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Acknowledgement of Country

In the spirit of reconciliation the Australian Council of TESOL Associations (ACTA) acknowledges the Traditional Custodians of country throughout Australia and their connections to land, sea and community. We pay our respect to their elders past and present and extend that respect to all Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples today. We acknowledge that the arrival of the English language to this continent impacted the traditional languages and cultures of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people, and celebrate the work to reclaim or maintain these languages. ACTA members teach English in addition to supporting the maintenance and development of First Languages, and encourage the acquisition and use of other languages – including First Nations Languages.

About**TESOL** *in* Context

Journal of ACTA, Australian Council of TESOL Associations

ACTA statement

TESOL in Context is a refereed journal with a wide target audience, both national and international. Readership includes TESOL / EAL professionals working in all sectors of education; universities, primary and secondary schooling, early childhood settings, adult migrant programs, vocational training, ELICOS and TESOL teacher education, both in Australia and internationally. Articles published in *TESOL in Context* typically examine the nexus between theory and practice.

The aims of *TESOL in Context* are to:

- provide professionals in the field with insights into TESOL issues in Australia and internationally
- contribute to the development of classroom expertise through dissemination of current research and thinking around TESOL.

For **guidelines** on length and presentation of items submitted to *TESOL in Context*, please consult the Notes for Contributors.

Please note

Views expressed in contributions to *TESOL in Context* do not necessarily reflect those of ACTA.

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Editorial: Collaboration, training and funding for the professional development of teachers of EAL/D students

Averil Grieve
Sharon Yahalom
David Wei Dai
Editors

This issue of *TESOL in Context* contains four articles that complement each other in their focus and arguments concerning political ideologies, the commodification of English as an additional language/dialect (EAL/D) teaching and the professional training needs of both EAL/D and mainstream teachers in Australian education. The first two submissions are discussion papers, which set the scene for two articles reporting on results from empirical TESOL research. Four book reviews complete the volume with a focus on the work of EAL/D teachers and learners in a variety of contexts.

In his contribution titled *Functional linguistic perspectives in TESOL: Curriculum design and text-based instruction*, Mickan highlights the impact of Halliday's systemic functional linguistics (SFL) on EAL/D teaching and TESOL in Australia, providing the federal Adult Migrant Education Program (AMEP) and South Australia LEAP/D program as key examples. Mickan also emphasises the role of authentic texts in SFL based curricula and uses an extract from their own research to explicate use of SFL in an EAL/D science classroom to scaffold student acquisition of content, language and social practices. Mickan is keen to highlight the critical importance of training for SFL teachers and suggests a 6-step functional linguistic reference to assist in curriculum, instruction and policy design as well as evaluation.

In *Where is Systemic Functional Grammar in the Adult Migrant English Program?*, Tilney provides further in-depth discussion of the use of SFL in the AMEP. Similar to Mickan, Tilney argues that SFL has had an integral role in shaping TESOL in Australia and highlights the critical importance of funding for teacher support

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and training. Tracing ideological shifts and policy changes that have directly impacted the AMEP over time, Tilney laments the demise of SFL and continuous funding cuts that compromise teaching quality. He concludes that the AMEP no longer holds its position as world leader in EAL/D teaching, which is not due to a shift to a licence-free EAL/D framework, but directly attributable to the lack of adequately funded professional development, which would include SFL training. Tilney further argues that these changes have not only negatively impacted the quality of AMEP, but also the teaching and learning of EAL/D students in mainstream schools.

Tilney's arguments concerning the lack of adequate training of EAL/D teachers in mainstream schools are substantiated with empirical evidence in Nguyen and Rushton's article titled *Teachers' perceptions about their work with EAL/D students in a standards-based educational context.* While not focusing on SFL, Rushton and Nguyen support Tilney's arguments that the current commodification of EAL/D teaching has led to an unhealthy focus on English literacy, which does not recognise the linguistic competencies EAL/D students bring to the classroom. Similar to both Mickan and Tilney, they call for "a classroom which focuses on language as central to learning" and for designated funding towards professional development training for EAL/D teachers. Without such specialised training, the role of the EAL/D teacher becomes tenuous, for example, they are seen as support for mainstream or content teachers, who themselves have little or no background in TESOL. Nguyen and Rushton conclude that all teachers of EAL/D students require professional learning, with a particular focus on culturally responsive and translingual pedagogies that value the cultural and linguistic resources of each individual student. They emphasise the importance of both collaboration and specialisation for EAL/D and content teachers to ensure shared responsibility for language learning by all educators.

Also employing a case study approach, in *Science and EAL teachers' perspectives and practices in building word knowledge in implementing the new Victorian EAL curriculum,* Filipi, Nguyen and Berry provide further evidence for the critical importance of collaboration between EAL/D and content teachers. Using their observations of instances of linguistically responsive instruction in a science classroom, Filipi, Nguyen and Berry further underline Tilney's and Mickan's belief that EAL/D students require explicit language teaching in authentic context (e.g. focus on grammatical

structure and vocabulary within a science class). In line with Nguyen and Rushton, Filipi, Nguyen and Berry indicate that all EAL/D and content teachers should be trained to value the cultural and linguistic diversity of students in their classrooms. In addition to external professional development opportunities, they see the collaborative nature of the context and the EAL/D teacher relationship as key to achieving a language-informed pedagogy within content-focused teaching. In the case of online learning, this collaboration may also include experts in technology-enhanced learning. In conclusion, Filipi, Nguyen and Berry call for a whole school approach that distributes the responsibility for language learning across all teaching staff.

