
**NEW ZEALAND STUDIES IN
APPLIED LINGUISTICS**

VOLUME 21 2015

ALANZ

**APPLIED LINGUISTICS ASSOCIATION
OF NEW ZEALAND**

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Journal of the Applied Linguistics Association of New Zealand Inc.
ISSN 1173-5562
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Volume 21 2015

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ARTICLES

THE EXPANDING LITERATE LEXICON IN L1 SECONDARY SCHOOL ACADEMIC WRITING: A MIXED-METHODS ENQUIRY

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Abstract

This paper explores the role of the “literate lexicon” (Nippold, 2004) in New Zealand secondary schools, and its patterns of use in academic writing produced by students at different stages of the secondary school system. A mixed-methods approach was taken, bringing together quantitative and qualitative modes of enquiry. The quantitative aspect of this study investigated the extent to which academic word use and lower-frequency word use increases in L1 writing produced at three levels of secondary school English: year 9 (age 13-14), year 11 (age 15-16), and year 13 (age 17-18). Writing samples (N=141) produced by students belonging to these three year level groups were analysed for levels of usage of academic vocabulary and lower-frequency words. The qualitative component of this study investigated teacher perspectives on the role of the literate lexicon in New Zealand secondary schools: seven secondary school English teachers took part in one-on-one interviews and data was coded according to salient themes in their observations. Quantitative findings suggest that significant change in lexical usage occurs as students progress through secondary school, with a spike in sophisticated word use in the later years of adolescence corresponding with qualitative teacher observations of increased curricular demands during these years. Few studies investigating adolescent lexical growth have analysed writing samples produced within the schooling environment, for curricular purposes; the current study aims to address this research gap. Further, this paper contributes to our understanding of the patterns of later vocabulary acquisition, and importantly, sheds light on the implications of this developmental period for secondary school students’ educational endeavours and experiences.

Key words: productive vocabulary, L1 learning, adolescence, secondary school, academic writing

Introduction

Ministry of Education initiatives have remarked that advanced vocabulary use is a predictor of academic success for New Zealand secondary school students (NZQA 2010; Te Kete Ipurangi, 2012). This comes at a time when there are calls in the

literature for more research to help us understand the features of L1 adolescent writing (Myhill, 2008, Wolsey, 2010). Within the years of formal schooling, adolescence has been described as a “developmental watershed” (Berman & Nir, 2010, p. 183) in lexical usage. Additionally, Ravid (2004) observes that “lexical knowledge is a crucial component of any higher-order cognitive activity, and so is lexical development for academic achievement across the school years” (p. 58). Claims such as these are common in linguistic and educational research, and highlight the need to focus on vocabulary in the context of secondary education.

Vocabulary in New Zealand secondary schools is an emerging area of interest for research in applied linguistics in New Zealand, with research initiatives variously exploring the vocabulary load of secondary school science textbooks (Coxhead, Stevens & Tinkle, 2010), the vocabulary load of a collection of junior and senior secondary school English texts (Coxhead, 2012), the role and treatment of specialized vocabulary in the secondary school classroom (Coxhead 2011), and the testing of the receptive vocabulary sizes of over 700 New Zealand secondary school students (Coxhead, Nation & Sim, 2015). Additionally, a project is underway involving the development of a corpus of secondary school texts, incorporating texts from all subjects and year levels (see Coxhead & White, 2012).

The present study aims to add to developing research in this area by advancing our understanding of productive vocabulary growth during the adolescent years, through an investigation of the developing literate lexicon in New Zealand secondary schools.

Defining the literate lexicon

The central focus of this study is the investigation of the growth of the “literate lexicon” within the New Zealand secondary school context. Nippold (2004), a leading researcher in the field of L1 development during childhood and adolescence, defines the literate lexicon as a “mental dictionary of thousands of complex and low-frequency words, co-existing in an elaborate semantic network” (p.2). These are the words which are key to literacy activities such as reading and writing, as well as understanding domain-specific concepts, expressing complex ideas, and crucially, mastering the school curriculum. Nippold further notes that the literate lexicon develops steadily during the school years, “enabling cognitive, linguistic, and academic growth to continue unabated” (p.2). Vocabulary from the literate lexicon has been characterized as derivationally complex, low-frequency, semantically abstract, and linked to school-related fields of knowledge (Bar-Ilan & Berman, 2007, p.2). As such, the literate lexicon is often viewed as the vocabulary of high-register, academic texts. Unsurprisingly, given its academic nature, knowledge of such vocabulary among adolescents has been linked to school achievement, as discussed below.

The literate lexicon and achievement

Recent empirical studies have demonstrated significant links between knowledge of the literate lexicon and achievement on performance tests and school assessments, highlighting the importance of its development across the school years. Snow, Lawrence and White (2009) investigated the effects of a 24-week vocabulary instruction programme for American middle-school students, in which they learned “all-purpose academic vocabulary” (p. 326) drawn from the Academic Word List (Coxhead, 2000). Post-test scores revealed significant gains in terms of academic vocabulary knowledge and strongly predicted performance on a state-wide performance test. Also investigating middle-school students, Townsend, Filippini, Collins, and Biancarosa (2012) found students’ scores on the Academic Word Level subset of the Vocabulary Levels Test (Schmitt, Schmitt & Clapham, 2001) highly correlated with achievement in mathematics, social studies, science and English.

Further, knowledge of such vocabulary has been found to lay the foundations for success beyond secondary schooling, as confirmed in studies over many decades. Pedrini and Pedrini (1975) reported that vocabulary knowledge accounted for about 35% of variance in university grades, while, some 30 years later, Turner and Williams (2007) observed that results from a pre-course vocabulary knowledge test were a more accurate predictor of course achievement at the tertiary level than pre-course knowledge or critical thinking skills. It is the observation of such effects that prompted Romaine (1984) to describe the use of high register words as a metaphorical “badge of education and social status” (p.215). The link between knowledge of the literate lexicon and achievement in school and beyond highlights the value of a better understanding of the stages of development of the literate lexicon, and the effects of this development within the schooling environment. The present study seeks to further our knowledge of these areas within the New Zealand secondary school context.

Acquiring the literate lexicon through the curriculum

Contemporary theory in the field of later language development suggests that the secondary school years are crucial for development of the literate lexicon. Cummins and Yee-Fun (2007) propose that “schools spend at least 12 years trying to extend the conversational language that native-speaking children bring to school into these more complex academic language spheres” (p. 801). Ravid and Zilberbuch (2003) argue that “the major source of marked, literate lexical items and morpho-syntactic devices is exposure to written school-related language produced by expert writers” (p. 268). This argument for the importance of exposure to advanced texts at school becomes all the more significant when we

consider findings that lexical features used in secondary school texts parallel the characteristics of academic language as outlined by Biber (2006), including information density (Fang, Schleppegrell & Cox, 2006), increasing register variation (Halliday, 1979), morphologically complex words (Nippold & Sun, 2008), and academic vocabulary (Coxhead, Stevens & Tinkle, 2010; Coxhead, 2011). Furthermore, survey findings investigating resources used in New Zealand secondary schools showed that students are exposed to a variety of texts spanning a wide range of sources and genres, suggesting the vocabulary modelled in such texts may be diverse in nature as well (Coxhead & White, 2012). What's more, such exposure may come at an optimal time, with Halliday and Webster (2007) perceiving that during the secondary school years students are "potentially very aware of language and receptive to new ways of exploring and exploiting it" (p. 2). Research into lexical development during adolescence certainly supports these lines of thinking, revealing adolescence as a period during which the bulk of such high-register, academic vocabulary is acquired.

Age-related differences in written vocabulary use

Findings from a series of studies analysing corpora of L1 English writing (Berman & Nir, 2007; 2010; Bar-Ilan & Berman, 2007) have uniformly revealed that between the age groups of 12-13 years and 16-17 years substantial change in written vocabulary use can be observed in terms of Greco-Latinate word use. Greco-Latin words are seen to "represent a more formal, literate level of language use than words of its native Germanic stock" (Bar-Ilan and Berman, 2007, p. 45). When considering the fact that 80% of the Academic Word List consists of Greco-Latinate vocabulary (Coxhead, 2000), it is perhaps unsurprising that students' knowledge of this set of vocabulary would develop markedly as they move through the school system. These results supplement findings from Corson's (1985) seminal study which showed heightened levels of Greco-Latinate word use in writing produced by 15 year-old middle-class school students compared with that of the 12 year-old students, though not across all socio-economic groups. Corson used this finding as the basis for his influential "lexical bar" theory, which stated that many texts, particularly those used within the schooling system, contain a "lexical bar" of Greco-Latinate words, which only children from more privileged sectors of society, who have been exposed to these words in the course of their upbringing, can access.

Interestingly, referring to a slightly earlier age band within a different population, Malvern et al. (2004) reported no significant difference in levels of low-frequency word use in writing produced by 11 year-old and 14 year-old participants. More research is needed to see if significant differences in low-frequency word use could be observed across age groups belonging to the later adolescent years, a gap which this study aims to address.

Methodological considerations of the current research

While providing valuable insights into the developing literate lexicon during adolescence, what is missing from these studies is an understanding of how development of the literate lexicon occurs within the secondary school context. Each of the studies reported above was based on experimental data, in which participants were given a set amount of time to provide a piece of writing based on a writing prompt. While there are evident advantages to this type of study, most notably its reliability in terms of comparing features across the data set, the drawback is that it tells us little about whether and how the literate lexicon can be seen to develop within formal education settings. A further potential issue with the research model adopted in previous lexical richness studies (e.g. Bar-Ilan & Berman, 2007; Berman & Nir-Sagiv, 2007; Berman, & Nir, 2010; Ravid, 2006; Stromqvist et al., 2002) is that when eliciting experimental data students may not draw fully on their lexical knowledge if there is no clear goal for the task beyond producing a piece of writing for the researcher. Furthermore, such tasks may not place the same cognitive demands on the writing as a curricular task would, presenting a problem for the ecological validity of the data, as students have been found to employ “increasingly precise words to express their understanding of complex stories and concepts” when engaging in challenging school-related tasks (Wolsey, 2010, p.203).

The present study is a response to this research gap, taking a school-situated approach in which authentic texts are analysed, that is, those which have been produced as part of the school curriculum. Further, this study aims to shed light on the role of the developing literate lexicon within the New Zealand secondary school context, as seen by secondary school English teachers. This focus was borne out of a desire to acknowledge “the huge amount of knowledge and expertise that teachers already have” (Erlam, 2010, p. 34), which is often lacking in the field of applied linguistics, and is particularly pertinent to the present line of enquiry. Accordingly, the research questions for the present study are as follows:

1. What evidence is there for a developing literate lexicon in essays written by students across the secondary school years?
2. What is the role of the literate lexicon in the New Zealand secondary school context, as observed by secondary school teachers?

Methodology

This section is divided into two parts based on the two data sets, the first on the lexical analysis and the second on teacher interviews.

Part 1: Lexical analysis

The participants

Students from five schools in the Wellington and Manawatu regions were invited to participate in the study. They were recruited from three year levels: year 9 (age 13-14), year 11 (age 15-16), and year 13 (age 17-18). As shown in Table 1, these three year levels span the entire age range of secondary school, and each represents a significant stage: year 9 is the first year of secondary schooling, year 11 is the first year of NCEA (National Certificate of Educational Achievement), and year 13 is the final year of secondary schooling. Informed consent was obtained from students, and from parents in the younger age groups. A total of 141 students took part in the research: 46 year 9s (mean age = 13.13), 44 year 11s (mean age = 15.3), and 51 year 13s (mean age = 17.14). The year 11 group's performance is of particular interest, as findings from Coxhead, Nation and Sim's (2015) study showed that participants' receptive vocabulary sizes grew by 1,368 word families between ages 15 and 16, markedly higher than the changes observed across any other consecutive age groups.

The limited scope of the present study meant that I perceived a need to keep the sample reasonably socio-economically homogeneous, drawing on Corson's (1985) findings that productive vocabulary sizes can vary substantially across different socio-economic groups. A further point was that in order to be able to reliably compare the findings from this study with other similar studies, which predominantly focus on higher socio-economic populations (e.g. Stromqvist et al., 2002; Ravid, 2006; Bar-Ilan & Berman, 2007; Berman & Nir, 2007, 2010; Johansson, 2008), it was decided that writing samples from decile 9 and 10 schools only would be analysed. This is not to deny the value of investigating the productive vocabulary use of teenagers from all socio-economic groups, especially given the lack of empirical research in the field. Confining the study to decile 9 and 10 schools is acknowledged as a limitation of the study, as is the focus on a single subject, English, described below.

Table 1: Participating year levels

	Year 9	Year 11	Year 13
Age	Age 13-14	Age 15-16	Age 17-18
Stage	First year of secondary school	First year of NCEA assessments	Final year of secondary school NCEA assessments
Number	46 participants	44 participants	51 participants

The data

Each student submitted a piece of writing they had produced for their English class. The decision to confine the focus to just one school subject was with the view that the data would be more comparable across the school years. English was chosen because of its emphasis on written expression, and because it is a compulsory subject until the penultimate year of secondary school. The writing samples analysed were all essay tasks which had been set by the teacher, and which involved the discussion and/or analysis of a text (a novel, film, or short story) that had been studied in class. While the essay questions varied across different classes, the assessment requirement of the essay task remained consistent across classes of the same year levels. For example, at year 9 the essay tasks asked students to describe an aspect of the text they had been required to study, whereas at year 11 essay questions were aimed at getting students to “show understanding of specific aspect(s) of studied written text(s), using supporting evidence”, and by year 13 the essay questions required students to “respond critically to specified aspect(s) of studied written text(s), supported by evidence”. These task requirements are in accordance with the New Zealand Qualifications Authority’s assessment specifications for the three year levels (NZQA, 2013). The essay tasks were all homework assignments, so writing was completed in students’ own time, using their own resources. The inability to control for time and resources used (e.g. dictionary, internet resources) is an acknowledged limitation of this study. Students submitted these samples to the teacher who passed them on to me; sometimes these were in electronic form, and sometimes they were in handwritten form, which I then typed up. Texts ranged in length from between 200 and 1,500 words. Texts were not controlled for length as this would mean discarding important data, as well as jeopardising the reliability of the data: the structure of the text would be lost, and results may vary significantly depending on where the text was shortened.

Data analysis

Evidence of the literate lexicon was investigated in two ways.

First, the number of low-frequency words was calculated, by measuring the percentage of words used beyond the BNC-20’s first 3,000 frequency bands (Nation, 2004) which contain the 3,000 most commonly used words in the British National Corpus. This measure was chosen since the literate lexicon has been repeatedly characterized as being comprised of low-frequency words (e.g. Nippold, 2006; Bar-Ilan & Berman, 2007).

Second, the percentage of words from the Academic Word List (Coxhead, 2000) was calculated. Given Nippold's (2006) observation that acquisition of academic

vocabulary is a significant aspect of later language development, measurement of students' use of words from the Academic World List (Coxhead, 2000) was seen as a relevant area of enquiry. Further, focusing on students' productive knowledge of academic words was identified as important because the study was situated in secondary schools where the curriculum emphasizes essay writing for each year level, with attention given to developing the academic qualities of those written texts. Calculations were conducted using the tool Vocabprofiler (Cobb, n.d.). Given that the AWL is not purely based on frequency, it was expected that while the extent of words from the BNC-20 and the AWL may be to some extent comparable, these measures would still prove to be distinct.

Part 2: Teacher interviews

As previously mentioned, a key aim of this study was to provide a situated investigation of adolescent vocabulary development in New Zealand secondary school settings. It was therefore considered important to understand the role of the literate lexicon for students and teachers alike within the classroom. To enquire into teacher perspectives on the topic of vocabulary development at secondary school, seven secondary school English teachers were invited to participate in one-to-one semi-structured interviews; all seven agreed.

The participants

The participants were current teachers of English, and all but one had classes participating in the study. At the time of the interview all were teaching at least one of the year levels of interest in the study (9, 11 and 13). Table 2 shows the range of experience levels of the teacher participants. A diverse population in this respect was an aim during the participant recruitment phase, due to Coxhead's (2011) finding that years of experience had an impact on a teachers' views on vocabulary learning and use in the classroom. All names of teachers and schools are pseudonyms.

