaching. That means explicit language teaching which benefits ESL students is able to be implemented widely through literacy initiatives. On the other hand, if people outside the field believe that ESL students' needs are being adequately addressed under the teaching of literacy, it may be harder for those working exclusively with ESL students to secure resources for their work.

Because the Lexis program has been used for both ESL and other literacy initiatives in schools, I do not draw the distinction in the remainder of the study unless the participants explicitly addressed one population of learners or the manner in which the training was brought

to their specific school (for example, scores on the National Assessment Program – Literacy and Numeracy (NAPLAN)[18] or funding through a particular department). The educators in the study worked across roles, as ESL teachers, other content area teachers, literacy coordinators, or teacher educators, suggesting that the Lexis program is used by educators to address a range of ESL and literacy needs in schools.

Literacy Wars

Although literacy has a strong standing in policy, the question is how should English literacy be taught. Termed the "literacy wars" by Snyder (2008), decade-long debates have focused on English as a battleground content area. Grammar and its role in the curriculum are one part of this debate. As Snyder stated, grammar "arouses people's passions" (p. 13). It is in this environment that the educators implementing a functional model of language in teacher training do their work in schools.

On one side, segments of the Australian public argue for a traditional focus on form in teaching grammar. Traditional grammar is typically viewed as "concerned with classification of words and their ordering within a sentence" (Snyder, 2008, p. 20), and proponents of traditional grammar argue that people need to know the parts of the sentence in order to write "correctly". The emphasis on traditional grammar was the focus until the late 1960s, but continues to be demanded by the more passionately prescriptive. The author of one article in 2006 (as cited in Snyder, 2008, p. 13) claimed that "to write ungrammatically, and not realise it, is to insult the English language." However, traditional grammar instruction has been criticized as ineffective and often "prescriptive and decontextualized" (Jones & Chen, 2012, p. 148).

[18] NAPLAN is the Australian standardized test for literacy and numeracy skills, administered annually in years 3, 5, 7, and 9 (NAP, 2016).

Another argument is for a whole-language approach, which "implies that language is not the sum of its many dissectible and discrete parts" and emphasizes "the interrelationship of the four skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing)" (Brown, 2007, p. 55). The whole-language approach "by and large dismissed the need for any kind of grammatical knowledge" (Dare & Polias, forthcoming, p. 2). Many adults in Australia were educated in schools under the whole-language approach in the 1970s and 1980s (including many educators in the study) and were never explicitly taught about grammar, thus creating a generation who "may be aware of structural and syntactical problems in their writing but they lack the language to describe them" (Snyder, 2008, p. 15). This shift also means they do not have "the language to talk about structure, syntax and meaning-making in reading and writing" (p. 15).

In terms of pedagogy, the whole-language approach often works in tandem with the process approach to writing, where "most [teachers] set pre-writing activities, require multiple drafts, give extensive feedback, encourage peer review, and delay surface correction (Hyland, 2003, p. 17). The focus in the process approach is not on grammar, which worked well in a system where no grammar was being taught. The focus is on the writer "as an isolated individual struggling to express personal meaning" (p. 18). Proponents argue that the process approach encourages creativity and is more child-centered than traditional grammar pedagogy (e.g. Zamel, 1983).

Critics of the process approach argue there is "little evidence" that it improves writing and that the approach does not "reveal why [writers] make certain linguistic and rhetorical choices" (Hyland, 2003, p. 19). Snyder (2008) states that because "creativity and imagination were emphasized, children tended to write narratives rather than exposition and argument" (p. 29), which are frequent genres encountered in schools. However, the process approach was

criticized for disadvantaging students "who have traditionally been excluded from participation in powerful discourses" (Achugar, Schleppegrell, & Oteíza, 2007, p. 11), such as students who were not raised speaking a privileged dialect[19]. Delpit (1988) argues that "adherents of process approaches to writing create situations in which students ultimately find themselves held accountable for knowing a set of rules about which no one has ever directly informed them" (p. 287). Critics argue instead that students need access to explicit teaching to work to eradicate the gap between students who grow up in a household where the privileged dialect of that society is spoken and those students who grow up speaking another language or dialect or who do not come to school with socially privileged literacy skills[20].

The third side of the argument is systemic functional linguistics (SFL), a theory developed in the 1970s by Michael Halliday to study how "language operates in context" (Halliday, 2014, p. 32).

> In terms of linguistic theory, we recognize this important principle by developing an 'ecological' theory of language – one in which language is always theorized, described and analysed within an environment of meanings; a given language is thus interpreted by reference to its semiotic habitat. (p. 32)

The functional model of language explores language's form and function through a lens of social interaction and meaning-making. It explores "the complex network of choices that have evolved to serve [people's] needs" (Derewianka & Jones, 2016, p. 4). It is important to note that SFL

[19] I use "privileged dialect" instead of "standard dialect" to raise awareness that no dialect is truly standard, but rather one is given a more privileged position in society by whichever group controls power at the time.

[20] This word choice is also intentional. The claim is often made that students come to school with "inadequate" or "lack of" literacy skills, but many researchers have shown that students from all language backgrounds and cultures bring literacy skills specific to their culture and upbringing (e.g. Delpit, 1995). I therefore refer to the literacy skills encouraged in schools as the socially privileged literacy skills to emphasize that they are not inherently "better" than any other literacy skills, but rather the skills defined by the group in society which holds the most power.

focuses on more than grammar, including “discourse semantics, lexico-grammar and the grapho-phonic” (B. Dare, personal communication, May 20, 2020). However, the teacher educators in the study shortened the concept of a functional theory of language to “functional grammar” and that term will be used hereafter to represent the common term used by participants.

Through the work of members of the ‘Sydney school’ in Australia, educators such as “J.R. Martin, Joan Rothery, Frances Christie, Beverly Derewianka, Mary Macken-Horarik, David Rose and their many colleagues,” Halliday’s functional view of language has been adapted for pedagogy (White et al., 2015, p. 258). Graves and Garton (2017) describe the “development of a pedagogical grammar” as a recontextualization of “functional grammar with terminology and examples that are accessible and useable” (p. 458). In other words, SFL as a theory of language has been recontextualized for the classroom setting through the development of instructional tools to support students’ understanding of language.

One way functional grammar has been used in education is as a systematic method of exploring socially-constructed common text types (genres) in schools for their typical linguistic features. Educators working with a functional grammar have studied the genres students are frequently asked to write and examined the language features of those genres in a systematic way. They have developed lessons and materials to help teachers unpack the language demands of their classrooms, learn how to explicitly teach those features, and provide students meaningful feedback on the language choices they make in their work. The functional grammar approach has “the goal of making language demands of the curriculum explicit so that all students have access to the linguistic resources needed for success” in and out of school (Derewianka & Jones, 2016, p. 3).

Functional grammar is therefore highly appropriate for the school setting, as it merges language, context, and disciplinary content. As students progress through school, the "disciplinary demands increase along with the complexity of the grammatical forms students encounter" (de Oliveira & Schleppegrell, 2015, p. 86). Students are expected to "access, critique, and synthesize increasing amounts of information" and "without an adequate control of the language of instruction in this increasingly language-dense environment, some [English language] learners may hit a language wall" (Gibbons, 2009, p. 4). Functional grammar used in teaching draws students' attention to "the grammatical patterns in the reading that they do and the writing they are asked to perform" (de Oliveira & Schleppegrell, 2015, p. 110). In that way, explicit language instruction is focused on "the expansion of grammatical resources students control, rather than solely on accuracy in producing grammatical forms" (p. 85).

Using functional grammar in schools has had positive results in classrooms related to teachers' instruction and students' writing and test scores. For example, Fenwick (2010) found students and teachers both benefited from a functional approach to language in the classroom. Students reported that in the past they had received little instruction on "the structure and language of texts" and felt more confidence after a unit where language was explicitly taught in their content area classes (p. 276). Teachers reported students benefited, but also that they as teachers acquired "new relevant knowledge about genres and language" through the training program in the study (p. 278). White, Mammone, and Caldwell (2015) showed a connection between schools where a functional grammar approach was implemented and higher NAPLAN scores. While the researchers acknowledge that they cannot derive causation between the functional grammar approach in the schools and the scores, they point to "a strong likelihood that

the genre-based pedagogy had at least some role to play in the above-average literacy results" (White, et al., 2015, p. 268).

The Australian federal English curriculum (ACARA, 2015) was developed in part with key people who work in the functional grammar field, including Beverly Derewianka, who both writes about the curriculum development and functional grammar in Australia, and is active in functional grammar professional development for teachers. Each of the six state and ten territorial education authorities can develop its own curriculum, as can independent schools and schools operated by Catholic Education[21], but these curricula are closely tied to the federal curriculum. Therefore educators in the study, even those who work in Catholic Education, government newcomer schools, or in the state government education department, are all connected by the national curriculum for English education when designing their own curriculum.

Lexis Education

In the early 2000s, the state of South Australia had an established ESL tutor training course. In 2005-2006, Brian Dare, John Polias, and Bronwyn Custance redesigned the ESL course to focus more on the functional model of language and Dare and Polias developed a second course on language and literacy also using the functional model (e.g. Dare & Polias, 2004). These courses were updated over time and additional courses were written. These included the "Literacy for learning" (2012) and the "Teaching young children in English in

[21] Catholic schools in Australia are the second largest provider of education after government schools. Catholic Education serves approximately 19.5% of students, while independent schools serve approximately 15% (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2019b). Catholic Education is run by the Roman Catholic Church, but the National Catholic Education Commission "maintains effective liaison with the Commonwealth Government and other key national education bodies" (NCEC, 2018b). They explain their connection to government schools on their website: "Like all Australian schools, Catholic schools are accountable to governments and their local communities for meeting all the teaching and learning requirements of the state. They also have distinctive goals and features which derive from a core of philosophical and theological truths which are central to their character and mission" (NCEC, 2018a).

multilingual contexts" (2014). They continued running these courses until the publishing department of South Australia's education department closed down (B. Dare, personal communication, May 20, 2020). Dare and Polias then purchased the rights to those materials for Lexis Education and have continued to deliver all their courses nationally and internationally.

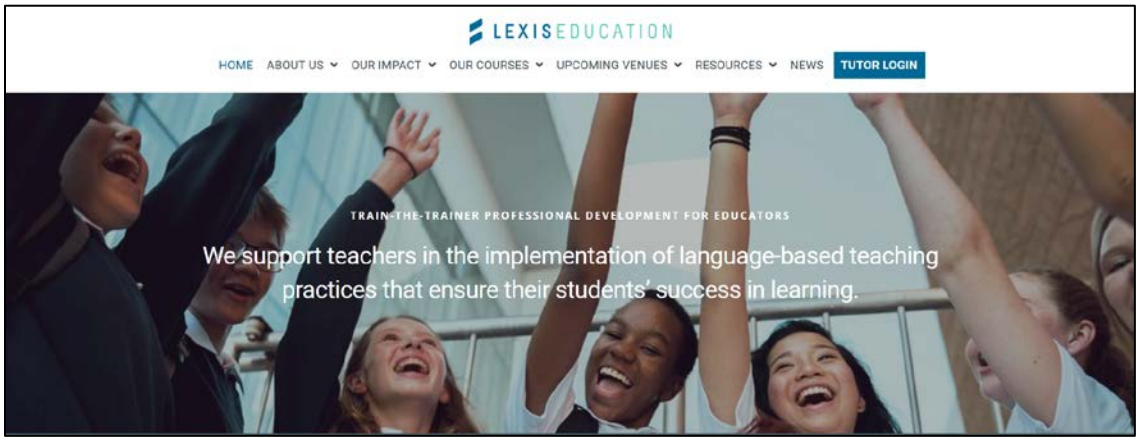

Figure 3.15: Screenshot of the Lexis Education homepage (www.lexised.com) (Lexis Education, 2020e)

According to their website (www.lexised.com, Figure 3.15), Lexis Education (2020c) has provided training for "over 4,000 tutors worldwide and hundreds of schools," including "over 1,300 tutors" in Australia. It has focused on using functional grammar in teaching for both mother-tongue English speakers and ESL students. Lexis Education offers four main courses (Figure 3.16).

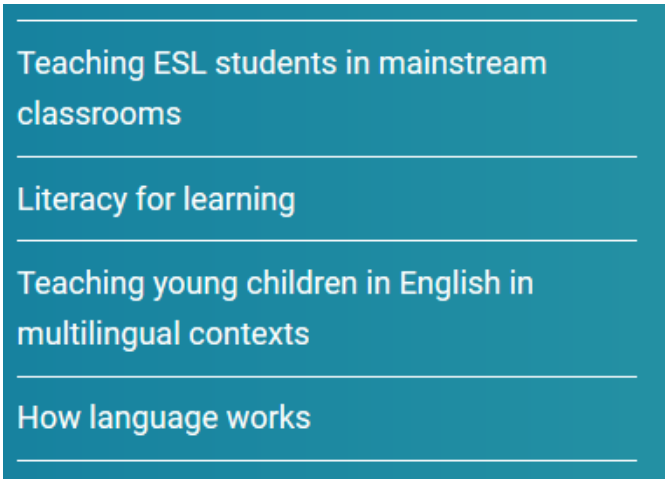

Figure 3.16: Four main course titles from Lexis Education (Lexis Education, 2020e)

The Lexis program consists of a tutor training component and a teacher course component. The tutor training (which covers the same content as the teacher course) is designed to develop the skills and understandings for tutor trainers to then deliver the teacher course as needed in their own school context. This train-the-trainer model works to "build up a critical mass that could carry the work forward and build in sustainability in the long term" (Dare & Polias, forthcoming, p. 3).

Each course contains modules, between-module readings, and between-module exercises. The train-the-tutor courses are typically taught in an intensive format in a four- or five-day session. The tutor trainers then typically deliver the training in schools in a spaced-out format with a module every week or fortnight. Figures 3.17 and 3.18 provide examples of module topics offered in some of the courses[22].

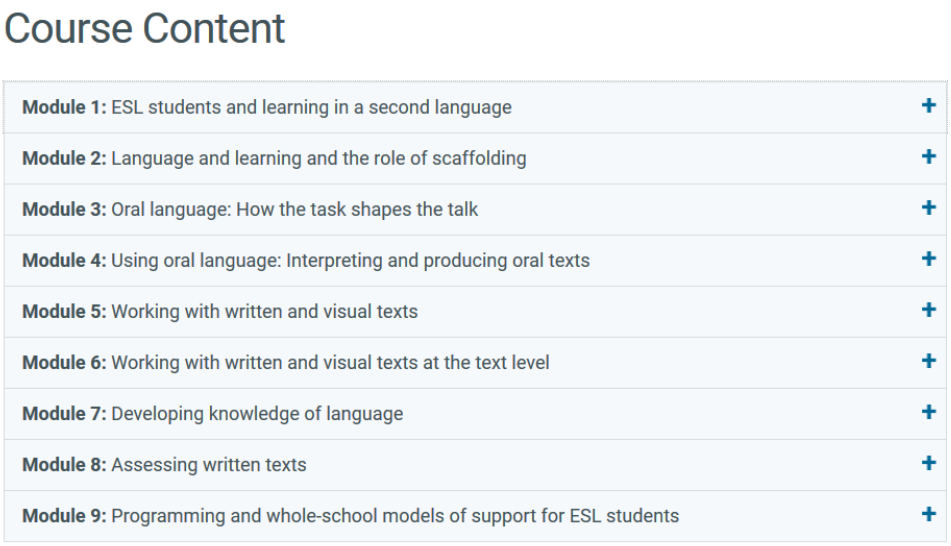

Figure 3.17: Course modules for the Teaching ESL Students in Mainstream Classrooms (TESMC) course (Lexis Education, 2020d)

[22] At the time of writing, the Lexis Education materials were under revision and new versions were being planned.

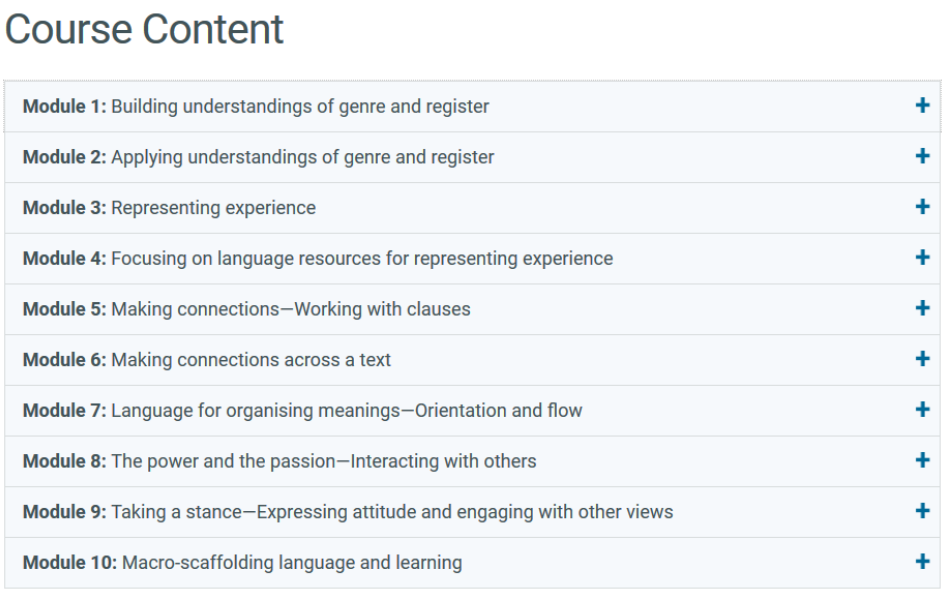

Figure 3.18: Course modules for the How Language Works course (Lexis Education, 2020a)

The Lexis Education materials include participant (teacher) manuals with activities and resources which all participants have and tutor manuals only the tutor has. The tutor manual includes instructions for the tutor for almost every slide in the resources, as well as scripted segments to guide instruction. Figure 3.19 shows samples from the TESMC course available on the Lexis Education website of the teacher participant manual and the corresponding pages of the tutor manual.

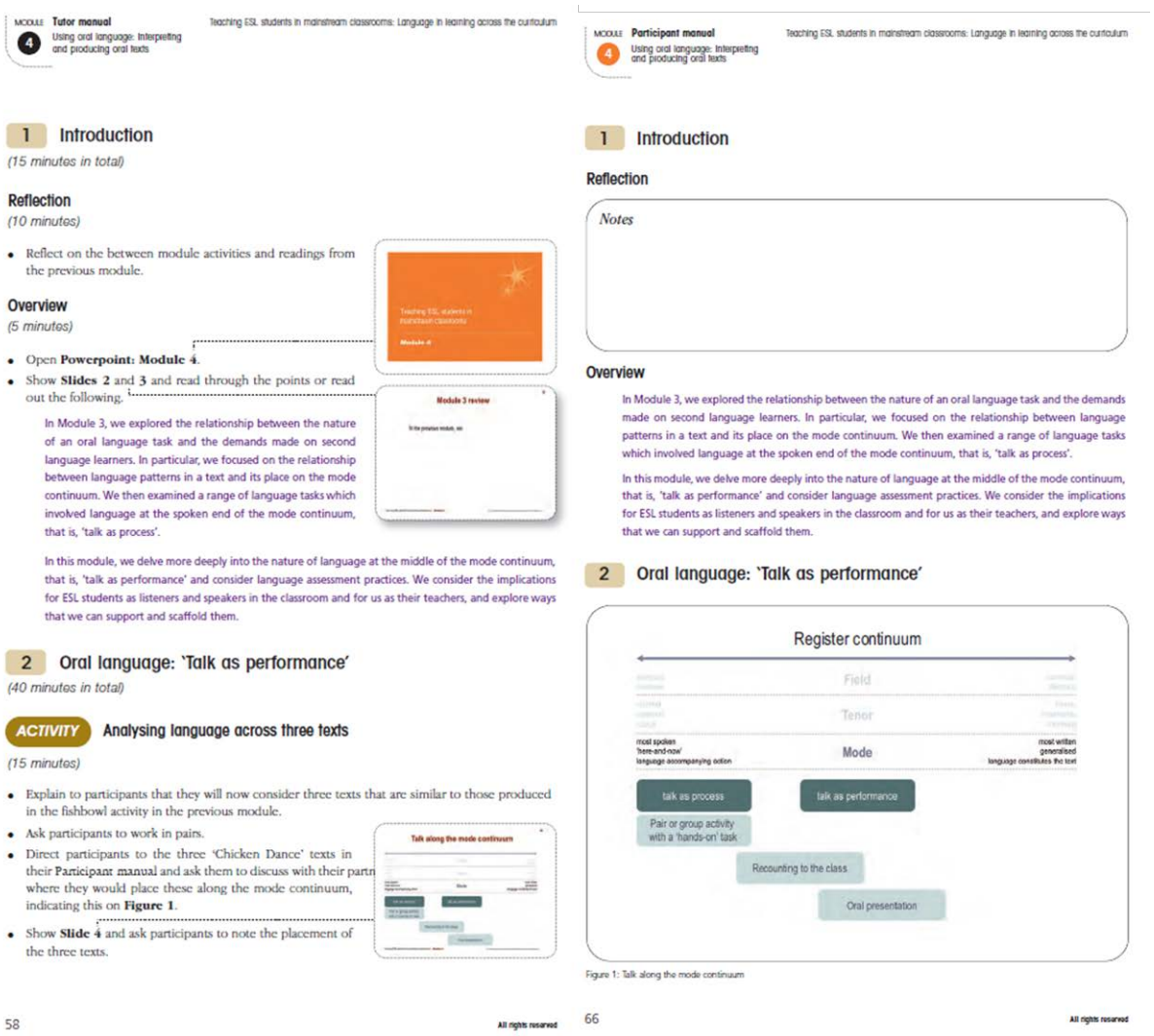

Figure 3.19: Website samples of the Tutor manual (left) and Participant manual(right) for the TESMC course (Lexis Education, 2020b)

With over 1,300 tutors in the Australian states and territories, including between 300 and 500 in each of the states of South Australia, Victoria, and Queensland, a community of educators has formed through the Lexis Education professional development who share a theory of language and use the curriculum in their schools to implement that theory in pedagogy. They are curricularizing LTL in this context through the implementation part of the process, putting that curriculum in practice in schools through their work across various levels of the school system.

Framing

As briefly discussed earlier, the community of educators working with the Lexis program in schools form what Freeman (2016) calls a community of activity. A community of activity, according to Freeman (2016), "means more than physical activity" and includes "sharing purposes, ways of working, and tools and resources" (pp. 240-241)[23]. As such, the educators working with the same materials in similar school settings fulfill Freeman's definition for a community of activity: their actions are "visible" and "recognizable as meaningful" and "sensible" to other members of the community of activity (p. 241). Because all the educators attended the same tutor training, they were introduced to common ways of teaching the program.

At the same time that communities of activity involve people "doing certain things," they are connected by "coming to think in certain ways about what they do" (Freeman, 2016, p. 240, underlining in original, italics removed). This connection creates a community of explanation related to the community of activity. In the community of explanation, members share understandings about the work they do. As summarized by Freeman, "a community of action does recognizable activities and a community of explanation captures reasoning about those activities that can make them meaningful and perhaps sensible" (p. 242) to others within that community. The educators in the study are connected by a shared activity in implementing the Lexis materials in schools, but they are not doing it in the same place and time. Therefore what binds them as a community of explanation across different physical locations creates coherence in their separate activities. In other words, because they do not engage in the activity together, they are only members of the community of activity in their shared meaning-making as members

[23] Freeman (2016, p. 241) argues that a community of activity aligns with Wenger's (1998) framework of communities of practice, as it is often used in the education research literature, but separates the community of practice into "operational" (community of activity) and "semiotic" (community of explanation).

of the community of explanation. The focus in the study is on what creates coherence in their community of explanation.

The central feature of a community of explanation are the "social facts" that create coherence for members (Freeman, 2016), manifested in a common vernacular which is understood to have a particular meaning to the community. As a community forms, its members define explicitly and implicitly "the facts of the matter," or "what is taken as true by a group or community," and "the facts that matter," meaning what they position as "centrally important and definitional for that community" (p. 16). Figure 3.20 shows the two forms of community, connected by the activity and the meaning made of that activity through social facts.

Figure 3.20: Key aspects of Freeman's (2016) design theory

Social facts are not facts in the traditional use of the word; they are not something accepted as a truth by society at large. Rather, social facts are a shared understanding of a term by a particular community. Freeman (2016) uses the example of the acronym "PPP," understood by some communities in teaching to stand for "Presentation-Practice-Production" and encapsulates the shared understanding in those communities of what a teacher does during each phase of a lesson (p. 17). PPP is not a fact understood by the wider public. Instead, it is a social fact for communities of explanation who use the term to mean something particular for their activity.

Social facts are a sociocultural practice and as such change over time with the community. They also act as an indicator of who is a member of the community. As Freeman explains,

> As discourse terms, social facts demarcate those who know and who do not know what they mean. Knowing how to use social facts appropriately defines a person as part of that community… This dynamic of belonging creates an identity as an insider within that community. (p. 232)

The study was intended to explore which social facts create coherence for the community of educators connected by a theory of language and a curriculum. It quickly became apparent during analysis (described in the next section), however, that the answer was in the question. The social facts shared by the community were "functional grammar" as a shorthand term for the theory of language, and various names and acronyms for the curriculum and coursework: "Lexis," "TESMC" for the Teaching ESL Students in Mainstream Classrooms course, and the "How Language Works" course title (Figure 3.8). To reiterate, TESMC, for example, is not a fact as understood in the general sense of the term, but for this community of explanation, it had a shared meaning and shared associations as a social fact which created coherence in their thinking about their work.

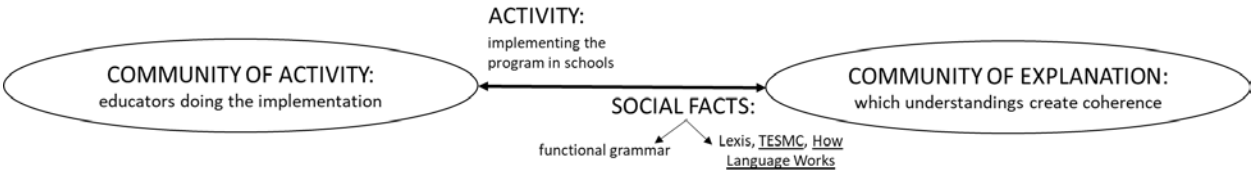

Figure 3.21: Communities of activity and explanation in the study

The question then shifted to focus on how those social facts are understood in the practice of training teachers in schools. As described in the introduction section of this chapter, the process of curricularizing teaching and learning includes planning, selecting, organizing, and presenting substance for teacher learners. With the standardized materials from Lexis Education, much of the process has already been completed. Lexis planned, selected, and organized its

substance around functional grammar and the teaching-context of content area teachers working in primary and secondary schools. The focus of the study is on the implementing part of the curricularizing process, taking place in the school setting. The study asks the following research question: *How do members of the community of explanation implementing functional grammar and the Lexis program in schools, separated by geographical and professional distance, understand the factors which affect that work?* It then discusses which factors directly relate to the social facts of the community of explanation and which factors arise from other shared understandings of the work.

Methods

Participant sampling was conducted through recommendations from Brian Dare. Dare is directly involved in the work done with the Lexis curriculum in schools and state offices and is also a co-owner of Lexis Education. He identified people across a range of positions in the state education systems of Queensland, South Australia, and Victoria whom he saw as highly invested in implementation and who have been successful in bringing it into Australian schools. The participants were therefore proponents of the program, which further connects them as a community of explanation. In other words, they shared a belief about the purpose the activity in which they were engaged.

The study is not an evaluation of the Lexis Education curriculum and the questions asked were not specifically about the materials. Nevertheless, to understand how implementation has been enacted in schools, proponents provide a perspective on how the work has been done, as those who have implemented the program. Studying critics of functional grammar who rejected the course content would not allow the exploration of how the work has happened in schools. Studying proponents facilitates the exploration of what has made implementing functional

grammar training in schools possible. The exploration begins with the understanding that the educators involved support the theory of language and the curriculum. When educators support and believe in a theory of language and professional development materials, what factors allow implementation to move forward in schools?

I conducted nine interviews in the fall of 2018 with twelve different educators in the states of Queensland, South Australia, and Victoria, where functional grammar was an ongoing part of either state-level literacy programs, professional development teachers could attend, or school-wide initiatives where my participants worked. All participants were active in implementing functional grammar trainings in Australian primary/secondary schools at the time of the study, for the most part using Lexis Education's program and materials. Interviews ranged from 14 to 62 minutes, for a total of about five hours of interview data.

As the goal was to speak to people active across levels of the education system, participants included two teacher educators/consultants, two school-based literacy coaches, four teachers trained as tutors and responsible for training in their schools (hereafter: tutor trainers), one deputy principal, and three state-level literacy department leaders. Table 3.1 details participants' names (all pseudonyms), professional roles, and approximate years working with functional grammar[24], if available. The teachers worked in schools ranging from newcomer ESL programs to Catholic education schools with few to no ESL students. All the schools in which teachers worked were in large cities, often in surrounding districts or neighborhoods.

[24] Split years indicate that the educator discussed when they first were introduced to functional grammar and then indicated another date when they became involved in training teachers to work with it.

Educator (pseudonyms)	Professional role	Approximate years working with functional grammar
Brooke	Teacher	~3
Jane	School Literacy Coordinator	~17/~8
Jodie	Teacher/Teacher Educator	~20
Lauren	State Literacy Coordinator^	~2
Melanie	Teacher	~3
Melissa	Deputy Principal*	~10
Myra	Teacher	~2
Nicole	(School) Literacy Coordinator*	~7/~2
Noah	Teacher*	~2
Rebecca	Teacher Educator	~30
Sarah	State Literacy Coordinator	n/a (>2)
Stephanie	State Literacy Coordinator^	~3

*Table 3.4: Educators who participated in the study, their professional roles, and their experience with functional grammar (*same school;^same department)*

The focus of the interview questions was on implementation and had five broad categories: how they were involved in work, what they saw as supporting that work, what they saw as challenges, what they saw as outcomes, and anything else they thought was important. (Appendix 3A contains the open-ended interview protocol). The participants were aware of certain facts about me which likely affected their responses. As an American and an educational researcher, I was an outsider in understanding the work in Australia. At the same time, as a former schoolteacher and advocate for functional grammar in teaching, participants knew I had some level of understanding with the work they did and the realities of the school setting. Therefore while some topics were explained to me as an outsider (for example, the Australian Curriculum), others were treated as a shared understanding (for example, the pressure of time on teachers).

Analysis

Work done in education at every level of the school system is complex in its connection to the broader national environment, the academic field, and individual beliefs (i.e. the domains that affect curricularizing in teacher education). By exploring one intervention (the implementation of functional grammar teacher training in schools), the study focuses on the complexity of work specific to that intervention. It does so by investigating the "trail of thematic threads, meaningful events, and powerful factors" (Dyson & Genishi, 2005, p. 111) presented by the participants. These threads, events, and factors are part of the work of the community of activity explaining how they understand the implementation part of the curricularizing process. The expectation is not of "overly neat stories" (p. 111), but rather complex factors that influence the community of educators working with the social facts in the case study.

The first round of coding was open thematic coding for factors each participant individually named as supports or challenges, as well as factors that arose in describing their work historically or what they perceived as outcomes. Figure 3.22 provides an example from a participant, Rebecca, after she was asked what has supported the work.

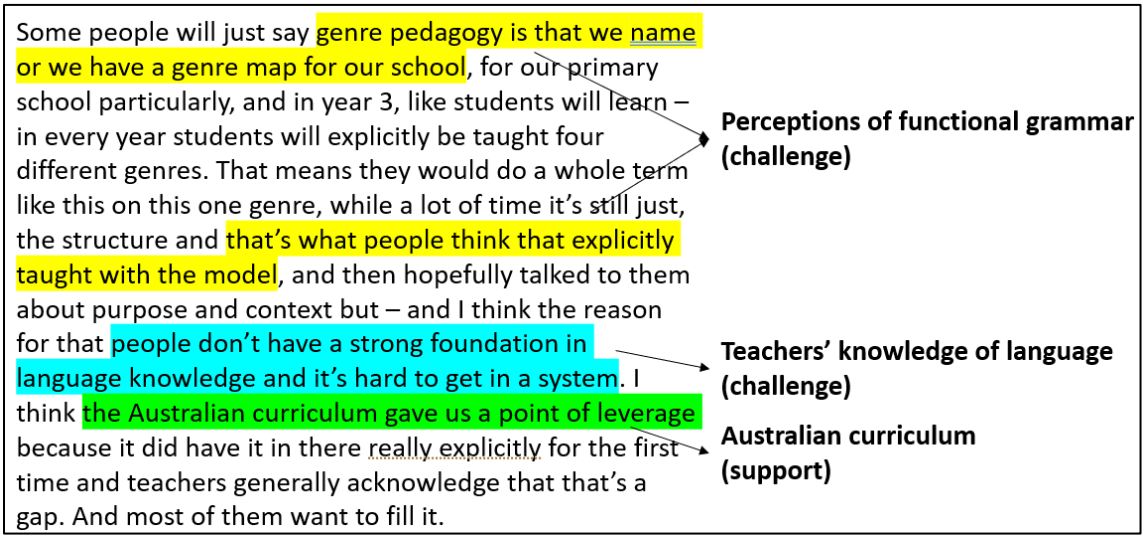

Figure 3.22: Interview excerpt coded for factors, Rebecca (10/4/2018)

The factors in the example in Figure 3.22 are not all supportive factors, such as teachers not having a strong foundation in language or perceptions of functional grammar which do not align with Rebecca's understanding.

The second round of analysis explored which terms were shared across the interviews as social facts. In other words, which terms were presented as a shared understanding. This round of analysis identified the social facts of functional grammar and Lexis Education and its courses. Figure 3.23 is an example of a participant, Jane, talking about factors related to functional grammar when asked about challenges to implementing the training.

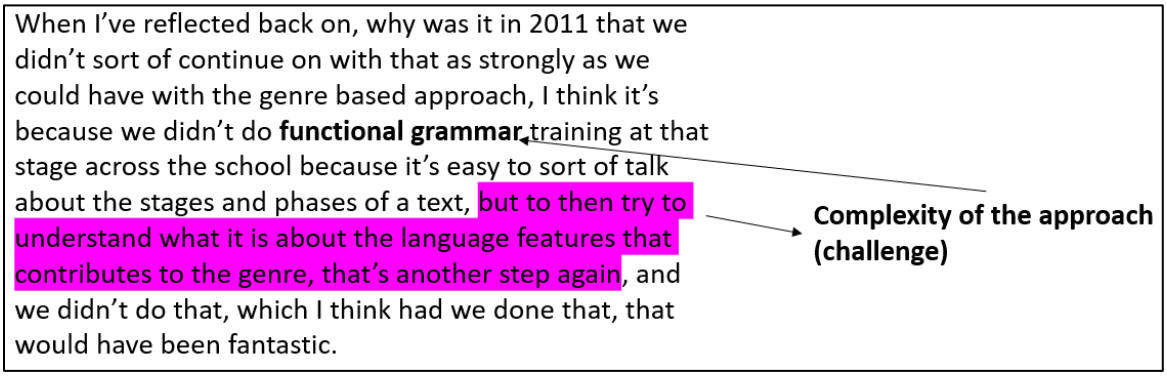

Figure 3.23: Interview excerpt showing connection of a factor and a social fact, Jane (10/9/2018)

Factors were then categorized according to whether they were understood as directly related to these social facts, such as complexity and functional grammar in the example above. However, some common factors were presented by participants which were related to a third category, factors in the school setting. Table 3.5 displays all seven instances where participants discussed teachers' willingness or reluctance to do the training.

Participants (Interview date)	Quote coded as Teacher Reluctance
Melissa (9/24/2018)	"the challenge is people… **not really engaging** with it… You'd say things and they would just like be **these negative voices**."
Jodie (9/24/2018)	"People were saying 'oh **these teachers are just gonna say** to me I haven't got time to do this'"
Sarah (10/3/2018)	"The biggest challenge is **teaching philosophy** and **people who think it's too hard**."
Lauren (10/10/2018)	"saying… '**we wouldn't have any kids that would be able to do the discussion**'"
Brooke (10/13/2018)	"**changing people** who had existing pedagogical approaches that they've used for **many, many, many years**"
Myra (10/15/2018)	"Some teachers… they **resist** it because they've been working for so long and… they're great teachers"
Melanie (10/30/2018)	"There will be people who are **reluctant**… **old-school**… a little bit **resistant**, or resistant is maybe the wrong word, it's more…they're **unsure**"

Table 3.5: Interview excerpts coded as "teacher reluctance"

As can be seen in the table, participants were not using the same term to describe teacher reluctance, but it was a shared understanding of a factor affecting implementation. It is possible that some terms are part of the "local language" of the school or workplace community (Freeman 1993). Freeman (1993) defines local language as "the vehicle through which teachers explain what goes on in their teaching on a daily basis" including the ideas "they bring to teaching as well as those in which they are socialized on the job" (p. 489). For example, talking about school "leadership" versus school "admin" may be the term used in that particular school to talk about principals, deputy principals, and other school leaders. Therefore the third category contains factors related to the activity in the school setting and not directly related to the theory of language or the Lexis materials, but coded as a common factor in the school context even when described in different terms.

The third round of analysis identified which of the categorized factors were presented as a support, a challenge, or whether the effect was positive or negative depending on the school or location where the educator worked. The idea is not to explore differences between literacy coordinators, teachers, or teacher educators, but rather to explore factors which have allowed

functional grammar teacher training to work across states and schools. Specifics across professional roles or location are only discussed if the factor is common (e.g. funding), but one participant provides an example of that factor specific to their setting (e.g. where the funding comes from in that state). The common factor in the example is funding, shared across multiple participants in multiple states as important to the work.

If only one person discussed a particular factor, it was not included in the findings as it was not representative of how the work has been done more broadly. The work of the individuals in different professional roles or school settings would offer an interesting avenue to explore the individual domain of the curricularizing framework. However, because the focus was on shared factors which affect implementation, I only indicate their professional positions in the findings when it serves to contextualize their work as in schools, state offices, or teacher training settings, and not to make any claims about differences between the professional roles of the educators.

Findings: Factors of Implementation

Implementing Functional Grammar

Participants were forthcoming about which aspects of training other teachers to work with functional grammar they perceived as challenges and which as supports (Table 3.6, including frequency of each factor out of nine interviews).

Factors Related to the Social Fact of Functional Grammar	
Challenge	*Support*
Complexity of approach (6)	Explicitness of approach (9)
Teacher knowledge of language (7)	

Table 3.6: Factors related to the social fact of functional grammar (frequency out of 9)

They addressed as challenges the complexity of the approach (in 6 out of 9 interviews[25]) and discussed the lack of language training teachers often receive before entering the classroom (in 7 interviews). At the same time, the participants shared a belief in the advantages of functional grammar in the classroom and that the approach provided opportunities for all students to access the language demands of schooling (all 9 interviews). The explicitness of the attention to language was often used to argue for doing the work despite the complexity of learning the approach.

Language Complexity: "It's a big ask." (Rebecca, Interview, 10/4/2018)

Participants in the study often addressed the complexity of functional grammar. No one described it as a simple approach. Halliday himself wrote that "it does no service to anyone in the long run if we pretend semiosis – the making and understanding of meaning – is a simpler matter than it really is" (2014, p. 5). Instead, they emphasized that it takes dedication to learning it, time to build up resources, and returning to it often. As Rebecca stated,

> Teachers often feel like they get to the end of [training] and go, 'Ok, now I feel like I need to do it again. I kind of understood some of the pieces along the way that I'm starting to see how it all fits together'… but teachers generally don't have the time or stamina to keep going back into it. (Interview 10/4/2018)

Similarly, participants stated that they often heard from teachers that functional grammar is too difficult for some students. At the same time, participants challenged the notion that functional grammar was too complex for students. For example, Jodie reported, "Teachers go, 'Well they can't get it.' If we explicitly teach them the language conventions, well maybe they will. Let's

[25] I report on interview numbers out of 9 interviews instead of individuals out of 12 participants with the assumption that if a colleague had already discussed something in an interview, the other individuals may or may not feel the need to reiterate that point.

try" (Interview, 9/24/2018). Jodie therefore challenges the idea of complexity even as she acknowledges that teachers' perceptions of it affect her work.

Simultaneously, the complexity of functional grammar as a full approach was sometimes not clear to teachers and they saw it as another "literacy strategy like vocabulary" (Lauren, Interview, 9/24/2018). As Lauren articulated, "People sometimes are more versed in 'How do I pick up something that's three steps to this?' as opposed to 'How do I understand this whole field that I didn't actually know existed before last week?'" (Interview, 9/24/2018). As a result, participants in the study stated that the teachers they trained sometimes treated language as yet another topic to teach in an already packed curriculum. Lauren continued, for example,

> It's such an analytical and inquiry-based way of working that I wouldn't have necessarily predicted that teachers would take it on as like another piece of content that they would put on a PowerPoint along with like some [science] facts about a cell. (Interview, 9/24/2018)

The Lexis training is designed to help teachers unpack the complexity of language for learners and this treatment of language, as facts to be learned, was at odds with how the participants who shared a functional theory of language perceived their work and the approach. As Lauren stated above, they viewed it as "such an analytical and inquiry-based way of working," but they were confronted with the reality that training teachers to do this complex work was hard. The complexity of the approach was presented as even more challenging because teachers often enter the profession with little to no explicit knowledge about language.

Teacher Knowledge of Language: "How are you going to teach language if you don't know about grammar?" (Jane, Interview, 10/9/2018)

Participants frequently mentioned that teachers leave preservice teacher preparation without training in language. Myra stated,

> It takes a lot from traditional grammar as well, you've still got to know your verbs and adverbs and blah blah blah. A lot of new teachers haven't done that sort of grammar, not just new, but quite a few. (10/15/2018)

One aspect of this issue is the generations of students who attended school during the era of whole language and process approaches to literacy. Jodie used herself as an example: "I'd come through the whole language model, I couldn't have told you the difference between a clause and a phrase and a sentence" (Interview, 9/24/2018).

Participants stated that some universities have coursework in functional grammar, but these courses were contingent on a faculty member who is working in the field. Love, Macken-Horarik, and Horarik (2015) surveyed English teachers about their views on "linguistic subject knowledge" and "linguistic pedagogic subject knowledge" (p. 171). They found that teachers need more language support than they are currently receiving. Jones and Chen (2012) agree, arguing that "teachers' lack of competence with regard to knowledge about language was exacerbated by few opportunities to develop linguistic knowledge" (p. 155).

Participants argued that more preservice attention to language was needed. No educators in the study saw the current amount of language training for teachers as sufficient for supporting their work with functional grammar. At the same time, they shared the understanding that functional grammar offered an explicit approach to teaching language, which provides teachers and students tremendous tools for literacy once it is understood.

Explicit Theory of Language: "It just seemed like such a great fit for the explicit instruction of language." (Lauren, 10/10/2018)

Participants discussed the explicit nature of functional grammar itself as a key aspect of implementation. The advantage of an explicit approach to language for both teachers and students was stated in every interview and often numerous times. Participants discussed learning clear ways to unpack and then teach language. For example, Melanie shared,

> We would go through everything from how to unpack a text, how to look at kids' textbooks, how to teach the nominalizations, really breaking down the nuts and bolts of language, and how we need to be really explicit with kids about that so they can therefore replicate it. (10/30/2018)

Once teachers felt comfortable working with language, they could identify more efficiently where students struggled with writing and give them specific feedback. Lauren expressed,

> I don't think any teacher wants to write on someone's work 'edit it again' (laughs). They don't want to say that, but they don't know what else to say and I think that the more they can say, 'Oh, you can revise some of these sentences and change the structures,' suddenly… the kid's happy cause they're like 'I can do that,' and the teacher's happy because it would actually make a difference. (10/10/2018)

Teachers could more easily identify areas to improve in students' writing and then more efficiently teach language features associated with that improvement.

Having an approach that scaffolds the explicit teaching of functional grammar created coherence for participants across professional roles in the education system. Confronted with the task of teaching a complex approach to teachers with little to no training in language, participants united around their theory of language in explaining why they implemented it in schools. As educators who viewed functional grammar as the most compelling for and connected to the work

of building academic language and literacy, they shared the understandings that a functional approach came with challenges, but the explicitness of the approach made it worth it.

The Ways Lexis Supports Implementation

Social facts result from making meaning of common terms, as well as making meaning of shared ways of operating. The factors which affected implementation that participants connected to the Lexis program mostly involved the training models supported by the materials. The curriculum materials provided a highly scaffolded means to begin implementation. Educators trained as tutors relied on the materials for the professional development content, the between-modules activities and readings, and creating a shared language around which to discuss functional grammar in their schools with teachers.

The ways in which the shared professional development program supported various communities to form in and across schools were presented as vital to the work (Table 3.7).

Factors Related to the Social Facts of Lexis and Courses
Support
Tutor training model (4)
Whole school model (6)
Networks (5)

Table 3.7: Factors related to the social fact of the shared professional development program (frequency out of 9)

Lexis Education has always had the train-the-trainer model (discussed in 4 interviews) and having tutor trainers in schools full time was seen as a support to implementation. In addition, the Lexis Education program advocates for implementing a functional grammar approach in the whole school (6 interviews), across content areas and grade levels. In the schools where that form of implementation happened, educators discussed the benefits of everyone sharing a set of linguistic strategies and a theory of language for approaching literacy. Alongside the communities that form in schools through the work, educators argued that networks between

schools and coordinators were important to sharing understandings of implementation (in 5 interviews).

Tutor trainer model: "We've got that expertise, so we can deliver it to the school." (Melissa, Interview, 9/24/2018)

Dare and Polias (forthcoming) state that they

> from very early days… put faith in the train-the-trainer model to build this capacity within schools and others rather than have it residing with us, or academics or others as 'experts', and to do it in a way that speeds up the process. (p. 7)

Participants in the study recognized the strengths of the tutor trainer model and the structures it provided. Jane suggested, "A lot of people talk about should you go with a pre-packaged program, should you develop your own program, and so on. My thoughts are that you start with the packaged program, you have to start somewhere" (Interview, 10/9/2018). The model provided agency to tutor trainers and a means to achieve consistency for a literacy initiative in their schools.

Tutor trainers were available to schools "on tap" (Jodie, Interview, 9/24/2018) for as long as they were employed. Participants in the study presented the tutor training model as a support for providing a more long-term professional learning initiative. As Brooke explained,

> It's such a big school, we do have a turnover rate, and so in terms of looking at it long-term wise, it was smarter to actually train teachers at our school to be qualified to continue the professional development within our school itself, so whenever we have new teachers coming in, we have qualified staff who can continue their professional learning in this area. (Interview, 10/13/2018)

Colleagues knew the tutor trainers as peers and knew where to find them for continued support. In fact, the continued work of the tutor trainers in the school after the course was presented as key to implementation. The schools implementing the Lexis trainings had all allocated time and resources to coaching opportunities after the professional development. Brooke described the coaching as follows:

> I'm out there training the teachers and then the next phase is going in and mentoring them in the classroom, so it's more, trying to take a broader approach of, instead of just teaching you the course and then off you go, we're trying to maintain more of a one-on-one relationship with the teachers that we're training and more of a coaching approach, where we stay with them. (10/13/2018)

In the coaching model participants discussed, tutor trainers were provided time out of their classrooms in the semester following the end of the course. They used that time to go into classrooms and work with teachers. Together, tutor trainers as an in-school resource and the ability to implement ongoing coaching worked to build a whole-school model.

Whole-school models: "Slowly, slowly, slowly it becomes this is what accepted practice is." (Melissa, Interview, 9/24/2018)

All of the participants in the study who served as the tutor trainers in their schools were part of a whole-school approach. Module 9 of the TESMC course, for example, includes sections on genre mapping across grade levels for a whole school and evaluating ESL provisions within a school to reflect on areas for improvement. Genre mapping displays the principal genres students are expected to produce and which ones are targeted for instruction each year in a school. Creating a genre map for a particular school allows teachers to discuss which associated language features they may focus on each year in their teaching-context.

As the Lexis Education materials support a whole-school approach, it is unsurprising that all the people Brian Dare identified were working toward that goal in their schools. However, the participants' uptake of the whole-school approach as the way to implement functional grammar was shared across locations and presented by educators as crucial to their work. Melissa described the effect of the whole-school approach on teachers in her school as follows:

> People started to go, 'Oh I'm missing out on things here,' and so more people were like, 'Oh when you do that course next I want to be in it,' and… then when we got that critical mass, they were like 'When am I going to be able to do it… I really need to do this now,' and now it's become a thing that it's like an initiation, if you haven't done it… you're kind of not part of the [school] way. (9/24/2018)

The participants were at various stages of implementing the approach in their schools. Melissa, as an educator working with functional grammar training in her school for approximately six years, frequently returned to the idea that the approach was now shared in the whole school in terms of both pedagogy and philosophy. At Melissa's school, where she was a deputy principal, every teacher had already been trained unless they were recently hired, in which case they participated in the course the next semester. Other participants in the study were beginning the process of training the whole school, with the goal of having everyone trained within a few years. The participants all took the approach of training volunteers first, with the understanding that it would eventually be required for all teachers.

The building of a shared understanding in the school about how to deconstruct and teach language created common expectations for teachers in the schools. At the same time, the Lexis materials provided a common connection for educators working in different schools and professional roles and facilitated a means to network.

Networks: "You can't implement programs like this by yourself, you have to do it with groups." (Jane, 10/9/2018)

Participants argued for the importance of networks, such as work between schools in the same city. Both Myra and Brooke, as teachers in Victoria, discussed local schools which they knew had a similar model and with which their principals networked as a resource. For example, Myra stated, "[Another local school] started I think years before we did, and they have got it all going, it's quite established, so our leadership is meeting with their leadership and they have got this whole curriculum mapping going on" (Interview, 10/15/2018).

Networks were also positioned as important between the tutor trainers and trainers in other schools. Jane described her experience with networks:

> I then met some other literacy coordinators and we three have continued to meet, so that's been really good. Having colleagues who have the same level of knowledge as me means that we can work together. We work together on various projects and we go around and present at things and so on, and so together we share our resources so that we can use them at the school level as well. (10/9/2018)

Stephanie, as a state-level literacy coordinator, saw the building of networks and cohorts working with functional grammar as an important part of her job. She described professional learning communities that she had helped orchestrate across schools. As an outcome of her work, she stated,

> [Having] them working in a cluster with other schools as well has been for me I think one of the most rewarding outcomes…We've created a context and environment where people can genuinely learn about something that they've got varying degrees of confidence and competency in. (Interview, 10/10/2018)

Networks provided continued support across schools through literacy coordinators, school leadership sharing their approaches with one another, and the accessibility of experts in the field.

As discussed in the previous section, functional grammar as a theory of language provided a common understanding of what knowledge about language was needed to best help students access the curriculum, while acknowledging the challenges of explicit teaching about language. At the same time, using the Lexis materials for implementation created common views of how best to support teachers in schools learning to teach with functional grammar. Tutor trainers in schools with pre-designed materials, a whole-school approach, and networks were all part of the shared understanding of how the Lexis program provided means to support implementation, with the creation and maintenance of communities one vital aspect of that work.

Implementation of Lexis Training in the School Context

Although participants presented social facts related specifically to implementing functional grammar and the Lexis courses, some shared understandings about their work coalesced around broader factors of education and school settings. These school factors are not specific to only the educators implementing the Lexis training in schools; they are a part of the daily life of the school teaching-context. However, these factors can either create challenges or enable implementation for the community of educators implementing the training in that setting depending on the school. In other words, some aspects of working in schools are factors shared by teachers generally, but they are perceived differently when in interaction with implementing functional grammar and Lexis trainings: the demands on teachers' time, constraints of funding, school leadership, working with colleagues, and adhering to a set curriculum (Table 3.8).

Factors Related to the School Setting		
Challenge	*Support*	*Dependent on School*
Teacher reluctance (7)	National curriculum including functional grammar (6)	Time and funding (7)
		Leadership (8)

Table 3.8: Factors related to schools as the teaching-context for implementation (frequency out of 9)

Participants often referred to these aspects using different terminology. For example, school leadership was discussed with terms such as “principal,” “deputies,” “deputy principals,” “advocates,” “leaders,” “coordinators,” or “admin.” The different terminology, however, does not lessen the shared understanding of educators regarding school leadership as a part of the everyday work of teachers in schools (discussed in 8 out of 9 interviews). Some factors, such as time and funding (7) and the role of leadership, were presented as either a support or a challenge depending on the school, while the reluctance of colleagues (7) was always presented as a challenge. The aspects of functional grammar in the Australian national curriculum were mostly presented as a support (6 interviews), but the balance curriculum writers struck between functional and traditional grammar was presented as potentially a problem for teachers with no functional grammar training.

Time and Funding: “It’s a hard sell in terms of time.” (Noah, Interview, 9/24/2018)

Participants agreed that in order to successfully implement functional grammar in their schools, time and funding were crucial interrelated factors. Melanie acknowledged, “It’s a lot of time that [the principal is] offering us… I guess we’re pretty lucky financially, but it’s still a big commitment regardless” (Interview, 10/30/2018). Participants saw funding as coming from various avenues. Most of the funds came from state or federal initiatives.

Often the training for the Lexis Education courses came from the ESL or literacy budget within the school. The participants working in Queensland stated that money was allocated to schools and left to the discretion of the schools how it was spent. This money came through the

state-level initiative Investing for Success (I4S). Schools then "enter into an agreement that details how I4S funding will be used to improve student outcomes" and "report each year on the success of their school improvement initiatives" (Queensland Government, 2019). Yet others discussed discretionary spending as a challenge as well:

> Schools get funding and they work it out. So as we predicted would happen is that schools go 'Oh, we've got 0.6 ESL funding and the PE teacher needs another .2.' and… it just gets viewed that, you know, you can speak English, so of course you can teach English. (Rebecca, Interview, 10/4/2018)

Even when funding was available, participants always perceived time as a factor. They stated that teachers were grappling with a "packed curriculum," teachers not wanting to miss five days of instruction with their classes, and the time it took after the training itself for teachers to become comfortable with the approach. They also faced the challenge of arguing for the time needed to do the professional development in their schools.

On the other hand, the schools where teachers were given time for the Lexis Education course saw the time commitment as necessary. Melissa argued,

> It wouldn't have worked otherwise… we found that when you're a teacher trying to get out for a half day is really hard, like you're exhausted from teaching in the morning… or you're doing… really intellectual work in the morning and then you've got to get your brain into teaching mode again afternoon, so we went with whole days and that definitely works best. (Interview, 9/24/2018)

Other educators echoed the importance of having professional development during the school day and not asking teachers to do the course during after-school hours, citing similar issues of exhaustion and focus.

The time between modules and the between-module activities and readings were also seen as supporting the work. As Myra described,

> It's a very intensive course, it's humanly impossible to take in all that information in five days so now when we're doing it for the rest of the staff, it is a module every two weeks, which gives them enough time to go do the reading and trial it in class and you know, just absorb it before they get ready for the next one. (Interview, 10/15/2018)

The opportunities for teachers to actively implement and reflect on functional grammar in their classrooms were perceived as a support to implementation. Similarly, the length of the training was presented as a strength. Participants contrasted it with a one-day or one-off professional development opportunity that did not have continued support after or between events. For example, Jodie explained that "the last state-run major literacy PD… gave us about a half day on systemic functional linguistics, functional grammar. People were frustrated and confused because a half day doesn't cut it" (Interview, 9/24/2018).

While the participants made no claims about how teaching with functional grammar transferred after the course, they presented the time allotted during the school day and the opportunities to do between-module activities in classrooms as vital to implementation.

School Leadership: "If you don't have key people supporting it in the school, it won't ever happen." (Nicole, Interview, 9/24/2018)

Participants mentioned a strong advocate in the school setting as a key factor in implementing the Lexis training. At the school level, the amount of support from the leadership was presented as either crucial to the work or a challenge to overcome in 8 of the 9 interviews. In most schools where the whole-school approach had been or was being employed, educators

named the principal or deputy principals as one of the main supports to implementing the professional development. For example, when asked what had supported the work, Brooke said,

> Mainly our assistant principal, she's the one that's been very passionate about this, and really trying to push this whole-school approach forwards, so she was the one that really […] got invested in it with the understanding that this is going to be a really good new change for our school. (Interview, 10/13/2018)

However, unsupportive administrators were presented as a challenge to implementation. For example, Jodie stated, "My principal is so unsupportive, I never knew whether she might pull the rug out from under me" (Interview, 9/24/2018). Principal and deputy principal opposition was presented as connected to misunderstandings about the need for such in-depth training or such an investment of time. Melissa, now a deputy principal herself, listed examples of the opposition she had heard when she was a department chair:

> Some of those deputies were massive blockers […] So there was […] 'Why do you need to have it both semesters, why do you have to have it at all, why do you have to have full days, why can't you squeeze it and push it into… half days, why does it have to be five days, why can't it be four, why can't you do it for five consecutive days all in the last week?' (Interview, 9/24/2018)

Principal support was also often perceived as tied to data and NAPLAN in particular. The attention to data was presented as a support when other schools were showing success with the functional grammar approach, but also as a challenge, when so many other initiatives were promising to improve NAPLAN scores. Jodie claimed that "principals are so data-driven that all they need to see is something working and they'll invest in it" (Interview, 9/24/2018). She presented that statement as a positive for a teacher whose school showed NAPLAN improvement

after implementing a functional grammar approach school-wide. However, she proceeded to describe principals as "very knee-jerk." Stephanie, as a state-level literacy coordinator, seconded this, arguing that for principals and teachers,

> It's around getting them to unlearn a dependence on some sort of quick fix programs and things like that. I think that's a barrier that I would have anticipated to a degree, but not to the degree that I see it playing out. (Interview, 10/10/2018)

For contexts where principal support was a challenge, there was often another individual in the school who worked as a strong advocate, fighting for implementation. Melissa, the advocate in her school as identified later in the conversation by Nicole, described how she had had to argue with deputy principals repeatedly:

> There was all of this push back so it's just relentlessly having to go - having to really have a good understanding of why it's important to do it the way that we do it and be able to have those robust conversations over and over and over again and really getting in the ear of the principal. (Interview, 9/24/2018)

Melanie described the literacy coordinator as the advocate in her school, mentioning the tremendous networking she had done with literacy experts working with functional grammar. The support of a strong advocate of the social facts pertaining to functional grammar and Lexis in the school was seen as crucial to implementing the work, especially in instances where the principal was not as supportive.

Teacher Reluctance: "'But I'm already doing it the traditional grammar way, why should I bring this in?'" (Myra, Interview, 10/15/2018)

Participants never brought up teacher reluctance[26] when describing their work with functional grammar generally. However, when asked about challenges, teacher reluctance was often the first factor they discussed. They described teachers as "reluctant," "unsure," or currently lacking the "capacity" to start using functional grammar. Educators acknowledged that these teachers were sometimes already "great teachers" and might be reluctant to use a new approach because they felt what they were doing was successful. Participants anticipated having to ask teachers to change their practice, which they often did through suggesting they "give it a go" or by asking what the harm in trying something new could be:

> Initially it's the predispositions and beliefs of teachers going into it who have their own… method of teaching grammar in a way, teaching language, and so…trying to convince them to give it a try at least, see how it goes, there really is no harm in trying… I think is one of the challenges as well. (Brooke, Interview, 10/13/2018)

Teacher reluctance was a common understanding even among those educators who had only begun to bring the professional development to their school. Brooke and Melanie, for example, had recently begun implementing training with teachers in their schools, but it was the first challenge they anticipated. As Melanie explained,

> Once we sort of exhaust the volunteers… we have to force people and management has decided that everyone will be trained within three years, so there will be people who are reluctant, there are a lot of old-school English teachers I have encountered who are a little bit resistant, or resistant is maybe the wrong word, it's more just that they're unsure. (Interview, 10/30/2018)

[26] Research has sometimes referred to this reluctance as "resistance", but that term has been challenged by other researchers (e.g. Knight, 2009). Participants described the challenge of teacher willingness to participate using a variety of terms and I felt "reluctance" best balanced the traditional notion of "resistance" with the generous ways participants described this challenge.

Working with other teachers is naturally part of any school-wide initiative. Here, the responsibility of getting everyone to accept a new pedagogy fell to the tutor trainers, who anticipated reluctance from colleagues even before beginning to train non-volunteers. Melissa, whose school had implemented functional grammar for approximately seven years, also discussed reluctant teachers when asked about challenges, but mentioned that she had only encountered a few through the years. Instead, she pointed to the initial volunteers and later converts as creating a critical mass that meant even with the occasional reluctant teacher, functional grammar remained a part of teaching in their school.

National Curriculum: "It's not system-wide overt, it's probably system-wide light." (Lauren, Interview, 10/10/2018)

As part of the everyday life of teaching, a curriculum plays an important role. With a shared theory of functional grammar and a shared training program from Lexis, participants were better situated to argue for implementing functional grammar teacher training in schools because the national curriculum offered an opening to advocate for it. As a factor certainly affecting the everyday life of teachers in schools, participants frequently identified the Australian national curriculum (ACARA, 2015) as one of the biggest supports to implementing functional grammar in teacher professional development. The English strand of the curriculum "indicates a range of genres or text types that would be relevant and appropriate for learners to engage with at each stage of schooling" (Derewianka, 2012, p. 131). Participants stated that the curriculum provided a point of "leverage" to advocate for the program in schools. Sarah described that the curriculum supported

> not just seeing [functional grammar] as an English as an Additional Language approach, it's part of the mainstream English curriculum and… it's written into the literacy learning

> progressions and have a literacy resources that come alongside the curriculum, so that gives us a lot of leverage for sure. (Interview, 10/3/2018)

At the same time, educators stated functional grammar was not "amplified" in the curriculum. The coexistence of functional and traditional grammar was intentional by curriculum writers. Derewianka, as one of the developers of the national curriculum and a proponent of including functional grammar in the standards, states in an article about writing the curriculum (2012), "a key concern during the development of the curriculum was to ensure that teachers would be able to recognise familiar terminology in the Content Descriptions" (p. 142). Yet the balance of traditional and functional grammar in the curriculum also created challenges:

> Inside the curriculum there is very much a functional approach to language, but it's also supported with a more traditional approach as well… but that also sometimes makes [functional grammar] a little big latent, so if you're trying to explore it yourself… you can end up in the wrong resources and the wrong kind of direction. (Lauren, Interview, 10/10/2018)

To reiterate, the curriculum, school leaders, time, and funding are everyday factors related to teaching in schools. The interaction of these factors and the social facts of functional grammar and Lexis training created tensions as tutor trainers worked to shift their explanations and understandings into the school setting. The social facts pertaining to functional grammar and Lexis meant one thing when they were in the community of activity learning to become tutor trainers; the same social facts required adjusting when they were put into practice in a new community of activity, such as teachers teaching in schools.

Discussion

The community of educators engaged in the activity of implementing the Lexis functional grammar teacher program in schools shared common understandings of factors affecting their work. They coalesced around understandings related to their theory of language, such as its complexity but also its affordances in explicitness, and related to the training program, such as the whole-school and tutor-training model. Yet, regardless of their professional role, they were met with common tensions while enacting their part of the curricularizing process, implementing the trainings in schools. Freeman (2016) argues that "in the process of aligning explanations, participants try to address and resolve tensions between the specifics of the activity and the community to whom it needs to be explained" (p. 247). The educators first encountered the social facts of functional grammar and Lexis when they were trained as tutors and were members of that community of activity. As they move to the community of activity of implementing the training in teachers for schools, the social facts are renegotiated in the new community. Because social facts are not facts in the traditional use of the term, but rather developed through participation in a community, they can, and often do, change between communities.

Participants acknowledged that learning to teach with functional grammar was difficult and complex work, and argued for it nevertheless. They positioned functional grammar as making academic demands of literacy accessible to students and particularly those students who come to school without privileged literacy skills. Participants in the study justified their belief in functional grammar by positioning it as a means to level an unequal education system by supporting all students and as a more preferable solution than a focus on traditional grammar or an unfocused whole-language approach. However, they were met with tensions in the practical setting of schools, where they were confronted with teachers' gaps in prerequisite knowledge

about language or reluctance to change their approach to language. Researchers have found teacher reluctance to new initiatives often arises for similar reasons, such as concerns about an approach or the belief that their established instructional methods are effective for students (Jacobs, Boardman, Potvin, and Wang, 2018).

The Lexis materials attempted to alleviate some of the tensions anticipated in moving the training into the school setting. For example, the train-the-tutor model echoes both research on effective leadership models, where principals empower teacher leaders to drive initiatives (Leithwood, Harris, & Hopkins, 2020), and research on effective professional development, which advocates for follow-up support after professional development (Sahin & Yildirim, 2015). Research has argued for "establishing regular meeting times for teams of teachers to plan instruction and reflect on their practice" (Youngs & King, 2002, p. 644) and this aligns with the suggested Lexis implementation in schools, providing teachers with one module every fortnight and opportunities to practice and reflect in between. Participants echoed that time was a crucial factor and the schools which allowed training during the school day every few weeks helped reinforce the message that the approach was supported by leadership. Similarly, school leaders who implement an initiative across the whole school convey the message that the initiative is a priority. Jackson (2010) suggests that "principals who want to create a culture of teacher learning would be wise to establish high functioning teams whose focus is on advancing whole school instructional initiatives" (p. 156).

Nonetheless, implementation was not completely streamlined, as the realities of the school setting and working with people created tensions not directly related to the theory of language or the curriculum. School leadership sometimes created challenges, in that the degree of support they offered varied. Time was sometimes allocated freely to the trainers, but tutor

trainers were sometimes required to advocate repeatedly for it. Similarly, funding could either be firm or tenuous depending on the school or even the state.

These school-based factors are everyday realities for teachers working in a school and not unique to implementing initiatives. However, for those tutor trainers implementing functional grammar training, trying to move their theory of language and approach to teaching into that setting means a "process of (re)aligning explanations with activities" (Freeman, 2016, p. 247). The guiding question of the study was, given a shared theory of language and training materials, what factors affected the tutor trainers implementing the program in schools. The answer lies in the factors specific to functional grammar and Lexis, but also a complex interplay of everyday constraints and supports of the school setting.

Concluding Remarks

Language teacher educators have a tremendous number of potential choices to make as they select and prepare the substance of their courses or programs. When curricularizing LTL, they must decide which aspects of teaching and learning generally and which content-specific features to include, as well as how to present this substance for teacher learners. They face dilemmas created by conflicting social values (Berlak & Berlak, 1981). Each time they navigate a dilemma their decision comes with something gained and something lost. The literacy wars in Australia are a clear example of social values in conflict, which creates dilemmas for teacher educators, as they must navigate which approach to literacy to emphasize in teaching teacher learners.

The educators in the study began the work of implementing teaching training in schools with many of the dilemmas of curricularizing already resolved. Their shared theory of language provided them a definition of language and related instructional practices upon which to focus.

The functional approach aligned with the teaching-context of school-age students learning disciplinary content. Similarly, having a defined teaching-context removed the pressure on teacher educators to cover all possible teaching-contexts in which language teachers might work. The Lexis curriculum also contained the concepts teachers need to know related to using functional grammar in the classroom and teaching language, such as the role of oral language in scaffolding writing (TESMC, Module 3, Lexis Education, 2020d). With these dilemmas already resolved, tutor trainers could focus on tensions which arose from the daily life of the school setting, such as the many demands on teachers' time or the leadership style of administrators. They were able to then navigate ways to implement the program in their individual school settings, guided by their theory of language and training materials.

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Appendix

Appendix 3A

Interview protocol – Australian educators

Guiding open-ended questions
Tell me about your work in implementing functional grammar in (teacher) education.
What has supported that work?
What has challenged that work?
What do you see as the outcomes of that work?

Prompts for elaboration
Can you tell me more about that?
Can you give me an example of that?
(specific clarification questions)

CHAPTER 4

Domains, Dilemmas, and Directions for Future Work

Introduction

The two studies in this dissertation are not intended to be comparative or evaluative, but rather descriptive of sociocultural influences on the work of teacher educators in that setting. The two programs, a German pre-service program taught by school of education faculty and an Australian in-service training taught by tutor trainers, represent vastly different instantiations of teacher education. At the same time, considering the two studies in conversation with one another provides an opportunity to explore how studying the different domains of sociocultural influences can provide a researcher various lenses for understanding curricularizing.

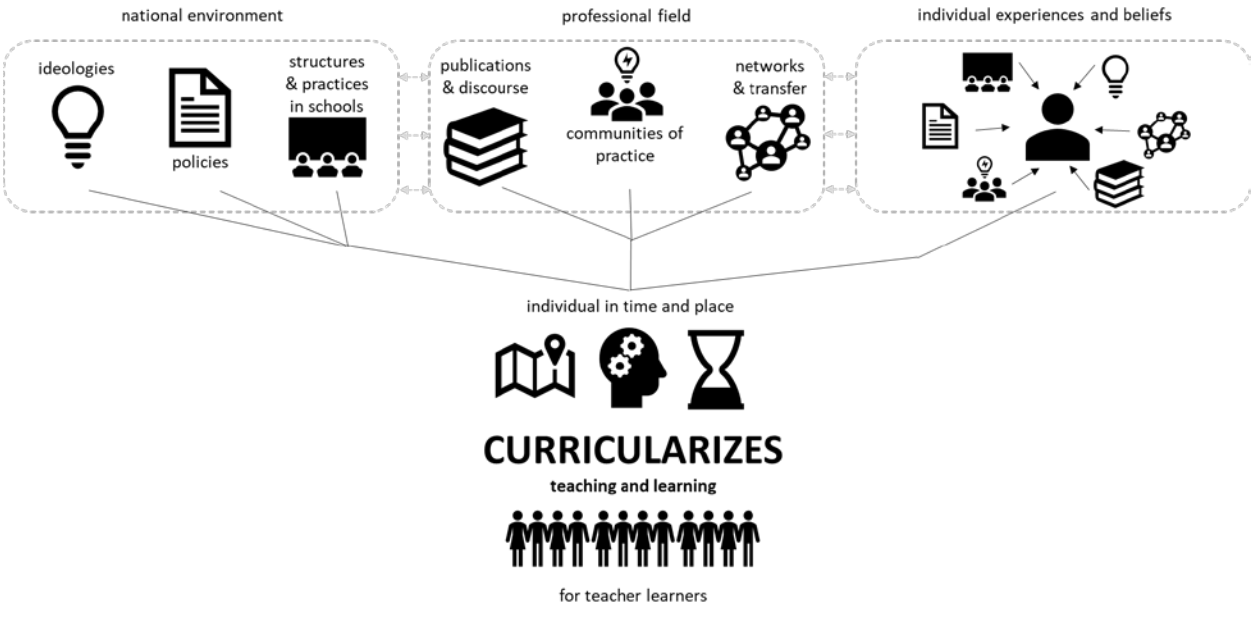

Figure 4.24: The curricularizing framework for teacher education

Figure 4.24 displays the curricularizing framework for teacher education, which includes three main domains of sociocultural influence: the national environment, professional field, and individual's experiences and beliefs. Any teacher education program will naturally be affected by all three domains. Investigating a specific domain as a researcher provides a means to focus on particular social influences on the work of teacher educators. This chapter explores how the domains selected in each of the two studies focused on different factors and dilemmas affecting the curricularizing process. I also discuss directions for possible future research in the two settings using other parts of the framework. To close, I explore implications of the dissertation more broadly, including the need for a contextualized theory of language teacher education and how the curricularizing framework could serve different purposes for researchers and teacher educators.

Domains and Dilemmas in the DaZ/DaF Teacher Education Study

The case study of DaZ/DaF teacher educators in Germany (Chapter 2) includes information about each of the domains in the curricularizing framework to varying degrees, as summarized in Figure 4.25. Each domain provides a wealth of possible research questions to explore. One could explore the professional field domain and ask how the DaZ/DaF field interacts with the broader field of language education. Or a researcher could focus on the different curricularizing choices of teacher educators based on the domain of individual experiences and beliefs, such as their experiences as DaZ/DaF teachers before they became teacher educators. The decision to center one domain of sociocultural influence creates the need for different data and methods to explore different questions.

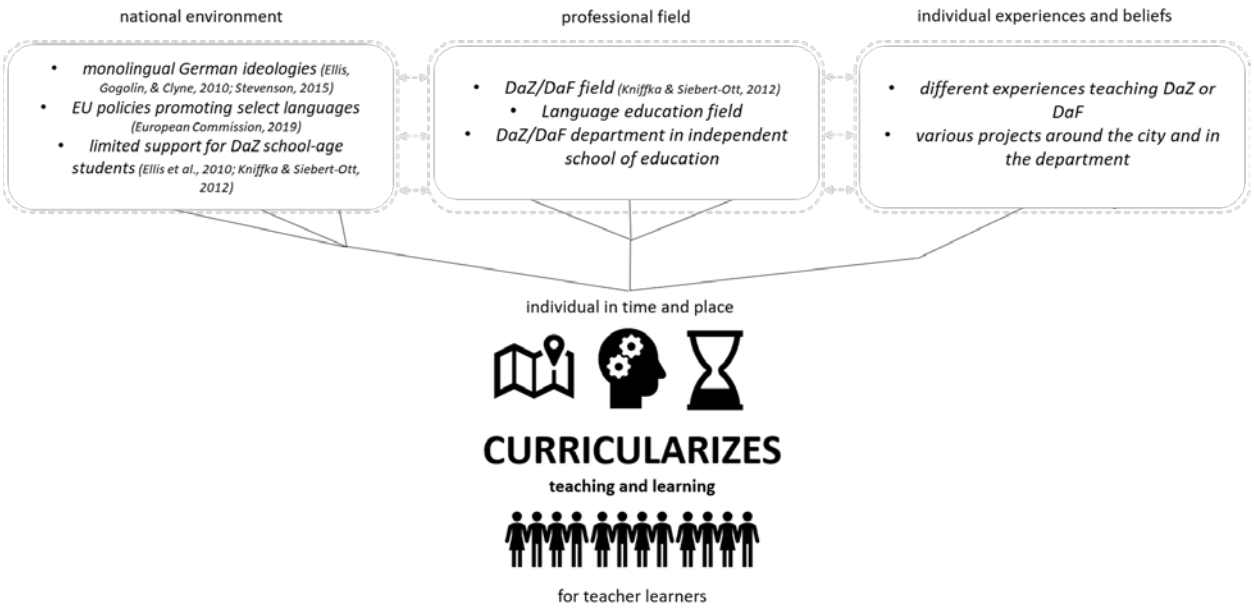

Figure 4.25: Factors in the DaZ/DaF teacher education study, by domain

The DaZ/DaF study focuses on how influences in the national environment affect the curricularizing of language teaching and learning preparing teacher learners for many potential future teaching-contexts. The professional field and individual certainly influences these curricularizing choices as well, but the analysis and discussion highlight factors from the national environment which are reflected in teacher educators' practice. This research decision means the dilemmas the study highlighted are related to the teaching-contexts currently available to DaZ/DaF graduates given the policies and practices in German language education, such as the emphasis on foreign language teaching and limited support for school-age DaZ learners.

One dilemma in DaZ/DaF teacher education is whether to focus on theories of language and teaching practices more aligned with second or foreign language learners and adult or school-age learners. The pre-service DaZ/DaF program only prepares teacher learners to work with DaZ adults in Germany or with DaF school-age or adult students outside Germany. In the sense that many of the teacher learners' future students will be learning German as a foreign language for travel or business, many of the curricularizing choices and the focus on the

communicative wave of conceptualizing language (Graves, 2016) are not a misalignment with the needs of the students. At the same time, one could ask if the same instructional strategies are appropriate for a DaF high school classroom and an adult DaF business setting or if adults learning DaF outside Germany for business have the same needs as adults learning DaZ inside Germany to find jobs, interact in German society, and apply for citizenship. DaZ/DaF teacher educators often present instructional methods as decontextualized. It is possible some appropriate instructional strategies are the same, but also that some are not, and further research is needed into the different pedagogical content knowledge necessary in these different language education teaching-contexts which could inform teacher education.

At the same time, the increased number of DaZ school-age learners creates a dilemma in DaZ/DaF teacher education. Teacher educators must navigate tensions between national ideologies of German monolingualism and knowledge in the professional field about the benefits of multilingualism. The practices in schools in the national environment do not support DaZ learners beyond the first two years in the country and even those international preparation classes (IVK) are often taught by teachers not trained to work with language (Kniffka & Siebert-Ott, 2012). In interviews with the three teacher educators, they discuss the work in the professional field related to academic language (Frau Graf through the language of schooling and Frau Schubert through continuous language education [Reich, 2013]). Their knowledge of these practices in language education are in conflict with the structures in German schools.

Focusing the study on how DaZ and DaF have been curricularized in the national environment which has limited supports for school-age DaZ learners highlights choices teacher educators can consider if they shift some time and resources to prepare teacher learners for that teaching-context. If DaZ school-age learners are going to be supported in German schools, then

space needs to be created in teacher education for a focus on approaches which relate content areas and language. The third wave of conceptualizing language provides possible means to address students' needs in this teaching-context, such as understanding the changing language demands of different registers and academic texts as students progress through school. At the time of the study, graduates from the DaZ/DaF program could not become primary/secondary certified teachers. However, DaZ programs are changing, providing in-service certifications or pre-service coursework for content area teachers. DaZ teacher educators will need to reflect on their curricularizing of LTL and whether the choices they make for the existing DaZ/DaF teaching-contexts are appropriate for school-age DaZ learners in German schools.

Domains and Dilemmas in the Functional Grammar Teacher Training Study

Similar to the study in Germany, each of the sociocultural domains of the curricularizing framework are represented to a degree in the study of Australia tutor trainers implementing a teacher training program in schools (summarized in Figure 4.26). Research could focus on the relationship between the literacy policy focus in the national environment and Lexis trainings or differences in how individuals in various professional roles work in the school context (for example, teachers in the school training other teachers versus state level literacy coordinators coming into a school). These different focuses and related research questions would require different data and analysis.

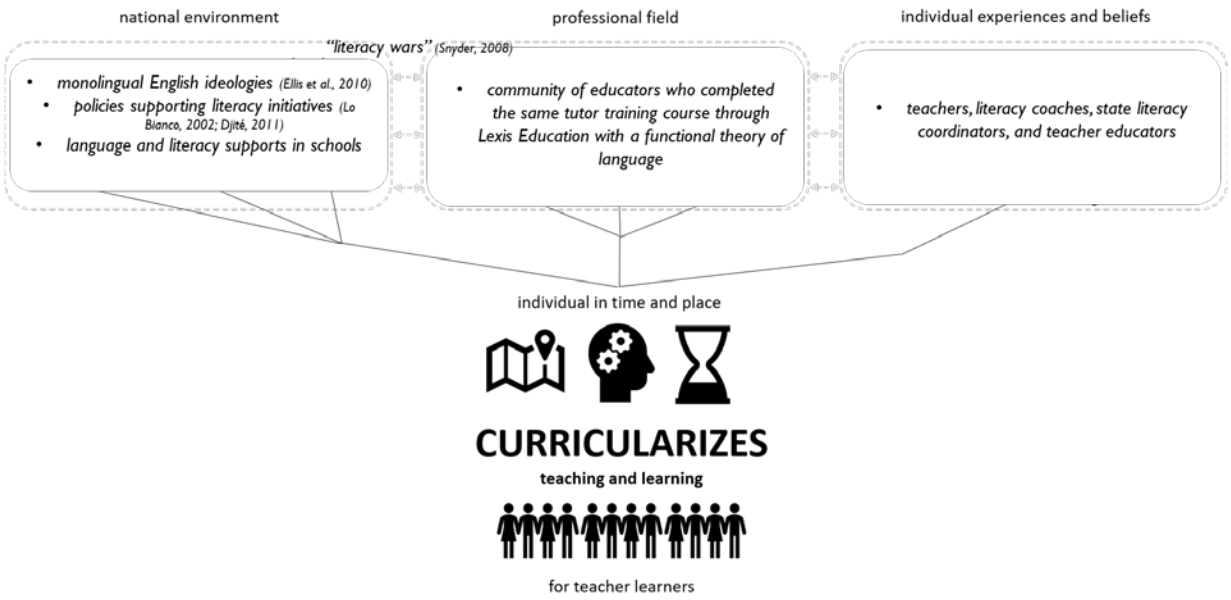

Figure 4.26: Factors in the Australia teacher training study, by domain

The domain highlighted in the Australia study (Chapter 3) is the professional field. The research question focuses on what has allowed a community of educators using the same training materials to implement that program in schools. The professional field domain is used to investigate shared understandings of one community of explanation, reified through social facts, and which factors impact their work. The findings show that members of the community of explanation perceive factors affecting their work which are both directly related to that community and factors more broadly related to school practices.

The findings of the Australia study highlight different dilemmas for the tutor trainers than faced by teacher educators in the German study. The Lexis Education program resolves for the tutor trainers many of the common dilemmas in language teacher education by standardizing the substance of the training. Tutor trainers do not need to decide which theory of language to focus on, which instructional practices, which teaching-context, or which related topics. This focus is in part because the teaching-context of the teacher learners is firmly established and the selecting, planning, and organizing part of the curricularizing process was designed for that

context. One could argue this is true for all in-service training; my personal experiences with in-service training would suggest that is not always the case. As Singh and Richards (2006) stated, in-service training in language teacher education is often a survey of current methods (p. 151) and may or may not be the current methods best suited for the students in that teaching-context. The in-service nature of the Lexis program allows their training program to be highly focused, but that does not mean all in-service offerings in language teacher education are as targeted to the teaching-context.

The Australian study also highlights that even when the planning and organizing part of the curricularizing process is standardized, understanding implementation is vital to learning how and why the program works in some schools and perhaps not in others. In the implementing part of the curricularizing process, tutor trainers encounter tensions mainly between school practices and structures and their membership in the Lexis Education communities of activity and explanation. The school setting influences the work of the tutor trainers in the demands on time and funding, the support (or lack therefore) of school leadership, and the reluctance of some teachers to take up the functional approach to language. They must confront those challenges while also working to implement a theory of language in conflict with other literacy approaches, which they frequently discussed in relation to the perceptions of functional grammar. By recognizing those factors as shared influences on their work, they can consider how to address those tensions.

Directions for Future Research in the Each Setting

The limitations in the two studies present rich avenues to consider for future research. The DaZ/DaF study focused on the treatment of content-specific aspects of curricularizing, particularly the defining of language, situating instructional methods in a teaching-context, and

connecting language education to other topics, but many aspects of the curricularizing framework could be examined. The teacher educators in interviews were asked about what they believed should happen in DaZ school-age education, but interviews focused on the observed coursework or their process of planning their courses could provide a direct complement to observations and course artifacts.

Similarly, this line of questioning could allow a researcher to explore the impact of the individual domain of sociocultural influence, including the teacher educator's beliefs, knowledge and experiences that impacted their curricularizing process. Centering the individuals would also allow one to examine how coherent the individualized beliefs of the department members are and what impact that has on coursework. Individual teacher educators can have a powerful impact on a program, on the professional field, and even on the national environment given their potential influence in practice and policy. This domain will be important to explore further to better understand the process of teacher education

In Australia, Lexis Education navigates and resolves dilemmas related to how to organize and present functional approaches to language education and future research could explore how decisions are made in this part of the curricularizing process. Given that functional approaches are not universally supported in Australia, as well as the fact that pre-service teachers do not receive much, if any, explicit instruction on how to teach language, teachers may "require greater professional learning support on key aspects of [linguistic subject knowledge] and [linguistic pedagogical subject knowledge] than is currently available" (Love, Macken-Horarik, & Horarik, 2015, p. 175). In designing materials for training, Lexis decides how in-depth or brief to go into particular language features. Some content area teachers may be more receptive to "language-light" than "language-heavy" professional development, but the complexity of the functional

approach makes that difficult to navigate. This dilemma is part of the conversation in the current redesign of Lexis trainings. Given the complexity of functional grammar, future work could explore how Lexis navigates the balance between curricularizing functional approaches for teacher learners and ensuring their materials are useable by the many tutor trainers who may have more or fewer years' experience training people to work with it.

In the Australian study, sampling focused on advocates who have had success implementing functional grammar. This decision was made in order to explore instances in which implementation has been successfully realized. Another avenue of inquiry would be to examine what prevents implementation in particular settings or schools. An additional approach might be to examine the experiences the participants had in attending the Lexis tutor training or the ways in which they implement the standardized training differently or similarly when they lead it. Although the assumption is that the standardized curriculum program and shared theory of language create a degree of coherence, the implementation aspect of curricularizing always happens in a particular time and place with specific teacher learners. The individual doing the training may need to adjust their curricularizing and investigating why and how would provide an interesting basis for a study. Studying structures in the specific schools or knowledge and beliefs of the individual educator may also provide important information about why the teacher training model is successful in some places, and why it might struggle in others.

As discussed earlier, the studies are not comparative, as they focus on different aspects of curricularizing and ask different questions. It is also hard to compare pre-service and in-service programs. Yet it would be interesting to study the same aspect of the curricularizing framework in two different national environments in more similar teacher education settings. Future research using the curricularizing framework can also explore different factors in each domain,

one domain in depth, or all three domains simultaneously depending on the questions and methodology.

The Need for a Contextualized Theory of Language Teacher Education

Twenty years ago, Ball (2000) asked the following question: "What would it take to bring the study of content closer to practice and to prepare teachers to know and be able to use subject matter knowledge effectively in their work as teachers?" (p. 404). Language can be (and has been) studied in many different ways. What moves the study of language closer to the needs of language learners in classrooms? Thirty-five years ago, Bowers (1986) argued that "the answer has something to do with the interaction between pedagogic approach and pedagogic context" (p. 406). Knowing the teaching-context of the teacher learners helps better prepare them for the subject matter knowledge they need for teaching. As Bowers (1986) asked, "Without a theory of practice based on the empirical study of *what works in different contexts* and *what does not*, what do we put into our teacher training programs?" (p. 406, emphasis added). A contextualized theory of teacher education is predicated on the idea that the teaching-context of teacher learners should drive the process of curricularizing teaching and learning for them as closely as possible. If one believes, as I do, that particular waves of conceptualizing language (Graves, 2016) and related instructional practices are more appropriate in some teaching-contexts than others, then a contextualized theory of teacher education would align curricularizing with the most appropriate theory of language and related practices for that context.

Obviously it is impractical to consider separate teacher education programs for every possible teaching-context, as any teaching-context is and will always be different. Nevertheless, the more narrowly teacher education can focus its knowledge on teaching-contexts, the better prepared teacher learners will be to work in those contexts. Although much of pedagogical

content knowledge must be learned in the practice of working with students, aspects of teaching language to particular grade levels or age groups, as well as targeted content knowledge based on common language learning goals (e.g. common business language versus norms of school academic genres), can set a foundation for the work.

Some language teacher education programs specialize in preparing teacher learners for particular teaching-contexts. For example, some programs prepare teachers to teach adults English in countries where English is not the first language. Other programs certify English as a Second Language teachers for primary/secondary schools (although then it is often for Kindergarten through twelfth grade, which I would argue could be further narrowed by learners' needs, as other content areas have done). Yet many pre-service language teacher education programs have often tried to prepare teachers for many different contexts, often to meet the needs of the "increasing internationalization of student bodies [which] may be in conflict with the content focusing merely on one context" (Stapleton & Shao, 2018, p. 25). Attempting to address many potential teaching-contexts opens up the possibility of not contextualizing practices often enough. This reality is related to many factors, including teacher education departments where faculty bring a range of individual expertise and specializations, as well as economic concerns of teacher education programs.

This decontextualized scope puts pressure on teacher learners to somehow extrapolate or discover in practice which theory of language and which methods are most appropriate for their learners. To a degree, teachers must do this anyway, as every teaching-context is different and professional learning lasts one's entire career. Yet the closer teacher education can link theories of language and teaching-contexts, the better prepared teacher learners will be to tailor their practice to particular groups of learners.

Using the Curricularizing Framework

The framework of curricularizing allows researchers to study the factors influencing language teacher education decisions and which sociocultural domains exert which pressures. Why have particular theories of language been privileged in particular programs? How well do those theories reflect the needs of the future students of the teacher learners or does the program try to cover so many teaching-contexts that it is unable to narrow its focus? How closely can we align language teacher education and teaching-contexts? The curricularizing framework offers a way to explore not just the pedagogies of teacher education, but the influences of the national environment, the professional field, and the individual's experiences on that work.

As discussed in the introduction chapter, the curricularizing framework separates factors into sociocultural domains and researchers using the framework to study one domain may run the risk of overlooking dilemmas which result from the interactions between domains. National ideologies and academic theories of language work together in influencing education. Professional fields exist both inside of and across national environments, and ideologies which exist in a professional field are not entirely disconnected from national ideologies, regardless of whether they echo or challenge the beliefs of the general public. The personal knowledge of teacher educators is tied to experiences of schooling in national environments and personal study in the professional field, while pedagogical content knowledge is the result of experiences teaching in the national environment, in schools, universities, or other programs. In other words, teacher educators are not "above" or "outside" socialized influence, even as they may challenge dominant ideas or practices in schooling.

However, the curricularizing framework provides a research tool to guide the focus of studies while considering a large number of potential influencing factors. As Berlak and Berlak

(1981) identified dilemmas in teaching, curricularizing provides common terms to discuss where and how dilemmas arise in and affect teacher education. It would be difficult to give equal attention to all, nor would it be worthwhile to do so for every research question. Researchers will inevitably highlight and focus on the domains of sociocultural influence they feel are most appropriate to answer the questions they are asking.

Other researchers have explored ways to study the knowledge and practices of teacher educators. For example, recent studies in math teacher education have studied the pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) of math teacher educators (Muir, Wells, & Chick, 2017; Beswick & Goos, 2018), recognizing it as distinct from the PCK of math teachers. Self-studies (e.g. Dinkelman, 2003; Loughran, Hamilton, LaBoskey, & Russel, 2004; Peercy, 2014) have been conducted in teacher education to "[place] the practices of teacher educators at the center of inquiry" (Peercy, 2014, p. 147). Some researchers have studied how teacher educators become socialized into the professional field (Viczeko & Wright, 2010; Loughran, 2014) through communities of practice, discourse, and networks. The curricularizing framework provides another way to conceptualize the work of studying teacher education, one which highlights sociocultural influences on that work.

Similar to how Berlak and Berlak (1981) argued that using the language of dilemmas "simplified the complexity without over-generalizing or distorting the nuances and problems of school life" (p. 107), I argue that considering the domains of sociocultural influence from which dilemmas arise provides teacher educators a language to consider what has weighed on their decisions and why they have curricularized teaching and learning as they have. Although the domain boundaries are artificial, discussing the domains as separate allows one to consider and put language to where ideas may have originated or where they are held most strongly. A teacher

educator can reflect on where the pressures on two sides of a dilemma arise, and consider how they have historically navigated that dilemma, which Berlak and Berlak (1981) call “patterns of resolution” (p. 237). Many decisions result from socialization into a professional field, while others are the result of personal beliefs held as a result of experiences in the sociocultural environment. Considering one’s patterns of resolution and why they have typically resolved a dilemma in that way allows one to be critical of their own work, reflect on what dilemmas may weigh on them that they do not often stop to consider, and reflect on where they feel they need to make changes to their practice.

Concluding Remarks

Using the curricularizing framework in Germany and Australia allowed me to explore different aspects of the work of language teacher education and ultimately to consider the role of alignment between a theory of language and the teaching-context. Some might argue that this is the same as the divide between theory and practice, prevalent in criticisms of teacher education. I disagree. How much to focus on theory and how much on practice is a dilemma, with teacher educators and programs falling somewhere along the spectrum between the two horns. A practice-based teacher education program will typically navigate that dilemma closer to the practice side of the dilemma; the common complaint that teacher education is too theoretical suggests that other programs often navigate the dilemma on the theory side. My argument is not about the dilemma of theory versus practice, but rather the need for the theory and the practices to align more closely in language teacher education with the teaching-contexts. Which theory is being emphasized? Which practices? Do they align with the needs of the future students of the teacher learners? That is the focus of the contextualized theory of language teacher education.

In some programs, accepting this argument would mean a change away from how teacher educators have broadly curricularized language teaching and learning and toward a contextualized theory of teacher education practice. This shift may require teacher educators to consider the different kinds of knowledge they bring to their practice and the reasons why they have navigated dilemmas as they have. As Wright (2010) asserts, it is the responsibility of teacher educators to "adopt a pedagogy which challenges the hegemony of 'packaged' knowledge" (p. 273).

The curricularizing framework offers a tool to explore in our own practice how we have navigated dilemmas and why. Much of the work in this dissertation arose out of my role as a teacher educator and my desire to better reflect on my practice and understand its macro influences. If teachers should "be engaged…in reflecting upon the ideological forces that are present in their classrooms, schools and communities" (Richards, 2008, p. 174), so too should teacher educators.

Berlak and Berlak (1981) encouraged the use of dilemmas as a framework for teachers to engage in critical inquiry with oneself and with others. They characterized critical inquiry as "both an intellectual journey and a deliberated effort of persons to shape their society and the course of its history" (p. 230). This critical inquiry should examine "*present patterns* of resolution, *alternative possibilities*, the *consequences* of present and alternative patterns, the *origins* of present patterns and of proposals for alternatives" (p. 237, emphasis in original). Reflecting on the origins of present patterns and alternatives may reveal "the reasons for discrepancies between actual and desired patterns" (p. 245). Phillipson and Skutnabb-Kangas (2009) contend that "a challenge to scholars is to investigate their (our?) language policy and

politics activities relate to political power nationally and internationally, and their/our function in upholding a globally oppressive system" (pp. 30-31).

Through critical inquiry, teacher educators can make changes to the ways in which they navigate dilemmas. These changes may seem small, but it is through what Weick (1984) refers to as "small wins" that we begin to challenge social problems. Small wins are "controllable opportunities that produce visible results" (p. 43). When faced with large societal problems, Weick argues that people see the challenge as insurmountable and are less likely to attempt solutions, but the "reformulation of social issues as mere problems allows for a strategy of small wins wherein a series of concrete, complete outcomes of moderate importance build a pattern that attracts allies and deters opponents" (p. 40). Weick acknowledges that "by itself, one small win may seem unimportant," but "a series of small wins" (p. 43) creates momentum. Focusing on small wins also shifts "attention away from outcomes toward inputs" (p. 40).

Curricularizing teaching and learning is in part deciding what those inputs should be in teacher education. The "should" in that sentence is the result of sociocultural influences weighing on teacher educators' decisions. At the same time, questioning the status quo inputs offers a starting point for reflecting on what we desire from education, what we are already doing that works toward our goals, and which dilemmas we might need to resolve differently to encourage changes we want to see in education and society.

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