This issue contains two reviews of *An EAL/D Handbook: Teaching and learning across the curriculum when English is an additional language or dialect,* edited by Harper and Feez. While Veliz guides the reader through an exploration of individual chapters and the authors' perspectives on pedagogical practice, Creagh provides a practical demonstration of how the handbook could be utilized for a professional development session with teachers. Creagh shares the materials that she designed for the session based on the theoretical and pedagogical underpinnings explored in each section of the handbook. Her plan includes chapter summaries and discussion points for her attendees. Creagh points out that the accompanying commentary from scholars in the field of language education in Australia is particularly valuable for informing the work of EAL/D teachers.

Barabas elects to focus on the introduction and four chapters of *The preparation of teachers of English as an additional language around the world: Research, policy, curriculum and practice*, edited by Polat, Mahalingappa and Kayi-Aydar, in order to review and explore the writers' perspectives on TESOL programs in four of the eleven countries presented in the book. Barabas describes the ways in which this volume addresses how countries and nation-states create effective language teachers and identifies insights from different language teacher education programs across the globe. While Barabas suggests that some chapters would have benefited from a discussion of the influence of state laws in relation to dominant political ideologies in the context of EAL teacher education programs, overall, Barabas considers the book to be an important exploration of factors influencing education programs and suggests that a range of stakeholders including policy makers and researchers would find this book useful.

The fourth book review, written by Nastasi and Fauls, is a description and critique of *Critical literacy with adolescent English language learners: Exploring policy and practice in global contexts* by Jennifer Alford. The reviewers suggest that Alford's emphasis on the importance of critical literacy for EAL learners is particularly valuable. Nastasi and Fauls describe how Alford firstly guides the reader through the theoretical underpinnings of critical literacy, before focusing on case studies to demonstrate how EAL/D teachers engage with critical literacy in their classrooms. The reviewers find the book to be an indispensable resource for EAL/D teachers. They are particularly impressed by the way that Alford highlights the work of EAL/D teachers in advancing critical literacy in a global context, her take on the centrality of critical literacy when it comes to policies regarding English language teaching, and the inclusion of empirical data based on her research of EAL/D teachers' practices.

The articles and book reviews in this issue highlight important issues in EAL/D policy, research and practice, with a particular emphasis on the imperative to prioritise teacher preparation and professional learning. Underpinning all submissions is a clear understanding of the need for authenticity, collaboration, specialisation and utilisation of all of the linguistic competencies EAL/D bring with them to classrooms. This has implications for TESOL within and beyond Australian borders and highlights the need for continued dialogue with government and funding bodies to ensure the teaching and learning of EAL/D students is comprehensively supported in a wide range of educational contexts.

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Systemic Functional Linguistic Perspectives in TESOL: Curriculum Design and Text-based instruction

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Abstract: *This paper outlines the general influence of Halliday's (1994, 2014) systemic functional linguistics on TESOL curriculum. Halliday's explanation of language as a social semiotic and language learning as learning to mean has been applied internationally in genre and text-based teaching. The concept of register in systemic functional linguistics describes linguistic variation of texts for the expression of different meanings. SFL studies document teachers' explicit instruction in the lexicogrammatical construction of text types linked to function and social context. The explicitness informs students' decision-making for formulation of meanings in different text types. Reference is made to SFL applied in teacher education. There is mention of the relevance of SFL to Australia's concern with literacy standards in education.*

Systemic functional linguistics and TESOL

This paper outlines the general influence of Halliday's (2014) systemic functional linguistics (SFL) on Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) curriculum.[1] Systemic functional linguistics (Halliday, 2014) is a theory of language and a theory of language learning which applies language theory to education in practice. The theory has influenced TESOL for at least fifty years (Christie, 2012; Oliver et al., 2017). Central to SFL are the understandings of language as a social semiotic, as a human resource for the expression of meanings, and learning language as learning to mean (Halliday, 1978, 2014; Hasan, 2012;

(1) Due to the particular focus of SFG and the impact of Halliday, this paper does not cover other understandings of genre in any detail.

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Halliday & Hasan, 1985). In the words of Halliday (1993), "language is the essential condition of knowing, the process by which experience becomes knowledge" (p. 94). The concept of learning a language as learning to mean has established a transparent focus for the documentation of teaching and learning practices and for the study of discourse development. This focus has informed teachers' and researchers' studies and documentation of children and adults' speech and writing in life and lessons, which has been a foundation for TESOL policy, curriculum and teaching practices. SFL has impacted on educators across the curriculum but has been particularly influential for teachers of language and literacy (Butt et al., 2000; Christie, 2012; Unsworth, 2000). Significant influences of SFL on education include the study of child language development, the analysis of language as a system, explanations of language as a social semiotic and learning language as a process of semiotic mediation (Mickan, 2019). These studies place language at the centre of human activity generally and in education specifically.

Sociocultural views of language

The interest of teachers of English as an Additional Language (EAL) in language learning since the middle of the nineteenth century coincided with educators' explorations into child language development and learning (Donaldson, 1985; Halliday, 1978) and the role of language in education (Barnes, 1971; Barnes, Britton & Jones, 1969). While some studies recorded classroom language interaction to understand students' acquisition of language (Allwright, 1984, 1988), others focused on children's social contexts to reveal differences in children's languaging experiences and in the discourse resources needed to take part in formal education (Bernstein, 1975; Heath, 1983). Sociolinguistic studies of language use in society (e.g., Hymes, 1974; Gumperz & Hymes, 1972; Kramsch, 1998) extended attention from the formal features of morphology, syntax and lexis to discourse embedded in sociocultural contexts.

In language education, particularly in teaching additional languages, a traditional focus has been on form and on linguistic features – morphology, lexis, phonology and syntax – which are distinguished from function. From this perspective, linguistic teaching continues to model a pedagogy of decontextualized extracts, artificial exercises and meaningless tasks (Celce-Murcia, 2007; Kuci, 2020). Such traditional approaches separate items of

language from context and teach the items unrelated to speech acts in meaningless exercises and nonsense texts.

For TESOL teachers, the traditional methods are not appropriate to meet the needs of migrant adults and children for social participation in English speech communities. Migrants require proficiency in languages for participation in community, for travel and work. However, the focus of grammar translation programs on written language and accuracy paid limited attention to speech. The need for communicative proficiency triggered experimentation with different approaches to teaching: situational, functional-notional, audio-visual and communicative. These attempts to develop students' communicative skills focused attention on daily discourse of typical workplace and life circumstances (Savignon, 1987; Wilkins, 1976). In reviewing approaches since the mid-nineteen sixties, Mickan (2013) described attempts to fix the decontextualisation of language in grammar translation teaching approaches as addititive, e.g. via inclusion of situations, functions and notions, speech acts and tasks with oral components and audio-visual elements. However, the attempts have not changed the fundamental teaching paradigm of grammar as structure taught outside of contexts and texts. Apart from SFL applied in genre and text-based teaching (Derewianka, 2015; Feez & Joyce, 1998), the above-mentioned endeavours have maintained the teaching of grammatical structures apart from function and have failed to transform the understanding of language learning as learning to mean.

The migration policy of the Australian Federal Government in the mid-twentieth century resulted in the arrival of many non-English speaking citizens for whom English was needed as a communicative skill for life in Australian communities. The prevalent grammar translation approach was a cumbersome way for migrants to achieve some level of communicative skill. Indeed, meeting the language needs of migrants required adaptation in instruction from grammatically and linguistically based courses to functional and communicative curriculum designs taking into account the prior educational and linguistic backgrounds of students. In short, they required a different pedagogy. The Federal Government's Adult Migrant Education Program (AMEP) (Martin, nd) developed English curricula, syllabi and resources for teaching non-English speaking immigrants. Firmly based in SFL, the programs were designed for migrants to manage the complexity of daily life in new social environments (Burns & De Silva Joyce,

2007) and they recognised the role of language in daily living based on participation in people's social practices in Australia.

Text, context and register analysis

The strength of SFL analysis of texts for teaching is in the depiction of the relationship between texts and social contexts described in the concept of register. For Halliday (1978), "registers are ways of saying different things", with different "configurations of meanings" (p. 185) according to who is speaking, how they are speaking and what they are speaking about. This links directly to Hasan's (1999) point that "to describe the nature of human language we need to place it in its social environment" (p. 224).

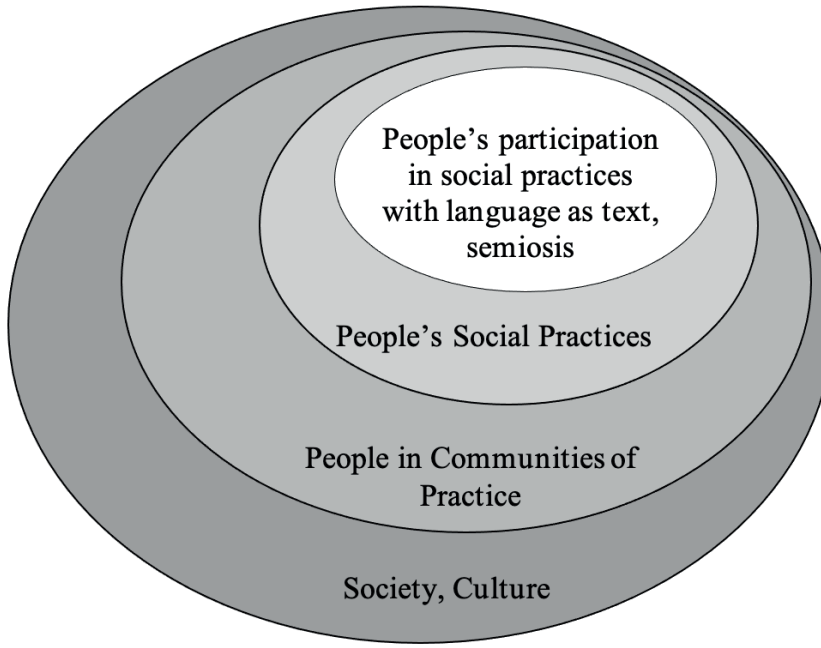

Figure 1: People's participation in society with language (adapted from Mickan, 2019)

The SFL analysis depicts the choice of text types, of discourse and of wording of texts interacting with contexts. This relationship of texts and social contexts is depicted in Figure 1, which also shows how SFL introduces a description of language as a system with different levels of analysis. When we see, read or hear texts, we make sense of them in the context of culture and the practices

of communities. In Extract 1 from a science lesson below, the texts relate to the practices of a scientific community in the educational culture of an Australian school. The discourse and language choices creating these texts relate to the socio-cultural environment of language in use. When reading texts or hearing speech (Hasan, 1999) context is deduced and essential details predicted.

The analysis of texts in SFL is characterised by a metalanguage describing the relationship of texts and the contexts that are shown in Figure 1 (Halliday, 1994, 2014). In any situation three key factors affect choices in register:

- Field [what is going on; content]
- Tenor [who is involved; relationship]
- Mode [kind of text; speech, written]

The choices in Field, Tenor and Mode explain what a text is about, how language is used in the text, and who is involved in the text. Specific linguistic choices in Field, Tenor and Mode relate to interpersonal, textual and ideational functions of the text (Butt et al., 2000; Halliday, 2014), which means that each occasion of speech and writing requires appropriate selections in register. Students' awareness of variations in text types and of the lexicogrammar of texts assists their text choices appropriate to different contexts.

Text awareness and knowledge

The identification of the social functions of texts together with analysis at the discourse and lexicogrammatical (or wording) levels supports teachers' conversations with students about the composition of texts. Teachers' instruction using SFL raises students' awareness of language variation in texts according to context. It includes analysis of the wording and structure of texts and teachers' scaffolding of students' composition of texts. In order to raise student awareness, instruction informed by register analysis looks first at language in context and asks how is the language related to what is going on? This allows the educator to teach the system as choices, which provides student access to the language resources which relate texts to social contexts. This means explicit teaching of grammar is conducted in contexts of students' engagement in communication with authentic texts in acts of meaning making.

Text-based and genre teaching

SFL has influenced approaches to TESOL instruction with genre and text-based teaching (Derewianka, 2011; de Silva Joyce & Feez, 2012; Martin, 1992; Mickan, 2013; Mickan & Lopez, 2017), including the teaching of literacy (Martin, 1999; Martin & Rose, 2008). These approaches take genres or texts as the unit of analysis for potential comprehension and expression of meanings. In SFL "a text is any use of language that makes sense for someone who knows the language" (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014, p. 4). Genre and text-based teaching focus on text types and typical genres described for teaching include persuasive texts for arguing points of view, factual texts for knowledge-building, procedural texts for explaining processes and narrative texts for telling stories and entertainment.

Genre and text-based teaching apply analysis of language in use for people's daily living and participation in social practices (Feez & Joyce, 1998). Instruction is characterised by the identification of genres and text types and their function in social contexts. It is based on the idea that different texts enact different purposes and distinguishing features of texts identify participation in different community practices. Such features are multifarious as, in our regular discourse, we typically work with pluritexts, i.e. with multiple texts as part of our ongoing discourse. For example this paper includes description, references and reporting, each of which serves specific functions in the paper.

Genre teaching applies a teaching and learning cycle with four stages of instruction, which connect reading, talking and writing (Derewianka, 2015). The cycle commences with the teacher and class building the context or topic of a genre. A model of the genre is then presented in stage two as a scaffold and support for analysis of the the features of the genre. In stage three, the teacher and class work together in the construction of a genre, which prepares students for the independent composition of a genre in stage four. The teaching cycle supports students' understanding of different genres, makes explicit the grammatical and discourse features of different genres, and scaffolds students' own writing.

Text-based teaching also takes texts as the unit of analysis (Mickan & Lopez, 2017; Feez & Joyce, 1998). Figure 2 illustrates text-based teaching progression beginning with a plentiful selection of written and spoken texts for students' comprehension of the meaning of texts related to social function.

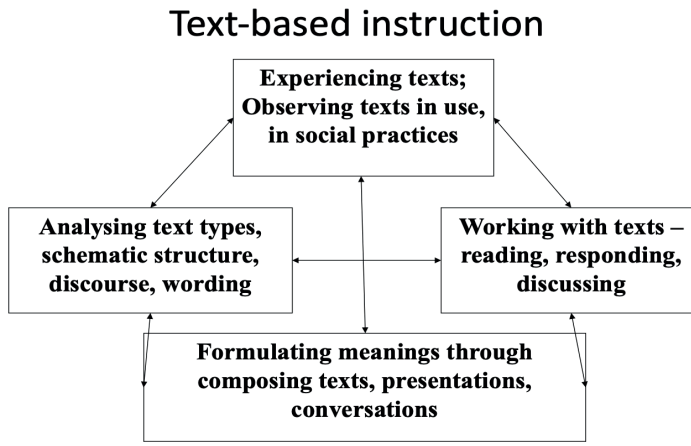

Figure 2: Teaching texts for the comprehension and expression of meanings (adapted from Mickan, 2017)

In Figure 2, the design of instruction is semiotic, whereby students study language as a resource for knowledge-building and for the formulation of their meanings. The approach follows Halliday's idea to "interpret language not as a set of rules but as a *resource*" (Halliday, 1978, p. 192). On the one hand, learning is gaining the meaning-making resources of language systems for participation in social practices. On the other hand, instruction provides students access to a rich selection of authentic texts around a topic related to function, equipping them with the language resources for living with texts and for the expression of meanings.

Teachers and students analyse the grammatical variations of text types, raising awareness of wording selections for the expression of different meanings. To achieve this, teachers take into account students' extensive knowledge of texts and text types in their other languages. They program a banquet of written and spoken texts for reading, talking and writing on real-world topics presenting different perspectives. In talk about and around texts, students build knowledge, dispute content, act on information and share ideas, viewpoints and experiences. From multiple encounters with texts in contexts students develop awareness of the meaning making resources for the expression of their own ideas and arguments (Palincsar & Schleppegrell, 2014). The discussions around topics and content combine focus on the structure and lexicogrammar of texts. This approach is exemplified in content-based language programs (Turner, 2020; Halbach,

2020) in which students participate in subject-specific practices with subject-defining texts.

Learning as a social semiotic process

The idea in a social semiotic design (Gebhard et al., 2013) is for students to work with, respond to, and interact with numerous authentic texts. The texts serve multiple purposes beyond modelling, including knowledge building so students have something to talk about, query and respond to. They present choices for expression of different ideas and viewpoints and offer options in the discourse semantic and lexicogrammatical choices for creation of ideas and arguments in different text types.

Learning to mean with language is a process of socialisation (Mickan, 2013). For Halliday (2014), "language is ... a resource for making meaning; so text is a process of making meaning in context" (p. 4). For students, familiarisation with the purpose, type, content and wording of texts is a process of socialisation in interaction with the teacher and with the teacher's scaffolding support (Gibbons, 2006; Mickan, 2006a, 2006b, 2007). The discussion around the texts introduces students to the purpose of text types and the lexicogrammar for joining in talk about and around the content of the texts. For example, as shown in Extract 1, in an English as an additional language science class (Mickan, 2007), the teacher socialises students into the use of scientific texts focusing on the terminology related to doing science. In the lesson preceding the conduct of an experiment in the laboratory, the teacher explained the aim of the experiment to the class of students. In the lesson shown in Extract 1, he introduced what was planned in the experiment.

Extract 1: Science lesson

> **Teacher:** The aim is to extract the coloured substance from the red cabbage and use it as an acid base indicator. Do you know what extract means?
>
> **Student:** To take out.
>
> **Teacher:** Very good. So we're going to take out the chemical that is the red colouring and that's going to be a different colour . . . (inaudible) . . . in a beaker. You'll be using water to help draw that colour out, so we'll make a coloured solution – a coloured liquid. That will be an

> indicator. The same way as we have used litmus as an indicator but it will be different colours and so we should see a different colour happening when we test it with an acid and a base and we can record that. (Sc. 21–30) (Mickan, 2007, pp.112-113)

In Extract 1, the teacher's talk is part of the socialisation of students into scientific practices through the language of science, including aims of the experiment, technical terminology, the experimental procedure and recording results. The teacher has made choices related to Field (teaching science), Tenor (teacher and student science apprentices) and Mode (semiformal spoken language), exemplifying how speakers and writers make choices from the language system according to the social context. The teacher's selection of text and wording fit the social practices of science, which highlights language as a resource for the expression and comprehension of meaning potential, whereby participants are interpreting what is said and written and formulating meanings for themselves. During instruction, the teacher and students analyse the appropriate types of texts and examine the lexicogrammar which comprises the texts. The science teacher did this as part of normal instruction. The interactions in class were an apprenticeship into social practices through the language of science (O'Hallaron et al., 2015). Over time, these lesson activities socialise students into scientific discourses and practices. Similarly, the practices of Australian EAL and TESOL teachers induct and socialise students into the discourses of school and community cultural practices (Mickan et al., 2007).

SFL and TESOL curricula

In the past decades, curriculum materials based on SFL have been designed for the Adult Migrant Education Program (AMEP) (Burns & De Silva Joyce, 2007) and for EAL teaching (South Australian Department of Education, 2003). A current curriculum is the South Australian Department of Education's (2020) *Learning English: Achievement and Proficiency* (LEAP/D) project. The LEAP/D curriculum is an advanced resource applying a SFL framework to a curriculum that is directly connected with teacher professional development. It documents children's development of Standard Australian English (SAE) from Reception to Year Ten and is structured with three year-level groupings corresponding to the national curriculum, ACARA. It, therefore, reflects students' language repertoires across a range of contexts and texts.

LEAP/D and its teacher mentoring program validate the applications of SFL in languages education (Custance & White, 2022). The curriculum is based on the documentation of students' development in composition of texts from less formal language to the formal language requirements of the curriculum. LEAP/D assumes that speakers and writers make wording choices on a continuum from spoken-like discourse to formal academic texts. Language analysis is specific to texts and to text types in the curriculum. For example, the curriculum includes informative texts in mathematical/scientific investigation, descriptive/comparative and classifying texts in historical and geographical studies, as well as many other persuasive and evaluative texts such as exposition, response, review, analysis, and recounting and narrative texts. LEAP/D is a distinctive resource for teachers with its description of school children's discourse requirements, and identification of features of texts for targeted instruction and intervention. In the detailed analysis of texts, the curriculum highlights how children's school studies and success are reliant on managing a wide repertoire of text types for knowledge building and for lesson and community participation (Christie, 2012). In doing so, it exemplifies the view of language as a social resource in the development of children's speaking and writing (Schleppegrell, 2017).

Curriculum design and teacher education

SFL informed pedagogy is dependent on teachers' knowledge about language applied to explicit analysis and teaching of texts and genres at the semantic level of text and the nano-level of lexicogrammatical selections. Studies on teacher training based on SFL show how language awareness and knowledge of the metalanguage of SFL impacts on teachers' decision-making and instructional practices. In a review of 103 SFL-based teacher professional development (PD) studies in the United States of America, Accurso & Gebhard (2021) conclude "SFL-based PD has been effective for supporting teachers' increased semiotic awareness, pedagogical knowledge, critical awareness, and confidence for literacy teaching" (2021, p. 16). Troyan et al. (2019) claim that SFL can be a flexible knowledge base for teachers to help students understand how the features of a particular oral or written genre work together to convey messages. The findings show the value of applications of SFL for teachers' programming, analysis and teaching of texts. Included in pre-

service teachers' education, a knowledge of SFL supports literacy pedagogy with analysis of linguistic features across a range of texts (Banegas, 2021; Sembiante et al., 2020).

Intended as a support for SFL-based education, Mickan (2020) proposes a SFL reference for language education curriculum design, planning instruction and reviewing of policies and practices (Figure 3). The reference provides criteria and standards for language educators' decision-making and for the evaluation of curriculum and pedagogy:

1.	Policy aim: Curriculum enacts the view of language as a resource for expression of meanings
2.	Theory of learning: Students learn language by engaging in acts of meaning with authentic oral and written texts
3.	Lesson tasks: Students work with text-based tasks to comprehend, respond to and formulate meanings
4.	Text analysis: Students selectively analyse grammar of text types specific to social function
5.	Language awareness: Students examine and describe variations in lexicogrammatical choices for composition of text types
6.	Program content: Students build knowledge and skills with content texts in acts of meaning.

Figure 3: SFL reference for language education curriculum design (adapted from Mickan, 2020)

The application of the SFL frame of reference (Figure 3) to policy and curriculum implements a social semiotic pedagogy. Language plays a central role in education (Halliday, 1993) and a knowledge of SFL as a system applied in practice is capable of systematic transformation of current practices in education (Mickan, 2000). The SFL point of view presents an opportunity to address dismantled discourse pedagogy in research, policy and practice. With the SFL focus on language as a resource for learning to mean, students talk, read and write with authentic texts. As Hasan (2012) writes - "acts of meaning call for someone who 'means' and someone to whom that meaning is meant: there is a 'meaner', some 'meaning' and a 'meant to'" (p. 83). The challenge for curriculum designers, teacher educators and teachers is to apply a social semiotic view of language and learning in

curriculum design and in instruction. SFL gives insights for teachers into their use of language for teaching and into strategies for explicit teaching of subject discourses. It also informs educators how language is a primary resource for teaching by raising awareness of the language choices we make for different purposes in our speech and in our writing. This is relevant knowledge for students making choices in text, discourse and lexicogrammar in acts of meaning in their own speech and compositions.

The professional programs of teacher organisations such as ACTA underscore the roles of teachers in curriculum designing, monitoring and research. For Halliday (2007) education is a field of activity "where we investigate how language functions in various educational contexts, and by doing so, seek to improve our educational practice" (p. 270). TESOL teachers' knowledge of language in education positions them to apply SFL in education in general (Alyousef, 2020; Derewianka, 2015: de Silva Joyce & Feez, 2012; Macken-Horarik, 2005), as in the South Australian inservice program *ESL in the Mainstream* (Burke & South Australia Education Department, 1991) and in the LEAP/D program referred to above.

TESOL professionals have been at the forefront of evidence-based research and teaching in languages education in Australia. They have played a pivotal role in addressing teachers' need for knowledge about language based on a coherent theory of language learning as a social semiotic process (Halliday 1978, 1993; Hasan, 2012). SFL integrated in curriculum and teaching scaffolds students' management of the discourses embedded in their daily schooling experiences and builds students' knowledge about language for engagement in society.

SFL has general significance for educational policies, teacher education and curriculum design. Viewed across the curriculum, it has implications for conversations around the decline in national literacy and numeracy standards in Australian schools since 2000 (Australian Government Productivity Commission, 2022; DET, 2018; Mickan & Wallace, 2020). Educators' work with SFL has impacted on students' literacy and numeracy through teacher education, curriculum and pedagogy (Hasan & Williams, 1996). SFL based teacher education influences teachers' pedagogical knowledge relevant to literacy education (Accurso & Gebhard, 2021). The study of SFL theory applied in practice in preservice and inservice teacher education is, therefore, a practical

strategy to address the national, documented decline in literacy in schools. The evidence from SFL applied in Australia is a reminder for educational administrators, policy formulators and teachers of the central place of language in children's and adults' education as a meaning-making, social resource.

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Where is Systemic Functional Grammar in the Adult Migrant English Program?

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Abstract: *Starting in 1948, Australia's Adult Migrant English Program (AMEP) has continued to deliver language education to migrants for the purposes of settlement and attaining employment. Both in Australia and internationally, the AMEP and its related developments in English language education have had a profound impact on the teaching and learning of English as an Additional Language (EAL), particularly in terms of their contributions to the field of Systemic Functional Grammar (SFG), which became the theoretical underpinning of the AMEP curriculum in the early 1990s. However, it would seem that a quarter of a century later, SFG is missing in action. This paper traces SFG's presence in the AMEP through its inception in the Certificate in Spoken and Written English (CSWE) through various evolutions of the AMEP, and speculates on the implications of SFG's apparent absence in the AMEP today.*

Introduction

From humble beginnings to international recognition as a leader in EAL, the Adult Migrant English Program (AMEP) has evolved and changed significantly for three quarters of a century. Shaped by, and helping to shape, pedagogical movements over the years, the AMEP was fortuitously enhanced by Australia's involvement in the research and development of systemic functional linguistics (Oliver, Rochecouste, & Nguyen, 2017). The functional view of language has had a profound and lasting impact on language teaching – most notably, it gave rise to a game-changing EAL curriculum framework (Burns, 1995), which was adopted at the national level for the AMEP.

During the 1990s and early 2000s, fruitful collaborations were carried out between researchers, curriculum writers, and educators. Systemic functional grammar (SFG) became the theoretical foundation for language teaching in the AMEP, and its

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implementation was supported by ongoing research and development funded by the Commonwealth Government of Australia. Gradually, however, with the shifting of political sands and an increasing focus on accountability, many of the support channels dried up, leaving the AMEP in a state of disrepair. The quality of teaching has deteriorated and the stress levels of teachers and administrators has increased (ACTA, 2018). As will be argued throughout this paper, the gradual erosion of the prioritisation of professional development and professional standards (ACTA, 2018; ACTA, 2019) seems to have overshadowed the status of SFG, which had once featured prominently in pedagogy. Throughout recent decades, AMEP stakeholders have been calling for more professional development and support that would help teachers to better understand and implement elements of the AMEP curriculum (Burns & Hood, 1994; Brindley, 2001; Yates, 2008; ACTA, 2018). It would seem that this need is more important than ever today.

In this paper, the history of the AMEP is outlined, focusing on significant reforms and highlighting the relevant political landscape. The centrality of SFG in the development of the AMEP curriculum framework and its implications for teaching and assessment are then discussed. The paper concludes with a reflection on the present-day role of SFG and argues that the AMEP needs a revival of the knowledge sharing that once existed and which elevated the AMEP to its former status as a world leader in EAL (Moore, 1995; 2022).

Background to the AMEP

The AMEP began in 1948, when economic pressure compelled Australia to grow its population. To address this need, Australia opened its doors to immigrants, many of whom were fleeing their home countries. The post-war period saw a significant increase in immigration, with Australia agreeing to settle an annual quota of 12,000 refugees from 1947 (Martin, 1999, p. 4). As a result of relevant government policies, the AMEP[1] was founded with the aim of providing migrants with basic English skills to assist with their settlement. According to Martin (1999, p. 5), this was a unique program, as no other country in the world guaranteed free English tuition as part of its immigration policy. The AMEP

(1) Until 1990, AMEP stood for the Adult Migrant Education Program.

continued to grow until 1964 (Martin, 1999). At this time, the program was run by the Commonwealth Office of Education (as it was then called), which was also responsible for training AMEP teachers and publishing AMEP materials. A review of the program in 1978 resulted in increased funding stability on a triennial basis, transforming the program "from an educational backwater into a professionalised program capable of meeting a diversity of ESL needs" (Moore, 2001, p. 104).

Since its inception, the AMEP has been passed between various government departments, but has remained largely with the immigration portfolio (Lowes, 2004). A revised bill in 1958 saw the abolishment of the xenophobic dictation test that was connected to Australia's post-war assimilation policy: the *Immigration Restriction Act 1901* (Moore, 1995). In 1973, the government introduced a new multicultural policy (Martin, 1999) and, by 1987, a new language policy had been commissioned, entitled the National Policy on Languages. The National Policy on Languages initiated many benefits for language education programs (Moore, 1995), particularly because it was based on the assumption that linguistic diversity was intrinsically valuable. In other words, the value of language education was not defined by employment outcomes.

The funding cycle for the National Policy on Languages ended in 1991 and, according to Moore (1995), its pluralistic view of language was replaced with an economic-rationalist paradigm in the form of the Australian Language and Literacy Policy (Commonwealth of Australia, 1991). The Australian Language and Literacy Policy was founded on an economically-oriented agenda to grow the skilled workforce, and involved major reforms (Burns & de Silva Joyce, 2007). The policy introduced a basic entitlement of 510 hours of tuition for all eligible migrants, with potentially up to an additional 500 hours depending on the learner's age and pre-migration background. However, as Lowes (2004) points out, it is unreasonable to expect that most learners can attain a functional level of English in this timeframe.

The quantification of learning was connected to a deeper issue: that of the corporatisation and commodification of education. According to Moore (1995, p. 11), "Efficiency was defined, largely ideologically, in terms of reduced but clearly stated goals framed by senior managers, diminished program budgets, devolved responsibility for policy implementation, 'user pays', contracting out and tendering". Since 1998, public and

private education providers have tendered for the delivery of the AMEP, which according to Burns and de Silva Joyce (2007) has undermined the program's stability. The 1990s also saw a nation-wide adoption of competency-based training. While praised by some as being more learner-focused and relevant to learners' needs, this greater emphasis on measurable assessment diverted "energy and resources from client outcomes into meeting the increased paperwork required for making further applications for funding" (Lowes, 2004, p. 16)[2].

This shifting perception of language education was aligned politically with unemployment and threats to democracy (Moore, 1995, p. 13). The very same ideology has received renewed attention in recent years. In December 2020, Acting Minister for Immigration Alan Tudge announced major reforms to the AMEP including the removal of the 510 hour limit for tuition, stating that, "Without English, it is harder to get a job, harder to be an active member of the community, and harder to participate in our democratic processes" (Australian Government, 2010). Tudge's comment acknowledges the same social challenges voiced by Moore (1995), and has resulted in better access to EAL tuition for Australian migrants, particularly long-term residents whose prior entitlements had been exhausted or had expired. However, the uncapping of hours has not mitigated the impacts of the commodification of the AMEP in the 1990s. For example, competitive tendering still occurs today. Policy, in addition to other factors, has driven change and innovation in the AMEP curriculum, affecting all areas of teaching and assessment.

Pedagogical phases in the AMEP

From its inception up to 1977, the AMEP's curriculum structure was centralised (Colman, 1988). Pedagogically, the dominant teaching approach was the so-called traditional method, which focuses on the gradual accumulation of linguistic structures and the development of correct language habits (Oliver, Rochecouste, & Nguyen, 2017). In 1965 the Commonwealth Office of Education published a series of textbooks that featured sentence-level practice exercises situationally, highlighting their function in social contexts. The series, entitled *Situational English*, was used in the AMEP until the mid-1970s. Referred to as Situational

(2) For an overview of the debate, see Burrows (1994).

Language Teaching[3], this approach emerged from the influence of British linguists such as John Rupert Firth and Michael Halliday, who were exploring the relationship between context and structure (Feez, 2001). The situational approach to language teaching involved "systematic principles of selection [...] gradation [...] and presentation" (Richards & Rogers, 2001, p. 38), which is how many EAL course books can still be described today. As Situational Language Teaching also included techniques inspired by behavioural psychology, drills and rote memorisation were common (Richards & Rogers, 2001).

The aim of Situational Language Teaching in the AMEP was to get learners using real-world English as quickly as possible. The centralised adoption of Situational Language Teaching represented a synergy between linguistic research and curriculum development, resulting in innovations which are still considered best practice in EAL today. For instance, the positioning of linguistic structures within their real-life contexts was an important development of the approach (Feez, 2001). Situational Language Teaching remained prominent in the AMEP until the 1980s, when Communicative Language Teaching became the new paradigm[4].

According to Nunan (1989), changing social dynamics in the migrant population brought into sharp relief the notion that a single, centralised curriculum was not able to meet diverse learners' needs. Thus, in the 1980s, a decentralised, learner-centred curriculum was implemented in the AMEP. Influenced by research in second language acquisition and progressive pedagogies, the approach placed a greater onus on teachers to negotiate an individualised curriculum for each learner (Butler & Bartlett, 1986). At the same time, Australian EAL was being influenced by Communicative Language Teaching. Inspired in particular by Dell Hymes in the United States and Michael Halliday in the United Kingdom, Communicative Language Teaching became the dominant approach in the AMEP.

Within the Communicative Language Teaching movement, there was also a focus on "units of meaningful language" which were classified as functions and notions (Feez, 2001, p. 211). Known as the functional-notional approach, this method aimed to

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(3) Also known as the structural-situational approach and the oral approach (Richards & Rogers, 2001). The underlying theory is British structuralism.

(4) For a more detailed history up to the mid-1980s, see Brindley (1986).

"integrate notional, functional, grammatical, and lexical specifications built around particular themes and situations", and Australia's AMEP was one of the first courses to attempt this (Richards & