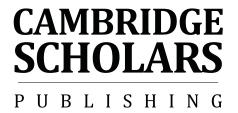
Current Issues in English Language Teaching and Learning

Current Issues in English Language Teaching and Learning: An International Perspective

Edited by

Mario Cal Varela, Francisco Javier Fernández Polo, Lidia Gómez García and Ignacio M. Palacios Martínez



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TABLE OF CONTENTS

List of Illustrationsix
List of Tables xi
Acknowledgements xiii
Introductionxv
Part I: Teacher Training and Development
Chapter One "If you can speak in time, you're fine": Preservice Teachers Learning to Plan for a Focus on Form in Content-Based Instruction Martha Bigelow
Chapter Two Tools for Analysing Teacher-learner Interaction and Pedagogical Decision-making in the EFL Classroom: Five Classroom Interactions Richard J. Hodson
Chapter Three Identifying Young Learners' Learning Styles in Greece Marina Mattheoudakis and Thomai Alexiou
Chapter Four Period of Practice Abroad for Foreign Language (English) Teacher Students from the Faculty of Education (University of Granada): Students' Evaluation of the Programme
José Luis Ortega Martín and Elvira Rosales Escabías53

Part II: Classroom Management and Practice

Chapter Five
Developing a Course in Academic Writing for Learners of English
as a Second Language
M ^a Rosa Alonso Alonso
Chapter Six
Differentiated Instruction in the English Language Classroom:
A Case for Integrating Personality Factors
Diane W. Gómez91
Chapter Seven
A Dynamic Approach to the Teaching of Language and Culture:
Intercultural Communication in Action on the University Learning
Platform
Alison Nagel 101
Chamtan Eight
Chapter Eight
Taking CLIL-Science beyond Merely Language + Science:
A Case Study
F. Gisella Parise and Y. L. Teresa Ting
Part III: New Technologies and Language Teaching
Chapter Nine
Electronic Language Portfolios as a Tool for Autonomous Learning:
The LOLIPOP Project
Mario Cal Varela and Francisco Javier Fernández Polo131
Mario Cai vareta ana Francisco Javier Fernandez Poto151
Chapter Ten
New Contexts and New Challenges in the Field of English
for Academic Purposes: GRAPE Online Activities
Mercedes Querol Julián and Mª Noelia Ruiz Madrid
Chapter Eleven
Immersed in the Digital Age: Podcasts as a Tool for the Development
of Listening Comprehension in the Foreign Language Classroom
Ana María Ramos García and Beatriz Cortina Pérez161

Part IV: Research on Learner Language

Chapter Twelve S-assimilation in English and Italian: Implications for Foreign Language Learning and Teaching Nicole Bosisio
Chapter Thirteen Collaborative Problem-solving Strategies in Learner-learner and Learner-native Speaker Interaction Ana Fernández Dobao
Chapter Fourteen Introducing the MORPHEUS ('MORPHological Corpus of the English of University Students'): Features, Aims, Results and Applications Paula López Rúa
Chapter Fifteen Is the Usage of Clausal Complementation Particular in Learner Oral Language? A Corpus-based Comparison of Complement Clauses in EFL Learner and Native Oral Language
Beatriz Tizón Couto
Appendix A
Appendix B
Appendix C
Appendix D
Appendix E
Notes
Bibliography
Contributors 271
Index 277

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

- Figure 3-1. Overall results from all participants
- Figure 3-2. Results for learning styles across age
- Figure 3-3. Overall tendencies in learning styles for high and low SES learners
- Figure 4-1. Questionnaire 1A (variables 1-7)
- Figure 4-2. Questionnaire 1 (variables 8-14)
- Figure 4-3. Questionnaire 1 (variables 15-22)
- Figure 4-4. Questionnaire 1 (variables 23-32)
- Figure 4-5. Questionnaire 2 (variables 1-7)
- Figure 5-1. Sample of grammar presentation
- Figure 5-2. Sample of grammar explanation
- Figure 8-1. Motivations driving the CLIL-Science Project
- Figure 8-2. The multidisciplinary and trans-institutional nature of the CLIL-Science Project
- Figure 8-3. Developing realistic learning objectives for short duration CLIL-Science projects
- Figure 9-1. Main page of the LOLIPOP tool
- Figure 9-2. General structure of the LOLIPOP application
- Figure 9-3. The self-assessment grid with displayed descriptors
- Figure 10-1. GRAPE Online Activities homepage
- Figure 10-2. Components of the MASC
- Figure 10-3. Fill in the gaps activity (Section 3.2, Act. 8)
- Figure 10-4. Fill in the gaps activity (Section 3.2, Act. 5)
- Figure 10-5. GRAPE online design process
- Figure 10-6. Navigation bar and index in each section
- Figure 10-7. Section 3: Participating in conference presentations
- Figure 10-8. A multiple choice activity (Sub-section 3.3.2, Act. 3)
- Figure 10-9. A metacognitive activity (Sub-section 3.1, Act. 6)
- Figure 11-1. Origin of the term *podcasting*
- Figure 11-2. Juice software for automatic podcast download
- Figure 11-3. Podanza podcast directory
- Figure 11-4. Types of podcasts
- Figure 15-1. Traditional Contrastive Analysis vs. Contrastive Interlanguage Analysis
- Figure 15-2. Complement clause types in VICOLSE

Figure 15-3. Complement clause types in LINDSEI Spanish

Figure 15-4. Complement clause types in LOCNEC

Figure 15-5. CTVs with that/zero clauses in VICOLSE

Figure 15-6. CTVs with that/zero clauses in LINDSEI Spanish

Figure 15-7. CTVs with that/zero clauses in LOCNEC

Figure 15-8. High frequency verbs with that/zero in VICOLSE

Figure 15-9. High frequency verbs with that/zero in LINDSEI Spa

Figure 15-10. High frequency verbs with that/zero in LOCNEC

LIST OF TABLES

- Table 1-1. Chronology of data sources and student teaching experiences
- Table 1-2. Raw number and mean of language objectives teachers chose when planning for content-language integration.
- Table 1-3. Forms targeted in content-based lessons (raw numbers and means)
- Table 1-4. Aspects receiving intensifiers in learning to integrate content and language
- Table 3-1. Learning preferences for all ages
- Table 3-2. Statistically significant differences in learner preferences between the two student cohorts
- Table 4-1. Number of participant students, degree and receiving university
- Table 5-1. First group results on course applicability
- Table 5-2. Second group results on course applicability
- Table 5-3. First group results on materials and methodology
- Table 5-4. Second group results on materials and methodology
- Table 5-5. First group suggestions on the positive aspects of the course
- Table 5-6. First group suggestions on the negative aspects of the course
- Table 5-7. Second group suggestions on the positive aspects of the course Table 5-8. Second group suggestions on the negative aspects of the course
- Table 7-1. Pictogram titles, topics for discussion and references
- Table 8-1. Transcript of the ink experiment led by a senior peer
- Table 11-1. Comparison: extensive and intensive listening comprehension (Ferrato and White 2004)
- Table 11-2. Most frequently used podcast directories
- Table 12-1. Word-final /S/ in the text reading task
- Table 12-2. Word-final /S/ in the sentence reading task
- Table 12-3. Word-final /S/ in the word-list reading task
- Table 12-4. Misassimilated cluster-initial /S/
- Table 12-5. Intelligibility of mispronounced word-final /S/
- Table 12-6. Intelligibility of mispronounced cluster-initial /S/
- Table 13-1. Learner-native speaker and learner-learner interaction
- Table 13-2. Learner-native speaker interaction
- Table 13-3. Learner-learner interaction
- Table 14-1. Index card in the MORPHEUS
- Table 14-2a. Typology of interlinguistic errors in the MORPHEUS

xii List of Tables

- Table 14-2b. Typology of interlinguistic errors in the MORPHEUS (cont.)
- Table 14-3. Pure types arranged by frequency
- Table 15-1. Frequency of complement clauses in VICOLSE, LINDSEI Spanish and LOCNEC
- Table 15-2. Normalized frequency per 10,000 words of complement clause types in VICOLSE, LINDSEI Spanish and LOCNEC
- Table 15-3. *I think that/zero* in VICOLSE, LINDSEI Spanish and LOCNEC

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INTRODUCTION

No one would deny nowadays that the general field of language teaching as a scientific and academic discipline and, more particularly, English language teaching (ELT) as part of it stand out for their strong dynamism and continuous evolution and development. The growing number of publications, organisations, institutions, materials, tests and conferences on ELT clearly indicate that this field has not remained static and invariable, just the opposite. Since the 1970's with the advent of the communicative methods and the strong reaction against the structuralist approaches (Littlewood and Swan 1981), ELT has gone through multiple changes resulting from a combination of factors and variables of different nature: sociological, economic and pedagogical among others. All these changes have brought about in their turn important innovations and adjustments in the areas of teacher training and development, curriculum design and materials production. It should be borne in mind that any decision made regarding the methodology to be used in the classroom or an innovation introduced in the curriculum trigger ongoing alterations in the general context of the language teaching and learning process (White 1988; Johnson 1989).

The contributions of second language acquisition research from the 1970's onwards can also be regarded as a turning-point in the general development of ELT. The insights obtained from the multiple research programmes and experiments in this domain could not be just simply disregarded, they had to be fully or partly incorporated into the teaching field because they provided very useful information on the actual learning of the language (Krashen 1981; Ellis 1985). As a result, different theories on the nature of language learning such as the monitor model, the theory of interlanguage, the acculturation/pidginization model, cognitive proposals, etc. (McLaughin 1987)-were proposed with the ambitious aim of accounting for a complex phenomenon in which a wide variety of factors of different kind intervene. The knowledge obtained from the role played by variables such as motivation, age, gender, personality, cognitive style, learning strategies, intelligence and so on was crucial for a more effective management of language teaching (Skehan 1989). As a consequence, learner-centered curricula attained real protagonism (Nunan 1988). A guick switch in the pendulum from the teacher to the learner took xvi Introduction

place, with the learner becoming the pivotal element in the learning process and the teacher adopting new roles apart from the traditional ones as animator, collaborator, dynamiser, mentor, assessor and facilitator (Wright 1987). This also had its reflection on the management of the teaching/learning process with a strong focus on learning how to learn and on learner autonomy (Wenden 1991).

More recently, the sudden and quick emergence of the new communication and information technologies (ICTs) has also had and is still having a great impact on the development of the ELT field. The question was not simply whether audiovisual aids had a positive effect on learning, that was already taken for granted, or how the traditional language lab could achieve all its potential, the question now was how to make the most of the Internet and of all the resources connected with it: podcasts, wikis, blogs, teaching and learning platforms, and other powerful web tools (Townshend 1997; Warschauer and Kern 2000). The ICTs have become a crucial element in ELT both within the classroom and, more importantly, outside the classroom, where they provide the necessary tools and give full sense to the idea of learner autonomy. The ICTs provide the learner not only with an unlimited number of learning materials that suit every learning style and specific need, but also with the instruments to organize and plan their learning, as we will see in this volume.

Another important event for the ELT field that occurred recently was the publication by the Council of Europe in 2001 of the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEFR). This initiative has been of great relevance for the general organisation of the foreign languages curriculum, at least in Europe. Since its publication, the guidelines provided by this document, which actually complemented those initiated by the same institution in the 1970's (Van Ek 1975; Richterich and Chancerel 1978/80; Slagter 1979), serve as reference points for all the teachers and professionals involved in language teaching. Positive as this may be for the future of foreign language teaching in the continent, the implementation of the CEFR is still under way and the subject of much debate among administrators, specialists and educators.

For the field of ELT in particular, this is also a time of great momentum, now that English seems to be closer than ever to achieving the status of lingua franca that many had foreseen, wished ore dreaded. While some rejoice at this feat, the dominance of English raises for others important concerns of both ideological and practical relevance, such as the impact this will have on the future of other native tongues and cultures or the native English models in the language classroom.

Our research team in Santiago has a long tradition of research in the field of ELT. During a period of over 20 years, we have been witnesses and participants in the evolution of the field. We have been highly concerned with the general low achievement in their use of English of primary, secondary and university students in Spain and, more particularly, in our Autonomous Community, Galicia, and we have been especially interested in exploring new ways of organising the curriculum so that all the language courses, Spanish, Galician and the first foreign language English, could be successfully integrated in it. We felt it was necessary to deepen in the effects in the long and short run of those methodologies that used English as a means of instruction, where English was used not only as a target language but also as an instrument to study other disciplines, the so called Content-Based Teaching/Instruction or Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL). Apart from this, we also urged for rapid changes in pre- and in-service teacher training programmes that could cater for the new needs of the ELT professionals. Another major – though totally different strand of research in our group concerns the study of the characteristics of learner language, both from a descriptive and from an applied perspective. As the size of our research group grows, so do our interests, and we have always been keen on exploring new territories and in building bridges with other teams and individuals from Spain and abroad. It was in this context how we decided to organise the First International Conference on English Language Teaching and Learning at out university, the University of Santiago de Compostela, in September 2008. Our original intention was to host a small seminar or workshop but with the time the number of participants quickly grew up to almost 250 delegates. To our surprise and without actually having that in mind, these delegates represented more than 30 different countries from all five continents.

As corresponds to the broad scope of the field and its lively nature, contributions were presented on a wide variety of topics such as teacher training and development, the teaching of grammar and vocabulary, testing and evaluation, critical ELT, learner autonomy, corpus linguistics and ELT research, ELT and cultural studies, teaching English to young learners, new technologies and ELT, materials design and production, approaches and methods, the teaching of English for specific purposes, etc. The conference sessions were stimulating and thought provoking. Multiple suggestions were made and many points were raised to the speakers in the different panels. The general plenary sessions were followed by a colloquium where participants expressed their views enthusiastically.

xviii Introduction

This volume contains precisely a careful selection of the contributions made at that meeting as well as a number of valuable original contributions by other specialists that did not present their work at the conference but were deeply involved in it. The various contributions have been organised in four main sections that correspond with the actual major focal topics of the conference: teacher training and development, classroom management and practice, new technologies and language teaching, and research on learner language.

The first part, teacher training and development, consists of four papers with an emphasis on the introduction by pre-service teachers of language objectives in content-based lessons, the study of classroom discourse, the identification of students' learning styles and the analysis of an exchange programme as part of a teacher training programme.

Martha Bigelow's study opens this first section. Her paper is especially interesting because she manages to combine second language acquisition research and teacher training. She discusses how a group of 28 pre-service teachers in the USA managed to include language objectives in their content-based lessons. The analysis is extremely illuminating because we are provided with a review of the written reflections of the trainees and with an extensive report of the interviews conducted by the author with these novice teachers.

Richard Hodson focuses on classroom discourse and, more particularly, on teacher discourse as a tool or resource for teacher development. The author examines in close detail five teacher-student and teacher-class interactions from one EFL classroom taking as reference Mackay's (1993) framework of analysis. We are not only provided with a description of some special features of the language used in the teacher-student interactions (modification of teacher vocabulary, reductions of questions from open to closed, recasts, non-verbal communication, reasoning aloud) but also with a number of suggestions on how to use this material to make important decisions on classroom management.

Marina Mattheoudakis and Thomai Alexiou are concerned with the identification of young learners' learning styles in northern Greece. As was the case with the previous two papers, they try to draw connections between second language acquisition research and classroom management with the ultimate aim of obtaining relevant data for their own self-development as language teachers. The analysis based on the results of a questionnaire administered to more than 350 primary school students reveal that age is a significant factor as regards the consideration of learning style since older learners tend to be more kinaesthetic than visual,

while the opposite is true for the youngest pupils. Apart from this, social class seems also to play a relevant role in the discussion of the learning style factor.

Ortega Martín and Rosales Escabías close this first section on teacher training and development. They report on the results of an exchange programme among Spanish and British universities for English teacher trainees. The research tools used for the study are a series of questionnaires in which participating students express their opinions about various aspects of their exchange experiences, ranging from the roles of both home and host universities and the students' progress regarding their linguistic, cultural and professional competences, through infrastructures and personal support provided by the host university to the financial support of their home country's education authorities. The study reveals a high rate of satisfaction with the programme as well as some areas for future improvement.

The second section, classroom management and practice, contains four main contributions which are concerned with the design of an academic writing course, instructional strategies devised according to learners' needs, intercultural communication and the description of a project using the CLIL methodology.

María Rosa Alonso Alonso opens this second part of the volume. She presents an exhaustive account of the different steps followed in the development of a course on academic writing addressed to a group of university lecturers and professors of the University of Vigo in Spain. The results obtained from a questionnaire given to the participants functioned both as a needs analysis and evaluation of this writing course, since students' views and opinions were taken into account in subsequent editions of the course.

In chapter six, **Diane Gómez** describes and discusses two types of instructional strategies (RAFTs and cubing) that allow the teacher to manage flexible grouping and take into account personality factors, such as motivation, learning style and attitude. Differentiated instruction, as instantiated in these two techniques, is shown to be an appropriate approach to capitalize on the growing diversity teachers have to face up to in the language classroom.

In the next chapter, **Alison Nagel** focuses on intercultural communication and discusses the results of a course on this area at the University of Freiburg, Germany. Indeed, intercultural strategies are one of the areas the CEFR mentioned above emphasises the most. We are here presented two contrasting but complementary approaches to the teaching

xx Introduction

of culture in the English classroom. The first one aims at raising awareness of cultural differences on the basis of a number of pictograms or visual stimuli, while the second is more text-based and involves linguistic analysis. It is also interesting to see how the teacher and the learners work together in the preparation and development of the course content.

Parise and Ting's contribution completes this second part. They describe a CLIL-Science project at a Scientific Lyceum in southern Italy which brought together professionals from various disciplines and institutions, both secondary school teachers and experts from the local university in a collaborative effort. The authors trace the history of the project and how it evolved from a vehicular foreign language project to a CLIL one, where both content and language learning are equally attended to. The authors argue that the CLIL approach was more suitable to the staunchly monolingual reality of the students, allowed students to have a deeper understanding of core science topics and provided them with a strong sense of confidence in their use of the FL.

The next three papers, which constitute section three, deal with different aspects of new technologies applied to ELT.

Mario Cal and Francisco Javier Fernández give an account of a computer online version of the European Language Portfolio (ELP). They thoroughly describe a program which had its origin in a project funded by the European Commission and which had the participation of professionals and teachers from twelve different institutions of higher education. The end product presented stands out for its clarity and user-friendliness. Rather than a simple online version of the ELP, with the corresponding parts (language passport, biography and dossier), the developers sought to produce a useful resource for autonomous language learning. In the project, intercultural skills, an underdeveloped aspect of many previous versions of the ELP, received special attention.

In the next chapter, chapter 10, **Querol Julián** and **Ruíz Madrid** present a new web-based tool consisting of self-learning activities in the area of English for academic purposes. The tool is specifically designed for the huge community of international teachers and researchers who are non-native speakers of English. The many activities proposed to develop academic writing and speaking skills, such as writing articles or presenting papers at conferences, are based on real corpus data, including previous corpus work by the authors themselves and their group at Jaume I University in Spain. A novel and particularly valuable feature of the activities included is their multimodal character, thus recognising the

important role, particularly in oral academic contexts, of paralinguistic features, such as gestures, body position, layout and graphic design

Ramos García and Cortina Pérez explore the great potential of podcasting as a foreign language teaching tool. In spite of the fact that listening comprehension can be particularly exhausting and stressful for the foreign language student, listening comprehension tends to be relatively neglected in the classroom, due to the lack of adequate materials and tools. Podcasting services on the Internet offer both teachers and students an immense bank of authentic listening resources. The authors suggest useful tips for exploiting this potential both for foreign language in-class activities and, especially, homework, where the use of podcasts offers great possibilities for independent learning.

The last section of the volume, section four, presents four studies which are concerned with the close examination of different features of learner language, from pronunciation to clause analysis. They all share a common methodology as they use a corpus-based approach.

Nicole Bosisio describes an experiment carried out with six Italian advanced learners of English and two native speakers of English who acted as controls. Her main purpose was to see up to what extent we could speak of the existence of language transfer in the pronunciation of English words where /S/ assimilation in final position takes place particularly in the formation of regular plural, genitive noun affixes and third person singular verb affix. This phenomenon, which is typical of English, does not occur in Italian in similar contexts. The results obtained showed that even when learners were explicitly taught about this phenomenon their productions varied considerably. Furthermore, the data show that the mispronunciation of this sound does not hinder comprehension. The paper concludes by making a number of considerations on the pedagogy of English pronunciation to foreign learners of English.

Paula López explores the connections between orthography and both inflectional and derivational morphology on the basis of the data provided by a self-compiled corpus (MORPHEUS) which contains samples of writing of Spanish learners of English. After a careful description of the corpus used, the author presents a taxonomy of the spelling errors identified which includes different groups according to a number of factors, such as the influence of the morphological system of the student's L1 and the incomplete learning of the morphology of English. López concludes by drawing our attention on the importance of the morphology of English to achieve a full competence of this language and by pointing out some of the pedagogical applications of her corpus.

xxii Introduction

If the previous scholar concentrated on the written system of learner language, **Ana Fernández** in the following chapter considers the oral component by focusing in detail on the communication strategies used by Spanish learners of English. The data used is part of SULEC, a learner corpus of written and spoken English of different levels compiled at the University of Santiago. She proposes an original change in the definition of communication strategies as, in her view, they should be regarded as collaborative processes between native and non-native speakers of English rather than as simple resources to overcome problems in communication. One of the main findings of this study is precisely that native and non-native speakers behave rather differently when they interact with each other. Native speakers in their interaction with non-natives tend to be more collaborative and they foster more opportunities for vocabulary learning.

In the final chapter of the volume, **Tizón Couto** reports on the results of a corpus-based comparison of the use of verb-complement clause types in English native and learner's spoken data. Her methodological approach is Contrastive Interlanguage Analysis (CIA), which involves a comparison of learner language with native language, but also with data from other learners. The author compares her own data from a corpus of Spanish students at the University of Vigo with learner language obtained from the Louvain Corpus of Native English Conversation (LOCNEC) and the Spanish component of the Louvain International Database of Spoken (LINDSEI Spanish). She finds significant English Interlanguage differences between native and learners' data both as regards percentages of the various complement-clause types and the use versus non-use of the complementizer particle, but also interesting differences between the two learner corpora; she puts her findings down to the different profile of the students and differences related to the corpus-compilation process.

The volume aims to represent the views of teachers, scholars, researchers, teacher trainers and curriculum developers from all over the world, from USA and Japan to Europe. It is addressed to all the agents of the ELT community who want to reflect upon and develop their knowledge and practice on current issues on the English language teaching and learning. The current problems in many of the areas of ELT are given different solutions according to the contexts where each of the contributors is conducting their work. It is precisely this international perspective what makes this volume unique and illustrative of different realities with a similar objective in mind: the implementation and improvement of ELT.

—The editors Mario Cal, Francisco Javier Fernández, Lidia Gómez and Ignacio M. Palacios

PART I:

TEACHER TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT

CHAPTER ONE

"IF YOU CAN SPEAK IN TIME, YOU'RE FINE": PRESERVICE TEACHERS LEARNING TO PLAN FOR A FOCUS ON FORM IN CONTENT-BASED INSTRUCTION¹

MARTHA BIGELOW

Abstract. Researchers and teachers have recognized that whenever there is a strong content focus in a language class, the systematic integration of language development aims is easily sidelined. In this study, data from 28 K-12 English as a Second Language (ESL) and world language (WL) preservice teachers (PSTs) were examined. The focus of the analysis was how they chose to include language objectives in their content-based lesson plans as they progressed through a teacher education program and experienced up to four student teaching settings. This analysis is accompanied by an analysis of their written reflections and face-to-face interviews exploring factors that influenced how and when they chose to integrate language in CBI. Findings indicate that PSTs chose a fairly narrow range of grammatical items to include in their instruction and cite factors such as gaps in their metalinguistic knowledge and the challenge of using authentic materials to be obstacles for them. The flexibility of their student teaching context was found to be an important factor in determining PSTs' choices. Implications for teacher education practices and what PSTs should know and be able to do when they leave their programs will be discussed.

1. Introduction

Across a range of second and foreign language classroom settings, curriculum is organized around content. From elementary inclusion programs for English as a second language (ESL) to high school world language (WL) programs, teachers are being called on to integrate content

and language objectives effectively in daily instruction. Content-based language instruction (CBI), while extolled by researchers and teachers, has as its key challenge the task of balancing the content and the language aims of the curriculum (Met 1991; Stoller and Grabe 1997). This challenge arises from pressures that are very much related to the teaching context. For example, ESL teachers often feel pressed to help their students understand grade-level content. This tips the scale toward content teaching and the use of teaching strategies to make the content comprehensible. In foreign language settings with carefully sequenced classes, certain grammatical structures appear in the curriculum, therefore tipping the scale more toward grammar teaching and making content integration the challenge. This study explores what preservice teachers do when they attempt to plan instruction that integrates content and language objectives during their teacher education program, how they progress in their skill development as they move through various teaching settings and finally what they identify to be challenges as they plan and teach their lessons. The goal of the study is to understand how and when preservice teachers draw from their professional and experiential knowledge to accomplish an effective integration and balance of content and language. The process of learning these skills warrants research due to the increasing demands for language teachers to be able to teach language through content, and given the documented complexity of this skill (Bigelow and Ranney 2005).

2. CBI and focus-on-form instruction

CBI is a curricular approach that uses engaging, age-appropriate, academic content as a vehicle for language learning. It facilitates language acquisition through meaningful, communicative and experiential instruction, thereby heightening learner motivation (Pally 2000); it grounds instruction with interesting texts and tasks (Bigelow et al. 2005); it gives language learning tasks and texts purpose and exposes learners to a variety of genres needed in the mainstream (Parkinson 2000); and it has the potential to link form and function (Eskey 1997; Mohan and Beckett 2001). Master makes a case for CBI when he argues that "by dealing with grammar within the context of understanding content, many of the original criticisms of the grammatical syllabus are satisfied: students no longer deal with decontextualized sentences or spend years learning isolated rules that inhibit their spoken fluency" (Master 2000, 8).

CBI is particularly well-suited to focus-on-form techniques (e.g. input enhancement, recasts) which are characterized as being more implicit and incidental in nature than traditional grammar instruction involving explicit

analysis and drill. Doughty and Varela's (1998) definition of focus on form supports techniques that do not consist of more time spent on grammar, but are rather an instructional overlay to include a focus on language. The authors state, "the aim is to add attention to form to a primarily communicative task rather than to depart from an already communicative goal in order to discuss a linguistic feature" (1998, 114). CBI, as a curricular point of departure, does not dictate to teachers how language is to be integrated and to what degree of explicitness. There is no doctrine saying that teachers following a content-based curriculum cannot develop students' metalinguistic awareness or teach grammar explicitly. However, teachers who frequently choose to incorporate such grammar lessons or mini-lessons run the risk of disengaging some students and losing valuable opportunities to promote academic language development tied to content learning. This approach to language integration can also result in teachers coming to the conclusion that there is no time to teach language and content because each follows a parallel track.

One of the most commonly cited problems with CBI is that it is common for teachers to "become excited about interesting and appealing content and overlook the language exploitation aspects of instruction" (Stoller and Grabe 1997, 93). This happens for predictable reasons. Bringing language objectives into the daily planning in a systematic way is an additional planning step for teachers. Finding, creating or modifying materials suited to the level of the learner's content and language skills can be challenging and time consuming. Linguistic objectives targeted through implicit teaching techniques can be harder to plan for and assess. However, if language objectives are not tracked, assessed and recycled in the curriculum, there is the possibility that learners would be exposed to only a limited number of linguistic features and functions as opposed to the wide range of academic language needed (Master 2000).

3. Planning for a focus-on-form in CBI

The ability to include language in CBI begins, in part, at the planning level (Met 1991 and 1994; Snow et al. 1989). Mimi Met points out that "CBI requires careful planning. If the content-area curriculum is to determine the course of language development [...], language learning objectives must be carefully considered and planned" (1991, 285). Clearly, teachers often take unplanned or incidental opportunities to draw learner attention to form during a content-based lesson by, for example, offering a recast (Doughty and Varela 1998; Ellis et al. 2001; Lyster 1998), and students can initiate moments to focus on form (Loewen 2005; Williams 1999).

Evidence that proactive focus-on-form planning might be best for preservice teachers comes from a study by Mackey et al. (2004) shows that teachers with little or no formal supervised teaching experience were unlikely to take advantage of opportunities to focus on form incidentally. The novice teachers in this study typically reacted to the semantic content of their students' utterances and ignored form-related errors. Being able to integrate language when the primary focus is on meaning is a complex task involving teachers' ability to tap their theoretical and experiential knowledge about language learning, their knowledge about language and their pedagogical skills (Borg 1998 and 1999). In addition, much of what they know is filtered through a complex belief system that may not be fully examined or developed, nor based on what teachers learn in their teacher preparation courses (Basturkmen et al. 2004; Breen et al. 2001; Borg 2003; Johnson 1994; Johnston and Goettsch 2000; Mattheoudakis 2007; Woods 1996). The contribution of this study is to document PSTs learning and experiences with integrating content and language at the preservice level (Brinton 2000; Zéphir 2000) through an examination of their planning and reflections on planning.

The following research questions framed this analysis of PSTs' planning processes:

- Given the task to integrate language and content at the planning level in their written lesson plans, how do PSTs conceptualize language in these plans?
- What is the role of context in PSTs' conceptualization of content and language integration? Do PSTs choose different language objectives when they plan instruction for different age levels and when they move between ESL and WL contexts?
- What do PSTs identify as the challenges of learning to integrate content and language?

4. Methodology

4.1. Teachers

This research was carried out with an intact class of 28 PSTs (20 female; 8 male): 16 earning two licenses (ESL and a WL license in Spanish, French, or German), 11 earning an ESL K-12 license and one earning a Spanish K-12 license. The average age of the group was 30. The 23 U.S.-born students in the group had spent an average of one year and two months overseas working or studying and their dominant language was English.

The five non-US-born PSTs averaged three years in the United States and their dominant languages were French (3), Spanish (1) and Arabic (1). The group had an average of one year and three months of prior classroom teaching experience, excluding tutoring. As a group, they could be described as mature, reflective, and with rich intercultural, linguistic, and life experiences.

4.2. Setting and course descriptions

The context of this study is within a graduate level teacher education program for preservice language teachers. After one academic year and two summers, teachers are able to obtain a license/certificate to teach. Teachers advance through the program as a cohort with some seeking a single license in ESL or a foreign language and some seeking dual licensure in ESL and a foreign language. A feature unique to this program is that coursework and student teaching are done simultaneouly. CBI receives attention in the four pedagogy courses teachers take, as well as in their course on English grammar.

4.3. Data sources and analyses

The data sources consisted of a) two single lesson plans and thematic units of ten lessons each that were prepared for learning and assessment purposes in courses and collected over two academic semesters, b) two written reflections addressing lesson planning challenges related to completed assignments, and c) interviews with 12 of the PSTs on their experiences planning for language integration in CBI.

Table 1-1 illustrates the order in which these data sources became available over the academic year.

Table 1	-1.	Chronology	of	data	sources	and	student	teaching
experien	ices							

Month of Program	Data Source	Concurrent Student Teaching Experience
October	Lesson Plan #1	
November	Lesson Plan #2 Reflection on Planning – Journal #1	Elementary ESL
February	Thematic Unit 1 Reflection on Planning – Journal #2	Secondary ESL
April	Thematic Unit 2*	(Secondary WL)
May	Thematic Unit 3*	(Elementary WL)
May-July	Interviews	

^{*}These assignments were available only from teachers (n = 16) seeking WL and ESL licenses.

The lesson planning assignments are one way to acquire the skills of determining what activities and pedagogical procedures might be effective, and what adaptations might be needed (Richards 1998, 118). A rationale for instructional decisions is required in the plan, usually by linking choices to their course readings or basing techniques on what they have seen work. Because the lesson plans were designed to be used during concurrent field experiences, they serve as a link between the social contexts of the university program and the classroom for which they are being prepared. This has long been identified as a strength in teacher education programs (Freeman 2002; Johnson 1996). These assignments were chosen because they allowed for the examination of the PSTs' developing pedagogical skills as they relate to integrating language into instruction that is meaning-focused. Cumming (1989) and Dahlman (2004) are other studies that have analysed this type of assignment for purposes related to teacher cognition and learning.

The lesson plans and thematic units were analysed to examine what language-learning objectives were articulated and, in particular, what types of linguistic forms were targeted in the teachers' objectives. Although