Table 2: Teacher participants' profiles

Name	School	School decile	Teaching year levels	Years of experience
Rachel	Northgate Girls' High	9	9, 11	Around 25
Bridget	Northgate Girls' High	9	9,13	9
Anne	Eastwood College	2	9, 11	Around 20
Lou	West Central Boys' College	10	13	13
Kate	Fairview Boys' High	9	9	Less than one
Meredith	Fairview Boys' High	9	9, 11	12
Jane	Hawthorne Girls' College	10	9, 11	22

Interview procedures

Interviews lasted between 20 and 45 minutes, and were recorded. The ten interview questions invited teachers to reflect on vocabulary and lexical development in the secondary school context. The focus of the questions was kept relatively open in order not to constrain responses and to allow teachers to draw quite widely on their perspectives and experiences. Some teachers were also asked additional questions, as prompts or clarification requests, and all were invited to add any further comments at the end of the interview.

Interview data analysis

The interview data were transcribed and were hand coded using thematic analysis. Key words were drawn from notes on the data, such as curriculum, NCEA, achievement, reading, individual variation, comprehension, production. Those key words that were common or especially pertinent were categorised into themes which were relevant to the research question. Teacher participants were each sent a modified copy of their transcript as organized into the themes explored in this enquiry, and were asked to check that their ideas had been well-understood and represented in this thematic analysis. All confirmed that they had been.

Findings

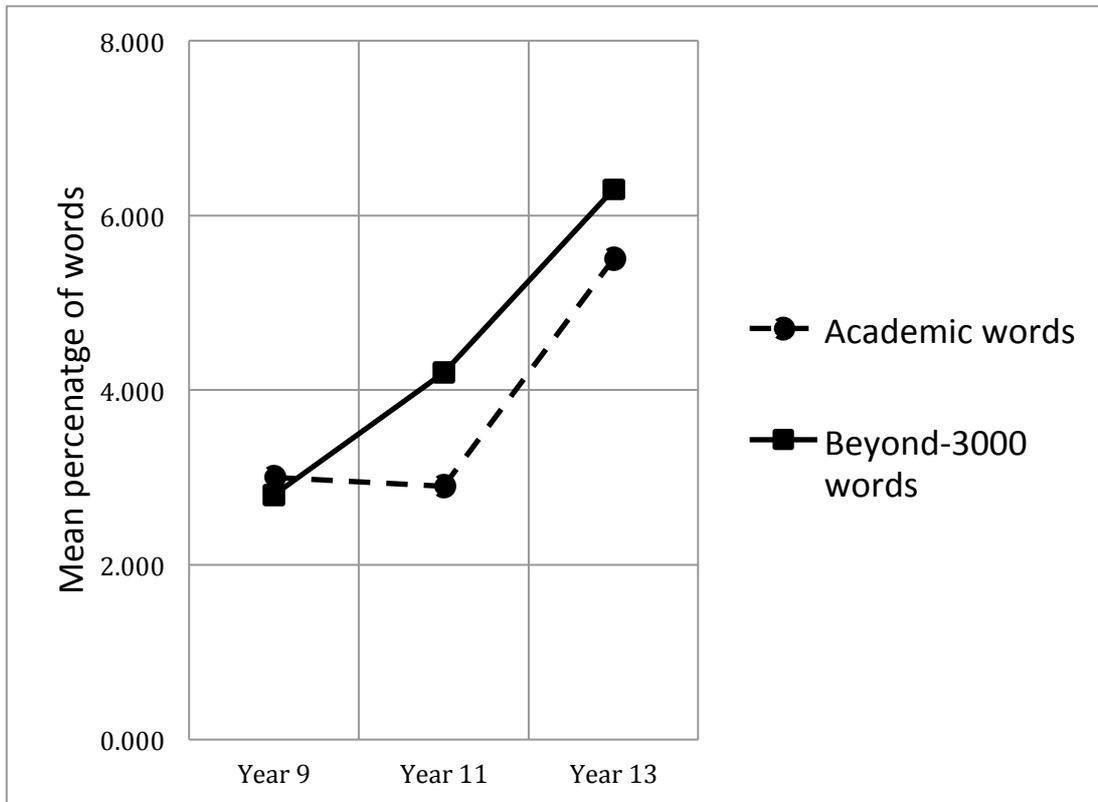
Text-embedded vocabulary analyses

RQ 1: What evidence is there for a developing literate lexicon in essays written by students across the secondary school years?

ANOVA tests revealed statistically significant effects for both lower-frequency word use ($F(2, 138) = 37.025, p < .001$) and academic word use ($F(2, 138) = 47.986, p < .001$). The results of the statistical analyses for each measure reveal that age-related change can indeed be observed, though not across the board.

Interestingly, figure 1 shows that there was no marked change in academic word use in this data set between years 9 and 11, a Tukey test indicating no significant difference between the mean scores of years 9 and 11 ($p = .976$). On the other hand, the use of lower-frequency words increased significantly between years 9 and 11 ($p = .002$). Significant change was also observed in lexical usage between years 11 and 13. Marked change can be seen both in terms of lower-frequency word use ($F(2, 138) = 37.025, p < .001$), and academic word use ($F(2, 138) = 47.986, p < .001$).

Figure 1: Mean percentages (y axis) of academic word use and “beyond-3000” word use across year levels (x axis)



Teacher interview analyses

RQ 2: What is the role of the literate lexicon in the New Zealand secondary school context, as observed by secondary school teachers?

The teacher interviews revealed that command of the literate lexicon was seen as affecting New Zealand secondary school students in three key ways. Firstly, knowledge of high register, academic words was regarded as fundamental for accessing the school curriculum. Secondly, teacher participants reported that this same vocabulary served students well when it came to expressing their ideas, especially in written form. And finally, knowledge of the literate lexicon was viewed as being integral to school success. These three factors will be discussed in turn below.

The literate lexicon for accessing the curriculum

A prominent theme in four teacher interviews was the importance of vocabulary for understanding the language through which students are taught. It was

emphasized that without this understanding, learning becomes difficult, if not impossible. As Anne noted, “If they’ve got a limited vocab then there are just so many words... that they don’t understand, or they get a different picture”. This lexical gap between the students’ vocabulary and the curriculum can be observed in terms of the language used for teaching, but also in terms of the language used in literary texts which students are expected to discuss and analyse. As Lou noted, “Right now the kids are reading critical works and some of them are saying, well I don’t even understand this”. A further way in which gaps in vocabulary were seen to impact on access to the curriculum is through understanding assessment requirements. Referring to vocabulary, Kate outlined the issue thus: “If the kids don’t understand what they’re being asked to do, they have to figure out first of all what does this mean, and then what’s the process I have to go through”. Evidently, lack of understanding with regard to assessment requirements raises serious implications for students’ ability to succeed in such assessments, a factor which is discussed in further detail below.

The literate lexicon for expression

It became apparent in the teacher interviews that a strong literate lexicon greatly helped students’ ability to express themselves. Without a wide range of the right vocabulary at their disposal, students struggled to convey more complex ideas, and to explain their ideas with a degree of precision. Rachel explained this as, “Sometimes they’re at a loss to find the words to mirror their level of thinking. So if they’re dealing with quite sophisticated ideas and they haven’t got the vocab they’re unable to develop those insightful comments.” Interestingly, Anne described a situation outside the academic sphere in which a lack of high-register vocabulary may affect adolescents. Her students were required to phone up potential employers and ask for a work placement as part of a work experience project. She reported that many students struggled with this task because “they didn’t have that formal vocabulary”. Anne reflected that “it’s a use of vocabulary, different registers – a lot of these kids just aren’t used to that formal way of speaking”.

The literate lexicon for achievement

Beyond assisting students to convey their ideas, use of vocabulary from the literate lexicon was seen as a key building block in the making of a quality essay. This was particularly significant when it came to achievement during the NCEA years. Meredith described the use of advanced vocabulary as “the difference from achieved to merit to excellence”; Bridget similarly noted that “the reality is if you want to impress a marker, gain those top grades, you generally use a bigger, more sophisticated, more complex vocabulary”. Two key factors behind the link between sophisticated vocabulary use and school achievement were identified. Firstly, three teachers reported that the value of using advanced vocabulary was in

the resulting variety of word use, noting that repetition of the same words could make a piece of writing uninteresting. One example was that if a student who chooses to use words like “significant” or “noteworthy” rather than repeating the word “interesting” all the time, that piece of writing reads better than that of a student who doesn’t use such words. Secondly, as outlined above, use of sophisticated vocabulary was viewed as essential for the level of expression required in assessments, with students necessarily having to use the type of vocabulary befitting the academic written register in order to fulfil assessment requirements.

Discussion

The findings from this study show marked growth of two aspects of the literate lexicon between the period of 15-18 years, confirming that marked changes in lexical development may be observed in the period between mid and late adolescence. Significant change ($p < .001$) was observed between years 11 and 13 in both lower-frequency word use and academic word use. This is in contrast to more modest change in lower-frequency word use occurring between early and mid-adolescence ($p = .002$), and no significant change with regard to academic word use ($p = .976$). With low-frequency word use linked to vocabulary size (Malvern et al., 2004), heightened use of such vocabulary across the secondary school years could be seen as a sign of steady expansion of secondary school students’ mental lexicons during these years, which picks up the pace particularly from year 11 onward. While this aspect of vocabulary development is observed across the secondary school years, academic word use does not markedly grow until the beyond year 11. It is perhaps no coincidence that this coincides with the onset of NCEA, the national assessments all New Zealand secondary school students are required to complete. As use of academic words is seen as showing an awareness of written register norms, the jump in academic vocabulary observed in the year 13 data lends weight to Bar-Ilan and Berman’s (2007, p.27) proposal that secondary school students are increasing their understanding of writing as a “special discourse style”, as well as Halliday’s (1979) observation that during adolescence students become increasingly aware of differences in register, and beyond this, they begin to possess the metalinguistic competence to adapt their language accordingly. With NCEA requiring students to regularly produce academic essays which will be assessed and in some cases count toward their final grades for the year, students are given multiple opportunities to develop their abilities in the academic written register. Notably, however, these effects are not seen in the early years of adolescence, with levels of academic word use showing no observable change between years 9 and 11. Interestingly, this spike in lower-frequency and academic word use after year 11 (ages 15-16) mirrors findings from Coxhead et al.’s 2015 study of receptive vocabulary, which showed that between ages 15 and 16 receptive vocabulary size increased at a significantly greater rate than at any other stage of adolescence. Together these findings suggest that age 15-

16 may be a key period for lexical growth within this high decile population, coinciding with the first year of national assessments.

Further, findings from the teacher interviews revealed that growth of the literate lexicon has crucial implications for students in the secondary school context. Reflecting findings from empirical studies demonstrating considerable links between vocabulary size and achievement (e.g. Pedrini & Pedrini, 1975; Turner & Williams, 2007; Snow, White & Lawrence, 2009; Townsend et al., 2012), teacher participants noted perceptible links between students' vocabulary use and the marks they gain in their writing. Additionally, findings revealed possible factors behind these links: namely, vocabulary from the literate lexicon enables students to express more complex lines of thought, and allows students greater variety in their expression; students with an extensive lexical repertoire to draw from are less likely to fall back on the same words repeatedly, such as "interesting" and "important". Notably, teacher interviews revealed that beyond the expression of more sophisticated ideas, the use of high-register vocabulary carries distinct value when it comes to assessment, particularly from year 11 onward, when NCEA assessments begin. This is possibly linked to the idea discussed above that use of academic vocabulary indicates awareness of and adherence to academic written register norms. From this, we could infer that when producing written work students are assessed not just on their abilities within the subject, but also on their mastery of the academic written register. While teachers representing all year levels observed the importance of vocabulary for achievement in written assessments, it is possible that teachers of year 11-13 classes are particularly conscious of the role vocabulary can play, leading them to place greater focus on vocabulary in their teaching.

Conclusion

The present study offers a unique contribution to the study of adolescent vocabulary growth within the New Zealand context. Whereas prior international research has for the most part compared written lexical usage between the beginning and the end of adolescence, the present study sought to compare lexical usage as it occurs at three different stages spanning adolescence, and extended the focus to consider the role of this vocabulary within the secondary school context.

Findings suggest that significant development does take place during adolescence, and what's more, that this is a high-stakes process for secondary school students. The literate lexicon was seen by teachers to be integrally linked to the school curriculum, affecting students' abilities to access curricular content, to express themselves in written work, and attain good marks for their writing. Particularly salient to note is teachers' emphasis of the importance of advanced vocabulary during the NCEA years; this corresponds with quantitative findings of a jump in

vocabulary use from year 11 (the beginning of NCEA) and year 13 (the final year of NCEA).

Additional research is required to investigate this correlation, as it raises further questions as to the nature of this development: do heightened task requirements lead to greater lexical gains? Does the diversity of subjects studied in the senior years lead to uptake of academic and lower-frequency vocabulary? Or, are students more cognitively developed by the later years of adolescence, and therefore better-equipped to acquire and use such advanced vocabulary? While present study has provided new quantitative data to further our understanding of advanced vocabulary acquisition during this critical period, it is clear that more research of a similar nature is needed to see if the patterns of written vocabulary use observed here are shown in other secondary school populations. The qualitative findings reported here show that the process of acquisition is important for students' success in the educational sphere and beyond, and that teachers are acutely aware of the currency of students' lexical resources.

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SCAFFOLDING LEARNER WRITING STRATEGIES IN AN ESL SECONDARY CLASS IN THE SEYCHELLES: A SOCIOCULTURAL PERSPECTIVE

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Abstract

This research draws on the metaphor of scaffolding from sociocultural theory to explore how an English as a Second Language (ESL) teacher provided scaffolded instruction to his ESL students during writing lessons. Evidence in this study suggests that the teacher mostly made use of two main types of instructional scaffolding: bridging and modeling. As evidenced in this study, these two types of scaffolding may lead eventually to students' use of writing strategies, but were not adequate to foster and sustain writing strategies development. The teacher attempted to teach many writing skills at a time and his scaffolding focused on a wide collection of writing strategies (e.g., charts, plan, graduated questions and thinking-prompt). However, evidence also suggests that he did not give enough attention to how he could systematically support writing strategy development in his students. The study sheds light on the complex process that mastering the teaching of writing strategies requires and the vital role that the teacher ought to play in the development and understanding and use of writing strategies. The study underlines that teaching writing strategies requires thoughtful planning of how to support strategy development in students, and has to be co-constructed and practised by both the teacher and students.

Key Words: Sociocultural theory, mediation, scaffolding, zone of proximal development, learner writing strategies, English as a Second Language.

Introduction

Developing effective writing skills is one of the most difficult and complex forms of social and cultural activity. Vygotsky (1978) argued that the development of complex cognitive processes, such as writing, is facilitated by social interactions in cultural contexts. Certain necessary conditions are needed for English as a Second Language (ESL) learners to develop into successful writers. A number of studies have shown that language learning success, particularly writing, is at least partially or potentially related to the use of learner writing strategy use, and through strategic writing instructional scaffolding, students may develop into more autonomous learners (Anderson, 1990; Chamot, 2004; Cohen, 1998; Macaro,

2006; Oxford, 1990). While these studies provided strong evidence for the use of strategies and an indication of a general pattern of strategies used by successful and less successful learners, they failed to provide a thorough analysis of the ongoing process of cognitive change and development that occurs within social interactions. Sociocultural researchers were, in the words of Donato and MacCormick (1994), pushing forward the notion that “emergence of strategies is a process directly connected to the practices of cultural groups through which novices develop into competent members of these communities” (p. 453). There are a number of ways through which teachers can assist students in developing into competent strategic writers from the sociocultural perspective. One such way is scaffolding. This study examines the extent to which an ESL teacher scaffolded the development of writing strategies of secondary school students in the Seychelles. It contributes to a small but growing body of research from a sociocultural perspective, on how discourse of a teacher scaffolded the development of writing strategies of secondary school ESL students.

Literature review and theoretical basis

Zone of proximal development

The zone of proximal development (ZPD) is one of Vygotsky’s (1978) most influential concepts, which is particularly relevant to the teaching of writing to ESL learners. Vygotsky (1978) defined the term ZPD as:

The distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers (p. 86).

Strategy instruction from a sociocultural perspective involves the teacher, the more knowledgeable in the sociocultural context of the classroom, who assists students understand and develop writing strategy usage through social interaction (Vygotsky, 1978). According to Tharp and Gallimore (1988), by adopting the concept of ZPD, teachers provide the assistance necessary to bring the learner to a higher level through the zone and to a greater independent capacity.

Scaffolding

Scaffolding as a metaphor for the support offered by teachers to learners, and learner to learner. It is often used in conjunction with the sociocultural constructs of the ZPD. The term scaffolding, which is compatible with the ZPD, puts emphasis on the structure or guidance that a more experienced person provides in interaction so that a novice can extend to higher levels of achievement. With reference to the construct of scaffolding, assisted performance involves not simply helping to do but helping to know how to do (Gibbons, 2003). In investigating

social interaction between mothers and young children, Bruner (1996, p. 60) went on to define scaffolding as:

A process of “setting up” the situation to make the child’s entry easy and successful and then gradually pulling back and handing the role to the child as he becomes skilled enough to manage it (p. 60).

Wood, Bruner and Ross (1976, p. 98) offered six features of successful scaffolding that can also be applied to help older learners in various learning contexts: (1) recruiting the tutee’s interest in the task; (2) reducing the degree of freedom in the task so that the tutee can manage the task; (3) maintaining goal direction; (4) marking critical features; (5) controlling frustration; and (6) modeling solutions to the task. Teachers apply these features in social interaction. In turn, learners extend their learning in order to reach higher levels of competence.

Drawing on the work of Mariani (1997), Gibbons and Hammond (2005) pointed out what they saw as the crucial nature of teacher support and went on to describe what constitutes an effective and ineffective classroom:

[An] Effective classroom is one where there is both high challenge and high support for students. Ineffective classrooms are those where there is high challenge but inadequate support (resulting in learner frustration), low challenge but high support (‘feel good’ classrooms where students operate in their comfort zones but where little learning occurs), and low challenge and low support (classrooms where boredom sets in and where behavioural problems are likely outcome) (p. 9).

Gibbons and Hammond (2005) concluded that scaffolding is more likely to take place in classrooms with high challenge and high support.

Drawing on her study of teaching writing, Englert (1992) applied a sociocultural approach to show how teachers can scaffold learning to promote development within students’ learning zones. These are:

- Asking students a series of graduated questions such as: “What are we doing here?”, “Why are we doing this?” In this way students do not learn in what Englert (1992) called a “rigid, lock-step fashion that ignores the knowledge and the needs of the students” (p.162).
- Using students’ everyday knowledge about writing which he/she transforms into metacognitive knowledge by making that knowledge and experience the object of study. For example, the teacher can help students examine their own writing strategies by asking questions such as “What are we doing here?”, “Why are we doing this?” These questions help the students to see the relationship of their strategies to performance.

- Relinquishing strategies to students by providing think-sheets that prompt the inner language for thinking, and supported students' conversations as they jointly constructed texts and monitored their activities.

Walqui (2006) identifies six main types of instructional scaffolding which are salient in assisting English language learners' performance in English as a second language. These are:

Modeling Students are given clear examples of what is requested of them for imitation. For example, the teacher can use examples of student work for demonstration purposes. Such examples may serve to set performance guidelines or standards, and encourage and stimulate students by the evidence of past students' progress in the accomplishment of similar tasks. In addition to modeling tasks and activities and sharing examples of students work, teachers model appropriate language use for the performance of specific academic functions, such as describing, comparing, summarizing and evaluating.

Bridging Teachers should make students feel that their everyday knowledge is valued and desired in class. A common approach to do that is to activate students' prior knowledge. Bridging is also helping students to establish a personal link between the student and the subject matter, showing how new material is relevant to the student's life here and now. Other ways of bridging include asking students to share personal experiences related to the theme introduced in the lesson. Van Lier (1996) agreed that making connections between personal experiences and conceptual understandings is a valuable learning strategy. Walqui (2006) stated that when making those connections, it is wise to ignore students' nominations of erroneous information. The focus should be on helping students know how much they already know about a topic. However, Walqui (2006) also cautioned, "it becomes important to address misinformation and incorrect connections if it appears they will be stumbling blocks later" (p. 172).

Contextualising Contextualising involves teachers embedding academic language, which is often dry and dense, in a sensory context by using manipulative resources such as pictures, a few minutes of a film and other types of media, such as authentic objects and sources of information. This will make language accessible and engaging for students. Verbal contextualisations may also be used by creating analogies based on students' experiences.

Schema Building This involves teachers activating students' schema and making them ready to accept new connections. Schema or clusters of meaning that are interconnected are how we organize knowledge and understanding. For example, use of organizers may be used to walk students through the most important pieces of information that will be discussed.

Re-presenting Text Teachers invite students to begin the appropriation of new language by engaging the students in activities that transform the linguistic

constructions they found modeled in one genre into forms used in another genre. In terms of language use, this continuum starts with:

- Asking students to say what is happening (e.g., drama, dialogue);
- Asking students to say what happened (narratives, reports);
- Asking students to say what happens (generalizations in exposition);
- Asking students to say what may happen (tautologic transformations and theorizing).

Developing Metacognition Teachers help students manage their thinking, this includes four aspects:

- Applying learnt strategies while doing an activity;
- Choosing from the most effective strategic option for the particular activity;
- Monitoring, evaluating and adjusting performance during activity;
- Planning for future performance based on evaluation of past performance.

However, Lantolf and Thorne (2006) cautioned that the use of scaffolding techniques by a teacher does not necessarily mean that some ZPD-related process is being activated. Gibbons (2003) listed two criteria that determine whether a particular example of help can be considered as scaffolding. First, evidence must show whether a learner has successfully completed the task with the teacher's help. Second, there must be evidence of the learner's achieving at a greater level of independent competence as a result of the experience. Swain, Kinnear and Steinman (2010) explained that in construction the withdrawal of the scaffold is a planned and systematic act. However, "in teaching, the support falls apart rather suddenly and at inopportune times. The lesson may end without time for debriefing; the supply teacher who perhaps began the process leaves and does not return, the dictionary that provided the scaffold disappears, the student changes classes, and the new teacher does not continue the construction of the scaffold" (pp. 26-27).

The present study

This is a case study taken from a larger study of primarily qualitative research, using an ethnographic approach. Interviews, classroom observations and meetings were complemented by audio-recording, transcription and field notes.

Context of the study

The teacher and the class I observed over the course of five 40-minute English lessons was in one secondary school, which drew its student population from a mixture of low and middle socioeconomic sections of the main island, Mahe, in the Seychelles. The class was comprised of approximately 25 students who were in their second year of the school. The class was arranged in the traditional way of

teacher at the front and students at desks in rows. Sometimes students were organized into groups with the teacher sitting or standing at the front of the room. The teacher had designed the lessons to help develop writing strategies in his students. The class was learning how to write a story. The teacher conducted lessons around the following topics: choosing a topic; planning a story, composing a story, and revising a story.

The teacher structured class time, which encouraged interaction with peers and himself. He also made use of whole-class discussions. On a typical day students would be engaged in whole-class discussions led by the teacher with opportunities to work in pairs and groups. The teacher followed a sequence of events in each class observed. For example, the teacher would attract students' attention, then introduce a task or set tasks to be performed. While students were on task, the teacher would go around the room observing or providing help if asked. After tasks were completed, the teacher would conduct plenary sessions revolving around what the students had done in groups. Classes usually ended with assignment of tasks to be done as homework, thereby extending the activity structure beyond the classroom.

Participants

The teacher was in his early twenties and had a Seychelles local Diploma Part Two in Education. The teacher had been teaching for three and half years in this school, ever since completing his teacher training. He is a Seychellois and English is his second language. Students were native speakers of Creole and were 13-14 years old, in their second year in that secondary school. They had been learning English as a second language since the age of five. According to the teacher, the students were average performers in English.

Data collection procedures

There were five 40 minute observations over a 3 month period on a mutually negotiated basis. All audio-recordings were subsequently transcribed. Field notes of the observations were used to describe the class and contextualize the meetings based on the observations. A digital audio-recorder was placed in the teacher's pocket to record the teacher's talk during the lessons observed.

Classroom talk and meetings were transcribed fully. Given that my main concern was with the content of what the participants said, I transcribed towards the 'denaturalism' end (Oliver, Serovich & Mason, 2005). However, I made sure that I transcribed every word speakers said and I included some pauses, gestures, and prosodic features (e.g., talking loudly) where they seemed salient to me. This ensured that potential themes did not get lost in the transcription stage and that the linguistic context was preserved, making it easy during data analysis to check connections between themes and categories.

The research was carried out in accordance with the ethics guidelines of Victoria University of Wellington's Human Research Ethics Committee. Approval for the study was also obtained from the relevant institutions in the Seychelles. Consent was obtained through written information sheets and consent forms. No ethical issues arose.

The research question addressed in this paper is:

1. To what extent did a teacher use two types of instructional scaffolding—bridging and modeling—to help students develop learner writing strategies during the writing process?

Data analysis

Analysis began with the transcriptions. Transcribed examples are selective in that they are relatively short, easily understood, and make the point well. Although examples are selective, it is claimed that the point they illustrate applies generally to the issue being discussed. Making that claim stronger would require the findings and the analysis of all relevant examples. This, however, is impossible given word limitations. Furthermore, a sample of 40 minutes talk in the class may not be representative of interaction in general in this class.

The excerpts analyzed here were selected from three reflective meetings with a teacher, the audio-digital recordings of classroom, and observational notes of a teacher in the implementation phase of the larger study, which lasted for three months. Initially, I used a grounded theory approach (Strauss & Corbin, 1998) to constantly compare data in different lessons in the teacher's class in order to generate meaningful categories. While working with the same data again, I found that the sociocultural theoretical framework also had the potential to make sense of categories generated from the initial analysis. I therefore recategorised the teacher's talk under the following instructional scaffolding: 'bridging and modeling'.

Presentation of data sources

Data sources are designated by abbreviations that identify the participant involved, data source, and the date the data were collected, as illustrated in these examples:

(CO/TC/5/9/2011) refers to classroom observation in Teacher C's class 5th September 2011.

(RM1/TC/23/9/2011) refers to first reflective meeting with Teacher C on September 2011.

(FN/CY/22/6/2011) refers to field notes taken on 22nd June 2011 in classroom Y.

Findings and discussion

In this section, I present the findings and interpret the data in the light of existing theoretical and empirical literature to answer the research question: To what extent did a teacher use two types of instructional scaffolding—bridging and modeling—to help students develop learner writing strategies during the writing process?

Students' turns are given to provide the fullest appropriate context for describing and interpreting the intention and the work of the teacher's discourse. The findings are presented in three main sections: (1) Bridging: "sharing personal experiences"; (2) bridging: "Activating students' prior Knowledge"; and (3) modeling.

Bridging: Sharing personal experiences

Evidence in this study suggests that the teacher's attention to scaffolding was often focused on many strategies that he viewed as fundamental to writing a story. Consistent with Walqui (2006), the teacher provided instructional scaffolding by using bridging approaches to help learners learn the concept of 'planning'. For example, he encouraged the students to share personal experiences related to the theme introduced in the lesson, namely 'planning'. This is illustrated in the following classroom excerpt:

Excerpt 1

	Teacher	Student	Observer's comments
1.	All right Sue give us give me your response? How do you feel before you start doing the assessment before the exam before you start writing?		
2.		Erm I feel bad because I do not know what to write.	
3.	Feel bad because you do not know what to write		
4.	Anyone else?		

In line 1, the teacher nominated Sue to say how she felt before she started writing under examined conditions. Sue replied by saying she felt bad because she did not know what to write (line 2). The teacher repeated Sue's response thus acknowledging and incorporating it into the flow of the discourse and immediately went on to invite further suggestions from the class. The question (line 1) driving this dialogue prompted the other students to share their feelings and experiences before they started to write:

“Under pressure.”

“Don’t know what to write.”

“Scared if you make a mistake.”

“Have to think about how to write a good story.”

“Feel anxious.”

“Feel excited.”

“Confused.”

The teacher helped students make connections between personal experiences and conceptual understandings which is a valuable learning strategy (Van Lier, 1996).

Bridging: Activating students’ prior knowledge

The teacher also often used another type of bridging approach to scaffold students’ learning. He activated students’ prior knowledge by helping to establish a personal link between the students and the subject matter (Walqui, 2006). In Englert’s (1992) view this is using the students’ everyday knowledge and experience as the objects of study. The following excerpt is illustrative.

Excerpt 2

	<i>Teacher</i>	<i>Student</i>	<i>Observer’s comments</i>
1.	Ok now so you have chosen your story all of you let’s pretend you have chosen your story, before you write your story what do you usually do? Give me an honest response. What do you usually do?		A few students talk simultaneously. unclear
2.	Tell me the truth I want to hear the truth. It doesn’t matter yeah.		
3.		You write some points.	
4.	Usually you write some points ok why?		The student a girl talks softly. I cannot hear what she says.
5.		Tell you which points should go in each paragraph.	

In response to the the teacher’s question in line 1 about what they do before they write their story, a student answered “you write some points” (line 3). The teacher’s question in line 1 is what Wood, Bruner and Ross (1976) referred to as a key feature of effective scaffolding: “recruiting the tutee’s interest” (p. 98) and

what Lidz (1991) called drawing on students' past experiences. Through this question, the teacher activated one student's prior knowledge of his pre-writing strategies. As was his custom, the teacher repeated the student's response thus acknowledging and incorporating it into the flow of the discourse, and in line 3, immediately went on to ask the student to give reasons for his response. The student said "tell you which points should go in each paragraph" (line 5). The teacher was not only attempting to help his students to understand their own writing needs or problems but was also seeking what his students could do on their own without assistance to understand what pre-writing strategies they were already using as a starting point for introducing planning and "why it is important to plan" (see line 1 in excerpt 3 below). As Lantolf (2000) pointed out "the ZPD is an extremely fruitful concept for understanding and more accurately assessing the full extent of development of an individual or group" (p. 80). Excerpt 3 illustrates this.

Excerpt 3

	Teacher	Student	Observer's comments
1.	Alright so {Teacher briefly looks at his notes on the teacher's desk} why is it important to plan your story? Before you write why is it important to plan?		
2.		For you not to make mistakes.	
3.	So that you don't make mistake. Come on give me some response all of you. You're supposed to know we've been doing that since S. one. Yes.		Students are silent.
4.	Yes.		
5.	SHHHHH		
6.		For you not to lose where you gonna write.	
7.	For you not to get lost for you not to be like some people have writers' block you don't know what to write at the end because you haven't planned you're froze you don't know what exactly what you need to put in this paragraph and this where most of you have difficulty.		
8.	Ok now what when you		

plan how do you plan
usually do you write a
whole sentence or you
write bullet points to
help you?

9. Divide the story.
10. Or do you divide the
story introduction
development
conclusion?
11. You write everything
together?
12. No divide. SS
13. You divide who else?
14. In points. SU
15. You write in points.
Brainstorm. SU
16. You brainstorm.
17. And before you write a
story what questions that
go in your mind? Before
you write the story give
some response before
you write. Ki bann
keksoz ki zot mazzinen
dan zot lespri? (What are
the things that you think
of?)
18. You don't question
yourself, like for
example what am I
going to write right
now? Did I choose the
right topic? you don't
ask yourselves those
questions?
- Students are quiet

In Excerpt 3, the teacher initiated a question about why planning was important and called for participation (line 1). In line 3, the teacher tried to break the silence by recalling students' prior knowledge of planning. However, the students' understanding about planning were not to make mistake (line 3) and "for you not to lose where you gonna write" (line 6), which the teacher recast as "mental block" in line 7. An important role is played by the teacher's repetitions of a previous student's contribution (lines 13, 14, 15 16). It acted as "pointing" procedures that facilitated the students' information. The teacher is making students' "entry easy" (Bruner, 1996, p.60)) as illustrated in the number of students' turns generated in this excerpt (see lines 8, 9, 12, 14, 15). On the other hand, an examination of the students' responses in the excerpt 3 suggests that answering "why is it important to plan a story" was not really within the abilities of these students (see lines 2 and 6). The students needed more support from the teacher to arrive at more concise

answers to the question asked. However, the teacher's reaction to the students' difficulties was to ask students another question about how they plan their story (line 8) instead of providing support that would enable them to know why they have to plan their story.

As the lesson unfolded, the teacher helped the students examine their own writing strategy and the relationship of these strategies by asking graduated questions (Englert, 1992) such as: "What am I going to write right now?", "Did I choose the right topic?". At this point, it could be suggested that the teacher was trying to help students not to learn in a "rigid, lock-step fashion that ignores the knowledge and the needs of the students" (Englert, 1992, p.162). This is exemplified in the excerpt 4.

Excerpt 4

Teacher	Students
1.	How was how will the character be?
2. Ok what is the role of the character in the story? Yes.	
3.	What's going to happen in the story?
4. What's going to happen in the story?	
5.	How will the story end?

The students were able to produce good examples of questions (see lines 1, 3, 7) that skilled writers pose to themselves by following the teacher's example in line 18 in excerpt 3. Through this approach, the teacher created the conditions for students to adjust their previous knowledge and accommodate new information (e.g., questions that skilled writers ask themselves), which could thus increase the level of their awareness of how to plan a story. According to Gibbons (2003), this is one important element of successful scaffolding.

Modeling

Evidence in this study also suggests that the teacher attempted to model writing tasks using a number of symbolic mediators (Englert 1992; Walqui, 2006). Before doing that, he placed students in groups where they were required to plan a story, suggesting that he was offering the students a sheltered context in which to try out their understanding of how to plan a story. As the students went about their assigned work, he would walk around the classroom listening to discussions and provided assistance when called upon. Straight after the group work, he conducted a plenary session where each group was asked to present their plans to the class. He asked the students to comment on each other's plans. He also commented on the plans by pointing out their weaknesses and strengths and suggesting how the plans could be improved. Such task has potential to determine the extent to which

students could plan their work independently and established “the level of potential development as determined through problem solving in collaboration with more capable peers” (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86).

He concluded the lesson by putting on the board a written thinking-prompt (see figure 1 below) which he called ‘tips’.

Figure 1: Black Board Tips

Tips

Choose my topic carefully.

Take a few seconds and ask yourself those questions:

Why am I writing this story?

To whom am I writing this story? (audience)

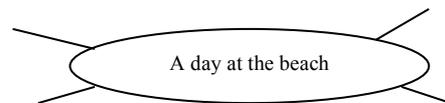
Who are the characters and what are their roles?

The thinking process will help you plan effectively.

When planning you can use different methods:

e.g.

a) spider diagram



b) listing down (bullet points)

- Describe Miss Kelly’s physical appearance.
- How she helps me in the classroom.
- Why is she my favourite teacher?

The thinking-prompt resembles the thinking sheets used by Englert et al. (1991), which were designed to “help students consider an array of strategies related to identifying their audience and purpose, retrieving relevant ideas from background knowledge, and developing a plan that subsumed groups of brainstormed ideas in categories” (p. 345). They also make self-talk and text-structures for writing a story visible to the students (Englert et al., 1991). Similarly, Englert (1992) described think-sheets in the CSIW curriculum as a means to activate writing strategies for planning, organising, drafting, editing and revising. The think sheet, a type of symbolic mediator, served as instructional scaffolding to give clear examples of what was requested of the students when planning their work.

The teacher went through the think sheet with students and highlighted the strategies (e.g., spider diagram) that good writers use to plan their story. He also pointed out the questions that the writer should answer to him/herself in the process of writing the narrative. Students were asked to copy these thinking-prompts as a resource to help them in their writing. According to Englert (1992), the thinking prompt has a number of potentials to help students with a task that they could not accomplish on their own: (1) it is a strategy that promotes literacy development within students’ ZPD, (2) it helps students to take ownership of the writing strategies as they move into a phase in which they write about self-selected

topics; and (3) it stimulates inner language for thinking and supporting students' conversation with others or themselves when constructing and monitoring texts (Englert, 1992).

In another lesson, the teacher posted two charts on the blackboard. Chart one was a plan about a story entitled 'Mysterious Island' and Chart two was about the 'stages' of the writing process. As he did with the thinking-prompts, he went through each one of them while his students listened to him. Students were again required to copy those two charts. However, I did not observe students making use of the thinking-prompts, plan and chart.

The teacher also used his students' own writing experiences to support learner writing strategies development. He showed students samples of finished work or textbook model stories (Walqui, 2006). He conducted classroom discussion often around the specific traits that made such students' writing either successful or unsuccessful. In so doing, he familiarised his students with the writing-genre, narrative, that he expected them to write later.

Students' work and models of effective and ineffective texts, as used by the teacher, set performance standards that are supposed to encourage and stimulate students by the evidence of past students' progress in the accomplishment of similar tasks (Walqui, 2006). In this study, the teacher pointed out new vocabularies that students could use to enhance their own writing. He guided the students to identify the adjectives in the effective text which were new to them. As in Gibbons and Hammond's (2005), study, the use of students' work and models of stories were "mediational text" (p. 18) in that they provided the focal point for the analysis of story, character, and descriptive language.

In our first reflective meeting, the teacher reported some success in the way he taught students how to write:

Erm after using implementing the strategies that we've suggested in the last meeting I try them in my class when I put them in groups, discussing bring out points, erm I see a great change in the way they write their stories. Most of them before they wrote not a good story but it lacks some creativity like XXX said now they are thinking first, they are planning, they are looking at their errors before submitting their work. I'm very happy with them (RM1/TC/25/9/2011).

The teacher confirmed that his students were making use of the strategies he 'implemented' in his class when planning their stories. In their study, Gibbons and Hammond (2005) found that teachers supported students in developing understanding of concepts through providing access through a range of semiotic systems such as wall charts, graphs, maps, photographs, diagrams and pictures, and mathematical notation. They posited that the use of other semiotic systems, in

addition to language, not only supported students' comprehension of the language, but also in themselves helped students to construct meanings (p. 16).

However, two months later, in another reflective meeting the teacher in this study reported that his students had "gone back to square one" (RM3/TC/22/11/2011). He acknowledged that the students were no longer using the strategies he taught them and they needed more support:

They are too weak right now, they need more support, so I've been asking other teachers how to help to teach them how to write better. It will take time. I can see only two students doing well in their story, the majority of them no. (RM3/TC/22/11/2011).

Effective modeling involves demonstrating to students how to write in that genre—narrative using the strategies (thinking-prompts, chart and plan) he gave them. Asking students to copy the symbolic mediators did not guarantee that students would be able to use them independently. It required the teacher to model aloud how he made use of the symbolic mediators and he participated in planning a story through shared or collaborative writing with the students. Like in Englert's (1992) and Englert et al.'s (1991) CSIW curriculum, the teacher should have applied modeling to every phase of the writing process so that students could hear him think aloud how to accomplish the task at hand. He could have invited his students to co-construct a story with him during which students make suggestions for what to write and how to compose sentences using suitable adjectives. This would have kept them engaged and brought them into the process so that they could more easily imagine themselves writing (Read, 2010). Not until then, should he have asked the students to write independently in the genre.

Two themes emerged in the teacher's data that could provide an explanation for the short-lived success of the instructional scaffolding attempts of the teacher. First, the teacher felt that his students lacked almost all of the writing strategies needed for writing a story and that it was his job to teach them everything. He used a lot of questions to check students' comprehension and request clarification, but with few instances of sequential scaffolding assistance to address students' responses. As a result, although his lessons contained instances of scaffolding processes within teaching events (such as modeling, providing information, thinking prompts, charts and plans), these instances were typically used across diverse writing processes (planning, drafting etc.) and without respect to whether the students could perform these alone. Evidence (RM3/TC/22/11/2011) suggests that he was aware of many of his students' needs but not of the type of support they needed.

Secondly, evidence suggests his inadequate mediation in providing instruction. He changed tasks from a planning task to a teacher-directed copying task (e.g., copying the prompts, plan and chart). In doing so, he was oversimplifying tasks such that little or no thinking was required of the students. There were no instances

where he used other salient features of instructional scaffolding, such as contextualising, schema building, representing text, and developing metacognition (Walqui, 2006). Apart from “recruiting” students’ interest, other Wood et al.’s (1976) instructional scaffolding features were also not observed in the teacher’s practices.

Researchers have proposed an explanation which might be relevant here –the regression or backsliding that has manifested in the linguistic performance of L2 learners. Lantolf and Aljaafreh (1995) argued that learning that arises in Zones of Proximal Development is not a linear process. Similarly, Thompson (2013) pointed out that although some students may master certain skills in one or a series of lessons, they sometimes go back to their previous levels of performance in other lessons that follow. He suggested that forms of assistance, for example, models or collaboration with more capable peers, may need to be repeated or used differently in order to transform learning. Given that the teacher used only two types of Walqui’s (2006) instructional scaffolding, it is also unreasonable to expect these were adequate to enable the students to put the procedures into practice.

Conclusion

From a sociocultural perspective as used in the present study, the teacher attempted to be influential in applying two main scaffolding behaviours (bridging and modeling) in order to help his students reach a higher state of independence when planning a story. What is evident in this study is that the teacher’s approaches to supporting learner writing strategy development consisted of attempting to engage students in (1) recognising their own writing processes and strategies, which serve as a basis for making judgments while writing, for example, deciding what to write, choosing a writing strategy, and (2) engaging students in constructing strategies based on an analysis of their own writing performance and textbook models. However, as reported by the teacher and observed, a major issue was that students’ attempt at using the strategies was shortlived. This could have happened for many reasons.

One reason is that the teacher did not “continue the construction of the scaffold” (Swain et al, 2010, pp. 26-27), but was trying to do too much work which seemed to override any responsiveness to the students’ performance.

Another reason is explained by Thompson (2013): to help students master certain skills, it is important that assistance in the form of models or capable peers may need to be repeated or used in a different order to transform the learning. The teacher did not repeat any of scaffolding procedures but rather changed the nature of the tasks when attempting to scaffold students’ performance. It is the repetition of the desired skill, day in day out, that is key for the student to eventually use it autonomously and without prompting. Forming a new strategic writing habit does

not happen over night. It is a long, laborious, challenging process as evident in this study.

Finally, Lantolf & Aljaafreh, (1995, p. 619) provided empirical support from L2 learning research that Vygotsky's claim that development and performance in cognitive systems is not a smooth linear process, "but entails forward movement and *regression* or what some L2 researchers refer to as backsliding" (p. 619). Therefore, it is possible that although the teacher provided scaffolding, the students slid back, and further efforts would be needed for longer term progress.

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PORTRAITS OF INDONESIAN LANGUAGE LEARNERS AS IMAGINED BILINGUALS

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Abstract

The paper presents “portraits” of learners who desire to be proficient in both Indonesian and English languages and explores these portraits for patterns related to learners’ aspirations and desires. Through this exploration, the study contributes to theory about connections between motivation and identity. This study explores synergies between notions of motivation and “future selves” (Dörnyei, 2009) and interculturality (Kramsch, 2002), and draws on the methodology of portraiture (Lawrence-Lightfoot & Davis, 1997) to emphasise and embody our subjects’ contexts and voices. Primary data were gathered through observations and semi-structured interviews from three key participants relating to their contextual backgrounds and efforts to become bilingual. These portraits suggest that learners’ aspirations of future imagined identities and their desires to belong to local and global communities influence their learning of an additional language. Because of the small scale of the study and the specificity of the sample, the findings cannot necessarily be generalised to a broader population. They are, nevertheless, valuable as portraits of learners becoming bilingual in Indonesia and open the doorway for future studies of Indonesian bilingual language learner identity.

Keywords: Indonesia; portraits; motivation; future selves; foreign language learners; bilingualism; identity

Introduction

Research in second language motivation has been influenced by the work of Gardner and Lambert (1972) who collaboratively introduced the concepts of integrative and instrumental motivation. They described the concepts in relation to learners’ target language from a social psychological approach. Gardner and Lambert defined *integrative motivation* as the learners’ desire to learn a language in order to integrate into the language community psychologically, while

instrumental motivation refers to learners' desire to learn a language for practical purposes. Following Gardner and Lambert and drawing on psycholinguistic theory, Dörnyei (2009) argued that learning a foreign language can be influenced by learners' aspirations, wishes and hopes to form their future identities, while Norton (2000) stated that motivation to learn a foreign language can be influenced by socio-historical and discursive contexts where critical issues of power come into play. Despite their different epistemic stands, the broadly poststructuralist Norton and the psycholinguistic Dörnyei agreed that foreign language learning can help construct learners' future identities. The commensurability of the outcomes of these disparate but influential approaches (Spencer, Pryce, & Walsh, 2014) in the field of language is central to my theoretical framework.

In applying theories about the negotiation and construction of learner identities to the Indonesian context, we argue that the mastery of the additional language, namely English, is not only related to its use as a medium of instruction, but it is also crucial to learners' developing conceptions of themselves as users of English. Thus, it is a vital aspect of language learner identity construction. This study presents portraits of Indonesian learners' motivation, drawing epistemologically and systematically on research studies that outline portraits of bilingual teachers (Fránquiz, Salazar, & DeNicolo, 2011) and presents vivid portraits of language activists (Hornberger, 2014). This paper, then, provides a new perspective on external and cultural factors impacting identities and future selves, particularly in Indonesia as an example of a developing country.

To our Indonesian research context, we apply Dörnyei and Ushioda's (2009) suggestion that identity references *future selves* (Dörnyei, 2009), specifically "the ideal self which refers to the representation of the attributes that someone would ideally like to possess (i.e. a representation of personal hopes, aspirations or wishes)" (pp. 4-5). Therefore, this study applies the concept of future selves to the context of Indonesian bilingual learners through the methodological reconstruction and analysis of portraits of imagined identities. We suggest that understanding their motivation for mastering a second language can draw attention to themes and hence create theories that can assist in attaining the goal of better teaching and learning of English among Indonesians.

At the same time, informed by both poststructuralist and constructivist thought, we need to bear in mind the issues of power inherent in learners' desires to attain fluency in English, join communities where English is the language of communication, and attain the status of bilinguals. In the current study, we propose that narratives of language learning, portraits or *portraitsures* (Lawrence-Lightfoot & Davis, 1997), can help envision learners' identities through the expression of future aspirations. In this way, portraiture is a method of both data collection and presentation, creating stories that can lend themselves to thematic analysis, but which can also stand independently as representations of learner identities.

This paper explores the experiences of a range of Indonesian individuals in becoming proficient bilinguals. It heeds calls for empirical research in Indonesian education because this is under-represented in the global knowledge system (Adnan, 2014; Welch, 2012). Hence, this study aims to make a contribution to knowledge through the reporting of new findings relating to aspirational bilingualism among Indonesian learners. At the same time, it makes a specific contribution to ongoing international research into ways of *doing* and *becoming* in teaching and learning that make real differences to learners' identities as bilingual. The desire to become bilingual is a hook to enhance motivation precisely because it requires the envisaging of ideal but realisable future selves.

The under-representation of studies of Indonesian bilingualism is effectively due to its citizens' reported general lack of mastery of an international *lingua franca* (i.e., English) (Paauw, 2009). However, we assume that many Indonesian learners are motivated to learn a second (or third, or fourth) language. They are motivated by the desire to develop what May, Hill, and Tiakiwai (2004) called a "degree of proficiency" (p. 12) in another language. Our study portrays three Indonesian learners of English in relation to their motivation to learn, use and master this powerful additional language beyond a mere degree of proficiency into the building of confident bilingual selves.

Motivation and future selves

This study draws on an epistemology of motivation and the "theory of selves" (Dörnyei, 2003). Derived from integrative motivational concepts developed by Gardner and Lambert (1972), Dörnyei introduced the concept of L2 selves as it relates to English as a foreign language. Dörnyei (1994) argued that Gardner and Lambert's motivational approach is "grounded in the social milieu rather than in the foreign language classroom" (p. 273) and does not do justice to the psychological realities of learners' contexts. The context of language learning in Indonesia, is that English (or other languages) are considered *foreign* languages (Undang-Undang Republik Indonesia tentang Sistem Pendidikan Nasional [Education System Act] No. 20, 2003). For this reason, Dörnyei's concept of motivation suits the Indonesian contexts in that it allows for language learner identity negotiation both socio-linguistically and psycho-linguistically. We acknowledge that Dörnyei's concept evolves over time, particularly in the context of his bilingual collaborators, most notably Ema Ushioda. Further, we need clearly to account for the problem of *power* inherent in the notion of *desire* to be bilingual, itself encapsulating a desire to be *international*. For this reason we refine our lens in the light of Claire Kramsch's work on interculturality and Bonnie Norton's studies of learner investment and identity, all of which are discussed shortly. First, however, we discuss the usefulness of the work of Zoltan Dörnyei and his collaborators to our study of Indonesian learner identities.

Dörnyei's (1994) notion of *future selves* includes the detailed wishes and identities of learners in relation to the target language. Developing the theory further, Dörnyei (2009) described future selves by referring to the future attributes that are embedded in individual lives as a result of personal wishes. One of the individual attributes or aspirations is to be a proficient target language speaker (May, Hill, & Tiakiwai, 2004). Ushioda and Dörnyei (2009) claimed that "proficiency in the target language is part and parcel of one's ideal or ought-to self, [and] this will serve as a powerful motivator to learn the language because of our psychological desire to reduce the discrepancy between our current and possible future selves" (p. 4). The theory of future selves foregrounds individuals' desires to learn and to use a second/foreign language as a key component of both present motivation and aspirational identity. This imagined identity is most manifest in learners' desire to align themselves with powerful communities of English speakers. Ideal future selves can be realised through the creation of systemic future visions, and in a practical application of theory, Dörnyei and Hadfield (2014) provided a range of activities that activate such visions and impact motivation positively.

From her poststructuralist, Bourdieusian, socially and historically constructed view, Norton (2000) argued that "identity" relates to "how a person understands his or her relationship to the world, how that relationship is constructed across time and space, and how the person understands possibilities for the future" (Norton, 2000, p. 5). These can be imagined communities that include included imagined future relationships, which for current language learners "might even have a stronger impact on their current actions and investment" (Norton, 2013, p. 8). The possibility of future selves, a psycholinguistic concept, resonates with Norton's envisioning of language learner identities as being negotiated with a view to participation in future imagined communities (Kanno & Norton, 2003; Norton, 2013). In a very recent study, Darwin and Norton (2015) described how "imagination allows learners to re-envision how things are as how they want them to be" (p. 46). This notion of identity can be used for the context of Indonesian bilingual learners because they imagine their identities are constructed through negotiation between internal desire and the external worlds. These external worlds involve participation in the international world and involve the need for interculturality.

To account for the powerful desire to be international embodied in learner motivation to aspire to future selves, we recognise that another component of the construction of bilingual identities in Indonesia is that of intercultural or transcultural literacy or competence. Among many scholars, Kramsch (2002) argued that learning a foreign language involves learning other cultures. Specifically, Kramsch stated: "It enables [learners] to encounter people from other cultures with empathy and to shape interpersonal relations along the principles of respect and tolerance, justice and solidarity" (2002, p. 8). In addition, to learn other cultures can be done via "co-operative learning, generative topics and critical thinking" (Saez, 2002, p. 103). The increase of knowledge of other cultures can

lead to the acquisition of intercultural competence (Sercu, 2004). Within this research focusing on aspirational Indonesian bilinguals, it is assumed that learning English as a foreign language can stimulate learners to understand more about English-speaking countries and their ways of being. Thus an express desire for biculturalism or multiculturalism additionally enables Indonesian learners to develop relationships and engage with those from English-speaking countries, possibly because they desire to participate in or even integrate into what Wenger (1998) described as *communities of practice*, where participation in cultural ways of doing and being using the desired additional language is possible though at first peripherally.

As we have emphasised, too few specific studies have been conducted in relation to the fuller participation of Indonesian learners into wider communities. Lamb (2004, 2009) and Lamb and Coleman (2008) used Dörnyei's (2009) "future selves" notion to investigate the influence of self-motivation in learning English as a second language (L2) as a subject at secondary education. Lamb (2009) maintained that Indonesian learners who have invested much in learning English appear to be able to move forwards with "full participation in the wider English speaking community, and towards actualising Ideal L2 self as cosmopolitan Indonesian members of community" (p. 244). This emphasis on the mastery of English for Indonesian learners can impact on their future lives and their participation in communities of practice, characterised here by the use of English as *lingua franca*.

Our study applies these concepts to suggest that there is link between the efforts of Indonesian individuals to become bilingual and contemporary theories of identity construction. Because there is an evident dearth of studies on learning English in Indonesia in relation to the construction of identities, we propose the current study, alongside those of Lamb, as a conversation opener.

Methodology

This qualitative study investigates "a set of interpretive and descriptive patterns of practices that make the world visible. These practices transform the world. They turn the world into a series of representations, including field notes, interviews, and documents" (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003, pp. 4-5). In particular, it employs qualitative portraiture analysis (Lawrence-Lightfoot & Davis, 1997), which has been used in educational (Eckersley, 1997) and language learning identity research (Kearney & Andrew, 2013). Lawrence-Lightfoot and Davis (1997) argued that portraiture seeks *goodness*, uncovering only positive rather negative attributes. Importantly, the portraits presented in this study depict only the positive attributes of learners' motivation and their future identities in relation to language learning, but they also consider their desire for interculturality. The choice of portraits was made in the hope it would help highlight how individual identity or self-concept is linked intrinsically to motivation, so portraits are sites where we observe learners' self-

portrayals of their identities as imagined bilinguals, complicated by the need to become interculturally competent and to aspire to the identifier ‘bilingual’.

This study is a small segment of a larger work. In its wider form, this research involved 33 participants: 15 lecturers and 18 students in three bilingual programmes across three Indonesian universities. For the purpose of this article, we will present three learner participants (pseudonyms: Azizah, Kadir, Gary), all students between the ages of 18 and 30. The reason for choosing Azizah, Kadir and Gary as representatives of the wider sample is that they most evidently portray the different future hopes and aspirations that characterise the wider group of participants. The participants came from three different Indonesian universities and did not know each other. All three participants had experienced international exchange programmes overseas.

The first author, himself a language educator from Indonesia, spent one month at each university site in order to interact with participants. He interviewed the participants about topics relevant to language learning motivation, identity, and interculturality in a process lasting on average 50 minutes, and then the researchers transcribed the interviews. All transcriptions were sent back to the participants for verification and they did not make any changes to the transcriptions. In regard to the three participants’ choice of language for the interviews, Azizah preferred to use more Indonesian, while Kadir and Gary preferred to employ English. During interviews, Kadir, Gary, and Azizah often code-switched between Indonesian and English.

The first author also visited and observed participants in their language learning classrooms at each Indonesian university. During several observations, the interaction between the researcher and participants helped shape the way the researcher observed and presented findings as portraits. The direct observations of their learning process related to how participants used Indonesian and English in classroom contexts. The observations assisted the researchers to access information about the frequency and degree of usage of both languages as media of instruction. After the classroom observations, the participants interacted with the researcher, discussing issues relating to the use of English and Indonesian modes of instruction. The observation notes were sent back to each participant to seek their comments. None of the participants made amendments to the observation notes.

All data were thematically coded in relation to learners’ voices in social and cultural contexts, as part their dialogue with the first researcher (Lawrence-Lightfoot & Davis, 1997). The interaction between the first researcher and Indonesian bilingual learners helped to enable what Lawrence-Lightfoot and Davis (1997) described as *listening for* a story rather than *listening to* a story. Story-telling becomes a negotiated co-construction rather than being an imaginative but impositional retelling on the part of the researcher. We have chosen three Indonesian bilingual learners, and the themes of *exposure to English, motivation,*

and *future ambitions*, as a heuristic or grounded theory-informed way of portraying learners' motivation to learn English and illustrate how English can influence their future identities.

The portraits

Kadir and his wish to contribute to national communities of English

Kadir was a third-year student in a Mathematics bilingual programme. He graduated from an Islamic high school where he experienced immersion not only in English but also in Arabic language. In his Islamic school, he had two days in English, two days in Arabic and two days in Indonesian. Because of his exposure to English, he registered in bilingual programmes for his bachelor studies. He was proud that he achieved a TOEFL score of 520.

Kadir preferred native English-speaking lecturers to teach him so he could have a chance to directly communicate in English. Despite the fact that there were two native speakers of English who were guest lecturers in the bilingual programmes, this was not enough for Kadir to have maximum contact with them. He realised that the challenge for bilingual students was to invite and recruit competent native speakers of English to the university who can teach certain subjects in the bilingual programmes.

After two years in a bilingual programme, Kadir indicated that "one thing for sure is that the intensive use of English expands my vocabulary not only generic words but also specific words and terminologies relating to science education and mathematics". He felt more confident than before in using English words in his written assignments and conversational activities. He reflected that the bilingual programme had triggered his intention to write in his diary using more English than Indonesian words on a daily basis.

For Kadir, learning English had impacted positively on his academic work. For example, he had become more aware of plagiarism via the *Turnitin* software. Kadir commented: "We are told to be academically honest, recognise other people's research, and perform academic work ethically." He noticed that "lecturers often remind us in terms of plagiarism. If we want to continue our studies in English speaking countries, we have to avoid committing plagiarism by citing sources". This plagiarism issue has become an important topic for Kadir to learn since he aspires to pursue further studies in English-speaking countries.

The immersion programme contributed to Kadir's positive attitudes to diversity. Kadir stated: "I learn how lecturers treat students equally and how they respond to students' questions." He further added that "lecturers are very appreciative of the

diversity of ideas among students.” Kadir’s role in this bilingual programme is that of a language ambassador. He commented:

I have learnt a lot from the language ambassador activities. It improved my language ability particularly the foreign languages. There were a lot of activities that you would not expect to support your language ability such as games, storytelling and many biliteracy activities.

Contributing to the national development was part of Kadir’s ambition. Empowered by mandated competence in English, he aimed to teach maths using English as a medium of instruction. This is important for the next generation since English is becoming much more important in Indonesian educational contexts. Kadir stated: “If we introduce English and teach another subject with English earlier, many people will have no problems with English.” Therefore, he imagined English as being embedded and becoming a second language in Indonesia, which could then lead to changing people’s opinions that English is difficult to learn.

Gary and his ambition to contribute to ASEAN communities

Gary was a third-year student in a bilingual Economics programme. Gary completed his secondary education at a vocational high school where he learned practical and employability skills including English. He said: “My major was accounting, but everyone should be able to communicate in English at least for general conversation.” During this period, he did not have any spare time, with a major focus on reading and studying. He regularly had to go directly to evening English classes before going home.

As an Indonesian Chinese background student, he was aware that he had to work hard to win any competitive process including those involved in getting a job. He wanted to speak like a native speaker even though he had a strong Chinese accent. He was proud that he achieved an IELTS score of 6.0, overall. He planned to continue his learning until he reached the “perfect” score.

Learning an additional language influenced his other skills, such as the skill of communication via a presentation in English. Gary had recently returned from an international programme, and he commented:

The use of English in our classroom presentation here [Indonesian university] has helped me a lot when I presented my papers in English-speaking universities overseas. I see there are no differences in terms of organizing points and the way to present papers here and there. I think it is good preparation before enrolling in short courses or going on summer visits overseas.

Gary was also an off-campus activist. He felt that the off-campus community programmes expanded his skills and knowledge in different areas. Gary argued: “I try to contribute back to the community, not only taking but learning with them.” Gary indicated he was more appreciative of literature-based knowledge than before, as a result of learning to write short stories and poems and to participate in art performances. Gary also practiced English tests through free websites. He referred to the following website as an influential and helpful source when he studied English and familiarised himself with English tests: ‘www.examenglish.com’. It was a free website which was full of English exercises. Gary claimed: “It is full of examples and detailed explanations of different kinds of English tests. It is undoubtedly beneficial for me to have practice tests prior to real English tests through the Internet.”

Gary planned to seek employment opportunities not only at the national level but also in the neighbouring ASEAN [Association of South East Asian Nations] contexts. He stated that “using full English can be beneficial for preparing for our final big tasks”. Gary felt “there is a positive connection with me, so I have no doubt that English will enable me to get jobs in Indonesia. That is why I choose to study here rather than continuing overseas”. At the same time, he wished to be part of ASEAN communities when the opportunities open, commenting: “A key requirement to gain access to a teaching position in the ASEAN countries such as Malaysia, Brunei, Singapore, Thailand, and even Timor-Leste is no doubt English.” It was important to have at least a bachelor degree with excellent English. He argued firmly that “this opens up employment opportunities not only for us but also for people from the other ASEAN countries seeking work here. There will be tough competition amongst us.” With English, the opportunities for teaching positions in neighbouring countries were becoming more visible for him. This portrayed his future aspiration either to be part of communities within Indonesian contexts or to represent Indonesia in the ASEAN contexts.

Gary’s imagined future of being able to work or teach in one of the ASEAN countries (Brunei, Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, Vietnam, Laos, Burma, and Cambodia) is reasonably possible. This is due to ASEAN having formalised English as the official language of communication among these nations. Therefore, it is important for member of ASEAN communities to master English in order to contribute in the region. In addition, Gary’s imagining can be realised since the ASEAN Free Trade Council has been established, hence increasing employment mobility among these countries.

Azizah and her aspiration to be part of an international agency

Azizah was a third year political science student who came from a Javanese background. She went to an international school for her junior and senior secondary education in Singapore. Azizah used English as a medium of instruction

for all subjects in the secondary school. It is uncommon for Indonesians to return to study in domestic universities once they have experienced living and studying overseas. She mentioned that the main reason for her studying at an Indonesian university was to re-learn her traditional culture and tradition.

She felt that her current university offered similar subjects as those offered by other universities overseas. She decided to study in the bilingual programme. Because of her background using English as a medium of instruction, she did not have to complete the English proficiency test. She said: “I have checked the [university] website; I came across some awesome professors.” She commented, “Good students have to find good professors.” This is another reason that drove Azizah to return to study in a domestic university.

Azizah indicated that mastering an additional language had impacted her views of other cultures. She had become more inclusive and respectful of others. She stated, “To respect other people’s views and ideas, you have to understand their views as to why we are similar and why we are different.” She asserted that “people cannot just assume they know other people without being part of them.” More importantly, she commented, “We have to grow our own first, then we can appreciate others.” This reflects the idea that learning other languages also involves learning other cultures *and* one’s own, which suggests that Azizah can be considered to be an interculturally-minded person.

Azizah obviously had pride and a desire to preserve the symbolic value of being Indonesian. On any international occasion, she wore local and national costumes. This involved wearing *Batik* (a traditional costume of Indonesians) and was to convey her “Indonesianism – the sense of Indonesia.” Azizah argued:

I love to retain my local identity and when I get the chance to go abroad I love to show them my traditional Batik clothes. It is my identity of being an Indonesian interacting with many people from other countries. That’s how I can keep my identity in a global world. If I don’t have one, it is ridiculous because I love Indonesia, and I love to show my own to the rest of the world of how beautiful it is.

To keep *Bahasa Indonesia* (Indonesian) as the medium of communication is a form of the spirit related to maintaining a sense of nationalism. It is important to have such a spirit particularly in the current borderless global engaged world. Azizah stated, “I love teaching other [international students] some Indonesian words. I love sharing my perspective about Indonesia to others.” Azizah expected that “it will benefit me in making friendships and getting along with people from other cultures. So it will be good to talk with native speakers so that I can assess and feel how far my English has come. This develops in me a strong sense of nationalism”. This marked her desire and motivation to maintain proficiency in both Indonesian and English.

Azizah aspired to work in a United Nations agency: “I can work for the United Nations that represents Indonesia in the world community.” This represented her future self. By mastering English as one of the official languages of the United Nations, could potentially become a member of an international agency community.

Discussion

As we said earlier, these narrative portraits are findings in themselves as well as being a repository for potential thematic analysis. To bring a researcher’s eye to the findings, we witnessed the portraits suggesting that Kadir, Gary and Azizah were highly motivated with clear visions for their future. Their levels of English competency varied, with Gary and Azizah able to use the target language effectively. They both had had relatively more exposure to the English language than Kadir, and thus had higher English competence and confidence to engage in global environments.

This study identified that through the learning of English, Kadir, Gary and Azizah had developed a more inclusive attitude and were manifestly aware of both their own culture and those of others. The findings of this study are consistent with earlier studies that determined that learning other languages is also about learning other cultures (Kramsch, 2002). The development of their intercultural understanding can lead to the acquisition of what Sercu (2004) calls ‘intercultural competence’. Azizah, for example, appeared to be focusing on developing an understanding about herself that was leading then to her learning about others. This cross-cultural knowledge, coupled with new understandings of cultural values will more enable the participants to recognise, accept, behave, and survive in a multifaceted global environment.

In addition, Kadir, Gary and Azizah imagined that they will contribute to different sectors of communities. While Kadir wished to be part of the national community, Gary imagined being part of the ASEAN communities, and Azizah hoped to represent Indonesia on the world stage. Azizah’s studies had enabled her to become more involved in international and global activities while Gary occupied himself with activities related to ASEAN contexts. Kadir seemed more motivated by local and national activities.

Learners’ ambitions about their future reflect what Dörnyei and Ushioda (2009) described as their *ideal* and *possible future selves*. As Lamb (2011) discovered in his study of aspirant Indonesian English learners, their imagined identities lead to greater opportunities for future studies and employment. In our study, the learners’ imagined future selves, engaged nationally, regionally and globally, reflected Wenger’s (1998) belief that “a very peripheral form of participation may turn out to be central to one’s identity because it leads to something significant” (p. 155).

Whether these learners' motivations to integrate occurred at a local or international level, it was clear that a sense of desire to belong to a group characterised by English-speaking was fundamental to their motivation and hence their evolving senses of identity. To the psycholinguistic lens of Dörnyei and his co-researchers, we need to bring the theoretical concepts of *interculturality* and *participation* and move into a critical constructivist space. It is there where we have unpacked the freight of the findings, aware, too, that the Nortonian space of *investment* awaits for further, more nuanced analysis.

Conclusion

Since this research was small-scale study, the findings cannot be generalised to a broader or internationalised population. However, our in-depth exploration of aspirational bilinguals' imagined future selves contributes to insightful theoretical and practical knowledge of the Indonesian tertiary education community. This is particularly so for the use of English and Indonesian as media of instruction, an area much under-represented in academic writing. Future research needs to explore other factors that also impact on the acquisition of an additional language, and also needs to be conducted with larger samples and in multiple sites. Multiple settings would, of course, contribute to broader population samples and extend our findings by providing more comprehensive evidence to complement the findings in this paper. Despite these limitations, this research presents and theorises portraits of bilingual Indonesian learners with the potential for making a contribution to the literature.

This paper offers an insight into the use of portraiture as a methodology to contribute to knowledge about emergent bilingual identities among Indonesian scholars. This methodology provides authentic voices of Indonesian bilingual learners who wish to achieve high levels of proficiency in English as a foreign language. These are valuable because they allow the exploration of learners' motivation and identities through the portraits. We see these Indonesian learners' motivations to master an additional language are shaped by their future imagined identities (Dörnyei, 2009) and desires to belong to defined global and local communities of practice (Wenger, 1998). The level of their involvement is related to their investments in English learning in community contexts during their student years. We also see that their need for English is related to access to the language of the desirable and powerful as an entrance to such communities (Norton, 2000) and enables learners to navigate and to potentially transform themselves (Darvin & Norton, 2015). This research was carried out with successful learners of a foreign language in an Indonesian university context and provides a new perspective on external and cultural factors impacting identities and future selves, particularly in Indonesia as an example of a developing country. Azizah may envisage herself as potentially working for the United Nations to represent Indonesia in the world community, but all aspirant bilinguals in Indonesia, as embodied by Kadir and

Gary, are compelled by the desire to be or become part of a wider community characterised by communication in English.

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REVIEWS

Curry, M. J., & Lillis, T. (2013). *A scholar's guide to getting published in English*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters. ISBN: 978-1-78309-059-4. 174pp.

The authors of this book state that their first aim is to provide scholars from non-Anglophone/multi-lingual backgrounds with opportunities to increase their knowledge of acceptable practices in the English academic publishing arena. The information provided in the book therefore broadly covers socio-political practices, potential networks and resources. Closely related to the primary aim is the second key focus, which is to provide scholars with ways of negotiating their way in the above-mentioned three areas. Not only does the book provide comprehensive guidelines to scholars generally, but it also contains advice to scholars who are in a mentoring or supporting role. In the introduction, Curry and Lillis state that the book provides a series of heuristics, “identifying, exploring and potentially solving problems” which are relevant for people’s goals and experiences in the publishing world where the main goal is “to encourage discussion and informed decision making” (p.1). These authors have published at least one other book and a number of articles in journals such as *English for Specific Purposes* and *TESOL Quarterly*, where they address the plight of multilingual scholars who are attempting to get published in English.

The main body of the book comprises seventeen chapters. Although short and succinct, each one is packed with useful advice, guidelines and resources for the target readership. The first chapter provides the reader with an opportunity to focus on a reflection of the readers’ own personal interests. The second and third chapters step outside personal reflections of individuals to highlight institutional and governmental politics related to publication pressures that impact on scholars. In the following five chapters (Chapters 4 to 8), there is a shift in focus to engaging in academic conversations around conferences and where to get published. Chapters 9 to 11 have a strong emphasis on resources that need to be in place to support scholars. Next, suitable networking, working around publishing gatekeepers and collaborating on publications is the focus of Chapters 12 to 16. In the concluding chapter (Chapter 17), the authors provide some key advice on taking on the task of reviewing and joining editorial boards.

In terms of the internal structure of these chapters, a number of sub-sections are included in most chapters. These include *Suggestions for future actions*, *Thinking about your own practice*, *Scholars’ perspectives on issues*, *Useful resources* and *Related research*. The title of the book highlights its key focus of getting published, but the book offers so much more to the reader. It engages with real scholars, and their journeys around building networks and locating their work in the world of publishing. For those scholars who, due to workload issues and time constraints, find it difficult to read everything in the book, the summary *Information Box* in each chapter could serve as a quick reference guide.

One of the sub-sections that I think needs special mention is the *Scholars' perspectives on issues* in which a cohort of scholars share their experiences around issues they face in the publishing world. Some examples of these shared perspectives include a documented trajectory of a co-authored article from first writing to final publication, a sample of collaboration development between scholars, and views on the experience of attending conferences. I particularly enjoyed the way in which Curry and Lillis (2013) incorporated these shared scholarly experiences into each chapter. The reality for readers on what scholars go through in the process of trying to get published and trying to get promotion becomes very clear through this chapter. Readers will also find the practical approach of the book useful, and will probably find the sense of shared experiences motivating.

One concern I have is that the cohort of scholars whose perspectives are elicited are all from Europe and Eastern Europe contexts. It would have been beneficial for the authors to include experiences of scholars from other multilingual backgrounds, as well such as those from Asian, South American and African contexts. Despite the above-mentioned concern, the book more than delivers what it promises to the target audience. Overall, this book provides a very good reference source for scholars, and not just those from multilingual backgrounds. The authors are to be commended for researching and putting together such a user-friendly book on getting published in an English-dominated platform.

ANTHEA FESTER, University of Waikato

Hyland, K. (Ed.) (2013). *Discourse Studies Reader*. London: Bloomsbury. ISBN: 9781441179821. 347 pp.

Although *Discourse Analysis* is a popular course at Waikato University, I have not taken it. My curiosity was piqued, therefore, by the idea of a reader. Could this book give me an introduction to the study of discourse? Would I even be able to understand key terminology? Ken Hyland explains in his introduction that this is a “sampler” for anyone interested in discourse and discourse analysis. Thirteen different authors contribute chapters to the book, and these are arranged in three parts: research methods, institutional discourses and electronic discourses.

In Paul Baker's *Corpora and discourse analysis*, the first research method discussed is frequency lists. Since discourse analysis is about the choice of words, the frequency of a particular choice can indicate importance. Baker analyses twelve brochures that advertise holidays, and extracts a number of tables from their content.

Using 3-word clusters, phrases with “bar” and “club” were most frequent. To see if the holiday makers were encouraged to drink the alcohol (or just to socialize at the clubs), Baker ran lexical verbs for frequency. The verbs that made the top list were “chill-out” and “relax”, used mostly as activities recommended after hard partying! Next, Baker looked at informal terms in the brochures. These results help fix the demographics of the target audience for age, sex and social class. A student would need to be trained in how to extract the tables from the corpora, but Baker’s excerpt makes the effort seem worthwhile.

Three more research methods for discourse analysis are given. They are *Systemic functional linguistics* by Caroline Coffin, *Metadiscourse* by Ken Hyland and *Critical discourse analysis* by Brian Paltridge. Systemic functional linguistics offers the analogy of language seen as “climate” and “weather”, that is, a system and an instance (p 43). Coffin discusses what is needed in history essays in school. The genre is quite different to other writing asked of students. Ken Hyland authors the excerpt about metadiscourse, which is to do with looking beyond what the writing is about to an analysis of its organisation and the writer-reader relationship. Critical discourse analysis is said to be similar to stylistic analysis in literary criticism. It looks at discourse; for example, newspaper items, in relation to “gender, ethnicity, cultural difference, ideology and identity” (p 89). Interestingly, it is as much about what is “backgrounded” or omitted as what is used or visible in the text.

Part Two of the volume offers a range of examples of discourses studied: school science projects (*School discourse* by Frances Christie and Beverly Derewianka); humour and chatting in the work place (*Small talk at work* by Almut Koester); diseases and their treatment 1730-1965 (*Development of medical discourse* by Britt-Louise Gunnarsson); university lectures and tutorials (*Instructional discourses* by Ken Hyland); and newspaper photos, captions, headlines and texts (*Images in the news* by Monika Bednarek and Helen Caple). I found Part Two very informative; however Part Three was more exciting, as it examined modern media (e.g.blogs, texting and Twitter). I suppose I had thought that teenage tweets were beneath the highbrow interests of academics, but not so! Greg Myers offers *Stance in blogs*, Caroline Tagg analyses *Respellings in text messages* and Michele Zappavigna writes on *The language of tweets*.

Myers explains how blogs are opinion pieces (sometimes proudly shallow on facts!). The bloggers work to keep their audience, however, as no one is going to re-engage with someone who rants. Myers analyses the many ways how this is done. One way is through the use of emoticons such as the smiley ☺. Another is the use of a stylistic stance marker such as *With all due respect...* which “seldom means exactly what it says” (p 258).

Personally, I learnt most from Caroline Tagg's *Respellings in text messages*. Before analysing texting abbreviations, Tagg explains how "textese" fits into the accepted orthographic patterns; how "Down with skool" works, but "Down with zguul" does not (p 279). She cites respellings outside of texting, like, Shakespeare's use of them to draw a character with a strong regional accent (p 291), and respellings in advertising (Beanz Meanz Heinz) (p 277). Respellings in text messages, she says, involve choice, e.g. "thanx, thx, tank, sank, thnx, thks, thanxs, and thx" (p 299) and are all in the *CorTxt* corpus. Personal choices reflect identity.

Zappavigna usefully explains how the medium of microblogging work; for example, the reason that celebrities can have millions of followers on Twitter is because reciprocity is not demanded. Tweets are more public than Facebook entries. Tweets allow users to interact with live shows and TV programmes. Unfortunately, Zappavigna lost me with phrases such as "...since meanings are made logogenetically as texts unfold via complex, multidimensional syntagmatic and paradigmatic patterns" (p 322). It is ironic that tweets are described in the densest language.

So, yes, this book can be read as an introduction to the study of discourse analysis and would be even better used as a reader, which it is, for someone already studying discourse analysis. Is it easy to read? Thankfully, not bad! Generally, the contributing authors are very good at explaining terms. Strangely, two typos were found on the same page (p 7). Apart from that the book is nicely presented and the variety of discourses studied is definitely engaging as well as informative for the reader.

KATHRYN HENDERSON, Pathways College, University of Waikato

Martin, J. R. (Ed.). (2013). *Interviews with M.A.K. Halliday: Language turned back on himself*. London: Bloomsbury. ISBN: 978-1-4411-9081-9 (pbk.) 272 pp.

This book is a collection of 14 interviews with M.A.K. Halliday, founder of systemic functional linguistics (SFL). They were conducted in various contexts, but for the most part at conferences and seminars between 1972 and 2011. The interviews were conducted by prominent international SFL scholars such as Caroline Coffin, Ruqaiya Hasan, Hu Zhuanglin, Jim Martin and Geoff Thompson. As context is central in SFL, the editor of the book provides the context of each interview in the introductory chapter. Overall, this book has an ontological and philosophical orientation, as indicated by Halliday's comment that "language expresses the unity of the human race and it expresses the diversity of human culture" (p. 36).

A theme which I found particularly interesting in the interviews is Halliday's background, which partly motivated his search for a useful linguistic theory. Halliday mentions that he had always wanted to go to China from the age of four, and that at about the age of eighteen, he was taught Chinese in preparation for national service. He later served in the army as a Chinese language teacher. Halliday also studied Russian. He maintains that his experiences as both a learner and teacher of foreign languages motivated his interest in issues pertaining to education and pedagogy. In Interview 4, Halliday states with regard to learning processes that while he does not believe in input, he believes in interaction. This view is significant because it sets Halliday apart from Chomsky who claims that "a child is genetically programmed with some basic rule schemata for language" (p. 50). Also, Halliday attributes failing in school to social background of a child, and stresses that linguists and teachers should cooperate in order to advance the understanding and development of learning theories. In this pursuit, Halliday's main interest was to learn and further the work of "those who went before" him and "those who are around" him (p. 149).

In most of the interviews, Halliday attributes his ideas to the influence of both Chinese and European linguistics. Among the scholars who have influenced Halliday's work are Wang Li and Firth, who were his teachers, and Bernstein, a theoretical sociologist. The ontological aspects of SFL in this collection allow readers to understand the ancestry heritage of SFL and the positioning of the theory among other linguistic theories. Halliday attributed his widely known "notion of language in social and cultural context" to Wang Li (p. 101). It was through Wang Li that Halliday was exposed not only to Chinese phonology but also to its origins, which are in Indian phonology. In Interview 10, Halliday makes the point that Firth did a lot of work at the phonology-phonetics end within the notion of context of situation, which Halliday has extended to apply the notion to the study of grammar. While Halliday has been influenced by Firth, there is a distinction between Halliday's and Firth's work. While Halliday is interested in the possibilities or the "potential", Firth was interested in the "typical actual" (p. 109). In other words, Halliday is more interested in "the notion of language as resource" rather than "the notion of language as rules" (p. 143). The emphasis on potential has resulted in ideas such as meaning potential of a language (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 24) and generic structure potential (Halliday & Hasan, 1989, p. 64).

Chapter 8, in support of a graduate course in Applied Linguistics, is the shortest and the most accessible chapter which includes Halliday's discussion of key concepts of SFL and "how the theory come to be called systemic functional" (p. 143). He explains that the systemic aspect of SFL relates to "representing language as a resource" and the functional aspect refers to the idea that language is "multi-functional" (p. 143). In this interview, Halliday explains the idea of ideational, interpersonal and textual meaning in a concise manner. This chapter could serve as

a supplementary reading for postgraduate students who are familiar with SFL, and are interested in the overview of the development of the theory in general.

Some of Halliday's concerns are evident in the interviews. Halliday sees language education as a long-term process, and he is therefore concerned about teachers who are interested in immediate results. In terms of issues relating to writing, he advocates that support is necessary to help children control the registers and genres effectively. Even though SFL is, at its core, a functional oriented theory, Halliday disagrees that language should be interpreted entirely based on function. In his view, the analysis of critical discourse analysis (CDA) could be made more convincing by paying more attention to language. Even though this remark was made in 1998, it probably still serves as a good reminder to CDA researchers. The ontological and philosophical aspects of this collection of interviews, unlike most SFL books that cover application aspects, allow readers to have a deeper appreciation for the theory. I would recommend this book to researchers who are working closely with Halliday's theory.

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JEREMY KOAY, PhD candidate, Victoria University of Wellington

Moore, T. J. (2011). *Critical Thinking and Language: The challenge of generic skills and disciplinary discourses*. London: Continuum. ISBN 978-1-441-15750-8. 247 pp.

In this book, Tim Moore explores the meaning and use of the term "critical thinking" in a teaching context. The book has seven chapters, namely *Introduction: the problem of critical thinking; Critical thinking: history, definitions, issues; In search of critical thinking; The ineffability of critical thinking; Critical thinking: the disciplinary dimension; Critical thinking: so what is it?; and Conclusions & implications for teaching*. The investigation particularly examines the link between the perception of critical thinking of individual academics teaching in different disciplines, as well as the probability of disciplinary variations in the meanings of critical thinking, and the effect of this association on the teaching of critical thinking in the university.

The research data is based on the experiences of a number of academics from an Australian university. The data is collected through text-based interviews and textual analysis of statements in subject outlines, tasks-essays and rubrics. The

results of the interviews and the summary of essay topic analysis suggested that the participants from each of the three disciplines were distinctly varied in their understandings of the term ‘critical thinking’. The implications of the findings suggest that there are limitations in the generic and discipline-specific approaches. Consequently, a trans-disciplinary approach to teaching critical thinking is suggested. The proposed trans-disciplinary approach is to be rooted in situated action (e.g. Lave & Wenger, 1991) which engages both students and staff in activity. It should also encourage students to “see connections between the different communities of their studies” (p. 230). Recommendations of areas for further research include the exploration of the changing conceptions of critique, and students’ perception and engagement with critical thinking.

Overall, *Critical Thinking and Language* is a good introduction to the exploration of the term “critical thinking” from teachers’ perspective. It explains the limitations of the study from the start, analyses the understandings of the term critical thinking from different disciplines and reveals the variations in the perceptions of these academics of the term. Moore endeavours to advance the focus of the research by describing the limitations of the generic approach and the discipline-specific approach to the teaching of critical thinking. He proposes “trans-disciplinarity” as an alternative pedagogy. While the book has merit, regrettably Moore misses an important opportunity to link the understandings of these academics of the term critical thinking and their teaching practice, particularly the teaching strategies used by academics to facilitate understanding of critical thinking.

Reference:

Lave, J., & Wenger, E. (1991) *Situated Learning: Legitimate Peripheral Participation*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

CECILY MARY ERUTHAYAM, PhD student, AUT University

Nation, I.S.P. (2013). *Learning vocabulary in another language* (2nd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. ISBN: 978-1-107-62302-6 (pbk). 624 pp.

Paul Nation is a household name among language teachers and all those involved in second language vocabulary studies around the world for his profound influence on our thinking about how vocabulary should be learned and taught, through his research, his publications, his conference presentations and his practical tools for teachers.

The original edition of this book was a landmark publication when it appeared in 2001, as the first comprehensive account of work on L2 vocabulary, combining an encyclopedic review of the literature with a wealth of practical advice on how to facilitate the process of vocabulary acquisition among learners. However, as the current millennium has worn on, there has been a flood of new research from both established scholars and an enthusiastic cohort of younger researchers, with the result that the 2001 book has been rapidly getting out-of-date, and it was clearly time for a new edition.

Those who own the original book will be interested to know how much of the content has actually changed in the new edition. Nation has made it easy for such readers (and for reviewers) by addressing this issue in the introduction. According to him, about a fifth of the book consists of new material. The overall length of the volume has expanded from 477 to 624 pages, which is a 30 percent increase, but the author has not simply added summaries of the new work; rather, he has skilfully incorporated the new material into the existing structure of the text for the most part.

Apart from research which extends and refines existing findings, there are some innovations in the new edition. First, Nation freely acknowledges that his ill-founded statement in the original book that technical vocabulary accounted for about 5 per cent of the running words in a typical text was shown to be quite wrong by his former doctoral Teresa Chung, who found that more than 30 percent of the vocabulary in an anatomy textbook (and 20 percent in an applied linguistics book) could be classified as technical in nature. Secondly, there is the brand-new concept of mid-frequency vocabulary, covering words in the frequency range of the third to the ninth thousand in English. These word families are important for learners in bridging the gap between the high-frequency vocabulary that may suffice for everyday conversation, classroom interaction and simplified reading material such as graded readers, on the one hand, and the learners' needs to read novels or textbooks, follow movies or TV shows, give formal presentations, or write reports in their professional field, on the other.

Many of the core chapters of the book remain the same, in title if not always in substance: *The goals of vocabulary learning*; *Knowing a word*; *Teaching and explaining vocabulary*; *Vocabulary and listening and speaking*; *Vocabulary and reading and writing*; *Specialised uses of vocabulary*; *Testing vocabulary knowledge and use*; and *Designing the vocabulary component of a language course*. Nation summarises on pp. 5-6 the main changes in these chapters. What were previously two chapters on vocabulary learning strategies and word study strategies have now been restructured into four: *Vocabulary-learning strategies*; *Word parts*; *Using dictionaries*; and *Deliberate learning from word cards*. In the latter two cases dictionaries and word cards are rapidly assuming electronic forms, especially among younger learners studying with the aid of laptops, tablets and smartphones. There is some acknowledgement of this trend in these two chapters,

but perhaps not as much there could have been. Of course most of the literature being reviewed is based on dictionaries and word cards in their paper form, and presumably the underlying principles remain the same, regardless of the medium.

Another area of vocabulary research which has flourished in the last fifteen years has been the study of collocation, idiom, formulaic language – the terms for these phenomena are many and varied. Nation has opted to change the title of the relevant chapter from *Chunking and collocation* to *Finding and learning multiword units* (now Chapter 12), and acknowledges that he has almost completely rewritten it in the light of recent advances on multiple fronts. Much of the chapter is devoted to different approaches to defining and identifying what these combinations of words are, as a prelude to the discussion of how they should be handled pedagogically. However, the new chapter is not as long or as comprehensive as one might have expected. One significant volume of research articles on collocations (Barfield & Gyllstad, 2009) is not cited at all, and another on formulaic sequences (Schmitt, 2004) is referred to just briefly – albeit very positively. There is also no mention (either in this chapter or the testing one) on how to assess knowledge of multiword units.

Nation makes the point on p. 481 that the learning of both individual words and multiword units is ‘important and valuable’; it is not a choice of one or the other. Nevertheless, the current structure and content of the book are heavily weighted towards the former kind of learning. Perhaps it is too soon to think through the implications of current work on multiword units for the field of L2 vocabulary as a whole, but a future book of this kind will presumably need to seek a better balance between the two.

One unsatisfactory feature of the new book is that references for the cited works have been placed at the end of each chapter, rather than in a single list at the back of the volume, as in the original edition. This was done at the behest of the publishers, who plan to market the chapters in the electronic version of the book for individual purchase – just as you can now download separate tracks on a music album. I discovered this change when I went to check a reference in the new edition and found that I had to search for it through various chapters. This reduces the usefulness of the new book as a bibliographic resource. Call me old-fashioned but I think that the paper version should have retained a collated reference list at the back.

In retirement, although he is cutting back on his commitments, Nation is still keeping very active in pursuing vocabulary projects that interest him. Thus, it may be premature to see this new edition of the book as his swansong, but in any event it represents a major component of his legacy to the field.

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Barfield, A., & Gyllstad, H. (Eds.) (2009). *Researching collocations in another language: Multiple interpretations*. Basingstoke, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.
Schmitt, N. (Ed.) (2004). *Formulaic sequences*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

JOHN READ, University of Auckland

Olsson, J. & Luchjenbroers, J. (2014). *Forensic Linguistics*. (3rd ed.). London: Bloomsbury. ISBN 978-1-4411-7076-7 (pbk.) 348 pp.

Forensic linguistics offers a practical introduction to the area of linguistics that relates to the law. It is of relevance to law students, practising lawyers, students of applied linguistics, criminologists, police officers and anyone else with an interest in this area. It is an extremely useful book for students and practitioners in a broad range of fields, which may partly account for its success. The fact that this book has been updated twice since the first edition in 2004 also demonstrates the dynamic and fast-moving area of research that forensic linguistics inhabits.

It is difficult to cover as much ground as this book does without either treating subjects in a superficial way, or getting mired in too much detail. However, the fact that the authors are both experienced practitioners who appear regularly in court as expert witnesses strengthens the authority of this book as an academic text as well as a practical training manual for people who want to learn more about the field. As a bonus there are a number of online exercises and an appendix of authentic forensic texts, with comments for students who are keen to try out their new found skills.

One of the strengths of the book is that real-life legal cases are referred to when illustrating theoretical points. Part One: *Language as forensic evidence* discusses issues of authorship by examining the style and genre of different authors. It goes on to discuss the range of individual variations in a number of text type, including text messaging and police statements. There is a weighty section on forensic phonetics including speaker identification, authentication of recordings, and the identification of behavioural states from voice or speech. The final chapter in this section discusses cybercrime.

Part Two: *Dealing with linguistic evidence* offers the reader opportunities to work with authentic texts to put theory learned in the previous section into practice. The features of suicide notes and threatening texts are discussed, and practical advice is offered on how to transcribe materials. Textual fabrication and collusion are discussed using examples from text messages, witness statements and police reports. The authors also discuss how corpora studies can help determine authorship of mobile phone texts.

Part Three: *The legal process: Language and the law* discusses a number of linguistic features such as power in judicial processes including courtroom discourse, and power in encounters with the police; for example, examination of witness statements to indicate false confessions, and the treatment of vulnerable witnesses. Overall this is a readable and instructive introduction to the relationship between language, law and society. The final section of the book: *Language of the law* tackles the language of legal statute and other legal texts discussing the different meanings of the right to silence and *mens rea* across a number of legal jurisdictions. This is an informative and accessible text that will be of interest to specialist linguists as well as readers with more general, non-specialist knowledge.

JO ANNA BURN, AUT University

Strauss, S., & Feiz, P. (2014). *Discourse analysis: Putting our worlds into words*. New York: Routledge. ISBN: 978-0-415-52219-9 (pbk.) 411 pp.

Strauss and Feiz point out that “words create worlds and worlds create words” (p. vii), and their book describes the relationship between discourse and the experiential world as a dialectical one. This introductory textbook to the field of discourse analysis covers a range of key topics and, since it is written mainly for readers with little prior knowledge, explanations of key terms such as discourse, stance, genres and pragmatics are explicitly stated. The book discusses how discourse analysis can be useful across the social science, humanities and sciences, and is balanced in terms of its emphasis on theoretical and methodological approaches. As well as explaining a range of topics, the book uses guiding questions to engage and interact with readers. Sample analyses using authentic data in various languages (e.g., Chinese, French, Japanese, Korean and Spanish) are provided. Each chapter ends with a review of concepts, practice tasks (with guidelines), and a list of suggested reading. The Appendix provides an extensive overview of basic grammatical categories and examples.

Chapters progress from discussing micro-approaches through discourse analysis (e.g., grammar) to macro-approaches (e.g., ideology). The authors explicitly draw the reader’s attention to connections with the content of previous chapters. Chapter 1 explains the meaning of discourse and provides an overview of the book. Chapter 2 discusses how choice of words and grammar expresses meaning, and how adverbs are related to stance. In Chapter 3, Strauss and Feiz explain that genres are essentially recognised by the content and purpose of the discourse that shapes the overall structure, organisation of content and lexico-grammatical features. They have innovatively included elements of multimodality and stance in their discussion of genre, and explain that similar genres can have different stances, giving two similar recipes as an illustration of this point.

Strauss and Feiz discuss reference, deixis, and stance in Chapter 4. They explain that reference can be divided into two categories: “highly specific” and “generic”, and how it is related to stance (p. 99). They explain that “a deictic expression is one that requires context in order for the speaker or hearer to know what is being referred to” and have provided a cartoon to illustrate the concept (p. 102). In Chapter 5, the authors explore the concept of information structure and cohesion. They explain how new (unshared) information and given (shared) can be expressed grammatically (e.g., determiner, pronoun). In their explanation of cohesion, they refer to Halliday and Hasan’s (1976) classic text that presents “four categories of cohesive resources”: reference, ellipsis and substitution, conjunction, and lexical cohesion (pp. 146-147). Similar to Rosenblatt’s (1994) transactional theory, Strauss and Feiz include the role of readers’ socio-cultural knowledge in their discussion of cohesion. They explain that a text “might suffice for certain readers”, while others may “find some detail lacking” (p. 153).

Chapter 6 explores Conversation Analysis and how it can be used “to understand human interaction” (p. 177) by paying attention to how humans “collaboratively and intersubjectively monitor and respond to emerging speech on a microsecond-by-microsecond basis” (p.176). They also discuss speech acts and how turn-taking is related to judgements and affects. They include a useful explanation of the transcription convention used in this chapter. Chapter 7 serves as a valuable introduction to pragmatics. Strauss and Feiz include an adapted version of Grice’s “cooperative principle” that can be valuable to those who teach academic writing and communication skills. Chapter 8 discusses indexicality, stance, identity, and agency. Strauss and Feiz state that identity and social categories are “both complex and dynamic” (p. 286) and that they “are not fixed and rigid pigeonholes” (p. 290). It would be helpful to also acknowledge that the distinction between epistemic and affective stance is sometimes fuzzy. The last chapter of the book explores Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) as a methodological approach. The chapter states that CDA is interested in uncovering latent ideologies that are associated with injustice and inequality, and that its ultimate goal is to effect social change.

This introductory book cover a wide range of topics and also provides considerable depth in terms of its discussion of the topics. I highly recommend it as a textbook for undergraduate discourse analysis courses, and as a guidebook for researchers from various disciplines who use discourse analysis as a methodology.

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JEREMY KOAY, PhD candidate, Victoria University of Wellington

Blaj-Ward, L. (2014). *Researching contexts, practices and pedagogies in English for Academic Purposes*. Houndmills: Palgrave Macmillan. 204 pp. ISBN: 978-1-137-33186-1.

The target readers for this book, which is authored by a senior lecturer at Nottingham Trent University, are teachers, post-graduate students and researchers with an interest in developing projects on aspects of pre-sessional and in-sessional EAP provision in tertiary contexts. The book aims to provide contextual information, suggestions for worthwhile areas of investigation and summaries of influential recent research. Its first chapter introduces EAP in general, as well as types of EAP provision typically used in English-speaking countries and those that use English as a medium of instruction at tertiary level. It provides an overview of the book's progress from the broader EAP context of EAP to aspects of curriculum and classroom instruction, student engagement, teacher engagement and, in the final chapter, quality assurance issues. It also explains that each of the chapters to come will begin with information and comment relevant, which will be followed by vignettes which present research issues, interests, options and pathways of two or three hypothetical practitioners in different EAP contexts. Summaries of influential studies on the chapter theme are another recurrent feature, and in Chapter 1, studies of practitioner research (Cheng, 2006) and disciplinary differences (Trowler et al, 2012) are outlined.

The main theme of Chapter 2 is the recent changes that have occurred in the wider institutional context in which EAP is situated. Disciplinary factors, current trends and research into teaching and learning in higher education, academic writing (e.g. *Writing in the Disciplines* and *Academic Literacies* approaches), assessment, technology, and internationalisation are discussed, together with the impact of technology on teaching and learning, and the range of professional services accessed by international students. For each sub-topic, vignettes describing the methodology and main findings of sample studies are presented. The third chapter examines the EAP classroom context as well as sub-topics of needs assessment, course design and materials evaluation. Needs assessment has always been critical for specific purpose courses, and it is particularly important for discipline-specific EAP courses (e.g. pre-sessional courses for intending international postgraduate students in the UK). Discussion of target situation analysis for EAP includes genre analysis, discourse analysis, and corpus linguistics, while vignettes include overviews of the needs analysis-based studies by Swales et al (2001) and Flowerdew (2005). Arguments for and against the use of either generic or discipline-specific commercial textbooks for EAP are outlined, along with summaries of articles that evaluate aspects of EAP materials such as their approach to writing (Tribble, 2009) and readability (Miller, 2011). Bloch (2013) is cited as a primary source of up-to-date information about technological tools.

The main focus of Chapter 4 is learners' engagement with EAP: their needs - the DELNA diagnostic assessment developed at the Universities of Melbourne and Auckland is profiled here through references to publications by Read (2008, 2015), study abroad experiences, learner diaries, learner evaluations, and assessment of learner performance. Vocabulary teaching, the use of corpora, and the development of critical thinking are all briefly discussed, as are the methodologies and findings employed by Kinginger (2009) and Benson et al (2014) in their investigations of study abroad experiences are discussed. This is followed by a review of studies of aspects of EAP achievement assessment, and the development of exit competency-based profiles for students completing non-credit pre-sessional courses. The theme of the fifth chapter is tutor participation in EAP, which encompasses their professional knowledge and beliefs, teacher talk, involvement in assessment and peer observation, staff development, and leadership roles. As with the other chapters, informative comments precede summaries of relevant research and research options (e.g. BALEAP, 2008; Barnard & Burns, 2012; Walsh, 2013), and discussion (through the vignettes) of possible research pathways. The final content chapter explores issues of quality assurance in EAP, again by reviewing key research studies and discussing options that include QA frameworks, student satisfaction surveys, large-scale investigations of good practice such as Dunworth (2013), and steps carried out by practitioner researchers in the vignettes. This last chapter also provides information for novice researchers, and a recommendation for new researchers to consult Bitchener (2010) as a general guide to the applied linguistics thesis genre.

A wealth of invaluable information can be found in this book to guide researchers new to a particular aspect of EAP, or to postgraduate students who are searching for worthwhile topics to investigate. I have referenced a number of sources in this review in order to give readers an indication of the range of topics explored. The book is clearly set out and easy to navigate; however, judicious use of diagrams to show connections between the various elements of EAP, tables to compare previous research studies, boxes to distinguish the imaginary vignettes from factual content, and bullet-point chapter summaries might make the book more accessible for postgraduate students and novice researchers. A useful addition to a second edition would be an index of the researchers cited in the book. The book does, however, provide a comprehensive guide to research options, as well as detailed overviews of previous studies in key areas. While the location of many of the studies described is the UK, its content connects strongly with the local context through extensive reference to publications by at least eight academics from New Zealand universities.

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ROSEMARY WETTE, University of Auckland

Hale, S. & Napier, J. (2013). *Research methods in interpreting: A practical resource*. London: Bloomsbury. ISBN 978-1-441-6851-1 (pbk.) 267 pp.

Scholars, postgraduate students and academic staff supervising theses and dissertations in the area of Interpreting Studies (IS) will be delighted with this practical resource by Professor Sandra Hale from the University of Western Sydney and Professor Jemina Napier from Heriot-Watt University in Edinburgh. While the book focuses on research in interpreting, it also has a lot to offer to those involved in other linguistic disciplines, since many of the tips and suggestions can be easily extrapolated to other areas. The book guides the readers through the various stages of research, from designing a research proposal, to conducting a critical review of the literature, through describing a range of methods for analysing data generated by various research methods to disseminating research findings. All of these also apply to other areas of linguistics research, including sociolinguistics, SLA and discourse analysis.

The clear lay-out, logical build-up and many tables make this practical resource extremely easy to use. Chapter One asks fundamental questions around research and theory and outlines some key characteristics of research philosophies, before it finishes with a note about collecting data through interpreters (i.e. interpreter-mediated research). Chapter Two is essential reading for anyone undertaking a review of the literature, and its practical suggestions apply to anybody writing a thesis or a journal article. The various phases of writing a literature review are outlined in a clear and logical fashion, and readers are cautioned about common flaws in novice researchers' literature reviews. Supervisors should recommend that their students read this chapter to help them avoid some common pitfalls, such as keeping track of searches, reading and taking notes, finding the gap, and positioning research and steps in the writing-up process. The chapter includes exercises to help novice researchers implement the suggestions, and finishes with tips about writing the proposal and obtaining ethics approval.

The chapters that follow provide an overview of methods which are not exclusive to interpreting research, including questionnaires and surveys, ethnographic research, discourse analysis, experimental methods, and research on interpreting education and assessment. Chapter Three makes for an equally important read, outlining as it does the use of questionnaires in interpreting research, including design, sampling, administration and analysis of survey and questionnaire findings. Chapter Four describes some of the complexities of ethnographic research methods in interpreting studies such as validity, data analysis, before advancing to examples of traditional ethnographic methods in the field. It then discusses qualitative research methods that involve ethnographic components, including interviews, focus groups and case studies. Again, its suggestions are applicable to linguistic research in other disciplinary areas.

Chapter Five covers the role of discourse analysis (DA) in interpreting research, giving a very succinct overview from definitions, to steps involved, analysis, and corpus-based discourse analysis, and interpreting corpora. While the literature on both translating and interpreting research includes examples of the implementation of DA in various fields (legal, medical), this chapter summarizes the main issues involved, and therefore might well be useful for novice researchers and supervisors wishing to explain the principles of DA to their students. Chapter Six examines a range of experimental approaches to interpreting research, including hypotheses and research questions, design, variables, validity and interpretation of results.

Chapter Seven discusses various possible research projects in interpreter education, focusing on the planning and implementation of such studies, and different possible methods and interventions. The ending of this chapter provides an overview of examples of research in interpreting education, and this is an excellent way of inspiring readers to approaches they might wish to consider. The tables in this chapter are particularly illuminating, especially Table 7.1, which covers purposes and kinds of research, and Table 7.2 which provides an overview of tasks/measures, resulting types of data, data collection procedures and data analysis methods. Once more, all this information can be readily applied to other areas of linguistics research. The final chapter summarises the main points of how to conduct interpreting research, and the best way of disseminating the resulting findings. Interestingly, it also provides some very brief points about thesis writing, and I was particularly interested to see the section on “thesis by publication”.

As a practitioner, researcher and educator in the field of interpreting for over two decades, I would recommend this book as an outstanding resource to anyone involved in interpreting or linguistics research. It possesses a cohesiveness that is rarely seen in edited volumes, as it is the product of a close collaboration between two authors who have a very similar approach to interpreter education, and whose own research is always aimed at making a practical contribution to their colleagues and practitioners in the field.

INEKE CREZEE, Auckland University of Technology

Hyland, K. & Paltridge, B. (2011). *The Bloomsbury companion to discourse analysis*. London: Bloomsbury Academic. ISBN 978-1-441-1-6786-6. 416 pp.

For the target audience of this book, “beginning researchers in the area of Applied Linguistics” (p. 1), the range of meanings that the term *discourse* is used to express, and the range of analytical methods used to investigate discourse can be puzzling. *Discourse*, as in *academic discourse*, may be neutral and descriptive, or it can imply an expression of ideological stance, as in *neo-liberal discourse*.

Similarly *discourse analysis* can be more descriptive or more critical, and can refer to such very different methods as Corpus Analysis, Multimodal analysis or Conversation analysis. This book provides an excellent introduction to key discourse analysis methods, and to some of the research areas in which they have been employed. Chapters introduce readers to the theoretical assumptions of different discourse analysis methods, and provide discussion on issues of validity in research techniques. A most valuable aspect of the book, and one that distinguishes this book from alternatives, is a well-developed sample study as a central element of each chapter. Another strength of the book is the list of key readings at the end of each chapter.

The book is organised into two parts, and Part I, “Methods of analysis in discourse research”, contains nine chapters. Many of these - CA, CDA, Genre, Ethnography and Corpus analysis - are predictable and well-established discourse analysis methods. Usefully, however, the section includes chapters on newer discourse analysis methods such as multimodal analysis, as well as chapters on approaches sometimes omitted from discourse analysis handbooks (such as SFL), and chapters on technologies central to discourse analysis but usually not dealt with explicitly (such as transcription).

The first chapter (Jones) considers transcription and how, as recording technologies develop (e.g. from audio to video), so our idea of what we are analysing changes; his discussion of validity notes that analysts need to be wary of viewing as reality the data their technology allows them to collect, and their selection of what to analyse. In Chapter 2, Wilkinson and Kitzinger provide an excellent introduction to Conversation Analysis. In Chapter 3, Ruth Wodak uses a study of a neo-nazi political campaign to illustrate her discourse-historical approach to critical discourse analysis. In an excellent chapter on genre analysis, Tardy draws on theoretical constructs from Rhetorical Genre Studies to give greater resonance to her move analysis of grant proposals drawing on English for Specific Purposes analytical methods. The chapter on ethnography (Atkinson, Okado and Talmy) focuses on Talmy’s study of ESL students in an American high school. O’ Halloran’s chapter on multimodal analysis provides a clear overview of the extension of Halliday’s social semiotic approach to images and visual design. The last chapter in Part I (Gray and Biber) concerns corpus approaches; their sample study compares complexity in writing and speech.

Part II, “Research areas and new directions in discourse research”, considers twelve areas of research on discourse. In some of these the context of the discourse is foregrounded. Hyland’s interesting chapter on academic discourse focuses on the different cultures of different disciplines, drawing on Hyland’s work on variation in hedging, and on his work on type and rate of citation across disciplines. Holmes’s chapter on workplace language introduces some key elements of the methodology she has employed in gathering workplace data, including the carrying of recorders by participants. Her fascinating sample study demonstrates the

employment of a social constructionist approach in analysing the enacting of leadership in a Maori workplace. In her chapter on classroom discourse, Hammond carefully signals choices made and reasons for making them in her sample study of ESL students in a mainstream content classroom.

In other Part II chapters mode is foregrounded. Cutting's valuable chapter on spoken discourse focuses on discourse in MA tutorials. It employs Speech act theory and CDA as frames for analysis of tutorial conversation. A useful chapter on computer-mediated communication (Davies) chooses to focus on display of personal stance and intertextuality in blogs. Baker's chapter on Discourse and Gender gives an excellent introduction to the different ways the term *discourse* is used, as well as illustrating the use of a range of approaches to discourse analysis including CDA and Post-structural discourse analysis. Olsson's fascinating chapter on Forensic discourse analysis uses work done by Eades and others that call into question the veracity of Australian police accounts of the questioning of suspects. Omonyi's interesting chapter on discourse and identity is a departure from work on expression identity in academic writing; it focuses on expression of minority identity in for example British minority newspapers such as Jewish Chronicle and New Nation.

On the whole this edited collection is a valuable one, with a good mix of established analytical methods central to the field and new methods that are developing rapidly. Undoubtedly, many chapters from *The Bloomsbury companion to discourse analysis* will find their way into course reading lists at third year undergraduate and Masters levels.

JEAN PARKINSON, Victoria University of Wellington

GUIDELINES FOR CONTRIBUTORS

NZSAL is a national refereed journal that is published once or twice a year. It welcomes manuscripts from those actively involved in Applied Linguistics/Applied Language Studies including second and foreign language educators, researchers, teacher educators, language planners, policy makers and other language practitioners. The journal is a forum for reporting and critical discussion of language research and practice across a wide range of languages and international contexts, but submissions are expected to have a connection to New Zealand. A broad range of research types is represented (qualitative and quantitative, established and innovative), including cross-disciplinary approaches.

1. Submission of Manuscripts (All types)

1.1 Articles should be double-spaced in A4 format with generous margins at head, foot and both sides. Pages should be numbered consecutively. Avoid using templates and styles that will affect editorial changes and print formatting. Submission of a manuscript of any type implies that it has not been published previously and that it is not under consideration for publication elsewhere.

1.2 A separate title page should include the following:

- the title of the submission
- author's name, and in the case of more than one author, an indication of which author will receive the correspondence
- affiliations of all authors
- full postal address and telephone, e-mail and fax numbers of all authors
- a brief autobiographical sketch of the authors(s) (50-80 words)
- any references removed for the review process

1.3 Copies should be submitted as a Word attachment to the Editor, Dr Anne Feryok.

anne.feryok@otago.ac.nz

1.4 All relevant submissions will be reviewed by members of the Editorial Board or other referees.

2. Presentation of Manuscripts (All Types)

2.1 Sections should be headed but not numbered.

2.2 All figures and tables should be provided in camera-ready form, suitable for reproduction (which includes reduction) and should require no changes, but should be in a format suited to editorial changes and print formatting. Because all material

is reduced, use no smaller than size 12 font. Figures (e.g. charts and diagrams) and tables should be numbered consecutively in the order to which they are referred. They should not be included within the text, but submitted each on a separate page. All figures and tables should have a number and a caption, above for tables and below for figures. Use APA (American Psychological Association) style conventions.

2.3 Do not use footnotes. Endnotes should be avoided, but if essential, they should be numbered in the text by means of a superscript and grouped together at the end of the article before list of references under the heading Notes.

2.4 Use APA style for in-text citations. Please note, this requires double quotation marks. References within the text should contain the name of the author, the year of publication, and, if necessary, the relevant page number(s), as in these examples:

It is stated by McCloud and Henry (1993, p. 238) that “students never ...” This, however, has not been the case (Baker & Thomas, 2001; Frank, 1996; Smithers, 1985).

Where the work of the authors of the article is cited, to avoid identification during the review process the reference within the text should be ‘(Author, [date])’, but there should be no entry in the list of references. Provide these references on the title page.

2.5 Use APA style for references. The list of references at the end of the article should be arranged alphabetically by authors’ names. References should be given in the following form (including hanging indents and no lines between entries):

References

Books

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Wenger, E. (1998). *Communities of practice: Learning, meaning and identity*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Article in book

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Journal articles

Lea, M. R., & Street, B. V. (1998). Student writing in higher education: An academic literacies approach. *Studies in Higher Education*, 23(2), 157-172.

Turner, J. (2004). Language as academic purpose. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 3(2), 95-109.

Unpublished manuscript

Park-Oh, Y.Y. (1994). *Self-regulated strategy training in second language reading*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Alabama, USA.

Stein, F. & G.R. Johnson. (2001). *Language policy at work*. Unpublished manuscript.

Conference presentation

King, J., & M. Maclagan. 2001, August. *Maori pronunciation over time*. Paper presented at the 14th Annual New Zealand Linguistics Society Conference, Christchurch, New Zealand.

Internet sources

Sanders, R. (2006). The imponderable bloom: Reconsidering the role of technology in education. *Innovate Journal of Online Education*, 2(6). Retrieved from <http://www.innovateonline.info/index.php?view=article&id=232>

For other sources use APA (American Psychological Association) conventions.

If articles are not submitted in APA style, they will be returned during the review process for authors to revise.

3. Articles

3.1 Articles should normally be between 3000 and 5000 words in length, exclusive of references, figures and tables, and appendices; please be reasonable. Articles over 6000 words will be returned without review unless prior arrangements have been made with the editor.

3.2 Each article should include, on a separate page, an abstract of between 150 and 200 words, which is capable of standing alone as a descriptor of the article. Include the title on the abstract page. Include three to five key words on a separate line at the end of the abstract.

4. Short reports and summaries

NZSAL invites short reports on any aspect of theory and practice in Applied Linguistics. Manuscripts could also present preliminary research findings or focus on some aspect of a larger study. Short reports should be no longer than 2500 words, exclusive of references, figures and tables, and appendices; please be reasonable. Short reports do not include an abstract or key words. Submissions to

this section follow the submission and presentation guidelines. Those interested in contributing to this section should contact the Editor.

5. Reviews

NZSAL welcomes reviews of professional books, classroom texts, and other instructional materials. Reviews should provide a descriptive and evaluative summary and a brief discussion of the work in the context of current theory and practice. Submissions should generally be no longer than 1000 words. Submissions to this section follow the submission and presentation guidelines. Those interested in contributing reviews should contact the Reviews Editor, Dr Rosemary Wette.

r.wette@auckland.ac.nz

6. Publication ethics

NZSAL follows standard practices for ethics in publication. The core areas are:

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2. Research and ethics. Submission implies all data reported in the article are real and authentic; no fraudulent data is used; all data is correctly reported; research involving human subjects has received ethical approval from relevant institutional authorities and informed consent from participants.

3. Editorship and peer review. The editor has the authority to make the final decision in considering articles for publication; decisions to accept articles deemed to be within the aims and scope of the journal will be based on review; confidentiality of reviewers and authors will be respected; reviewing will be double-blind; if substantial errors are detected a correction or retraction will be printed; the editor and editorial board will monitor ethics. Agreeing to review implies reviewers are qualified to review; will be fair and impartial; will not use abusive language; do not have conflicts of interest or they will recuse themselves.

7. Other matters

Contact the Editor, Dr Anne Feryok.

anne.feryok@otago.ac.nz

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*Note: Views expressed in articles and reviews published in *New Zealand Studies in Applied Linguistics* are those of the contributors and do not necessarily reflect those of ALANZ.*

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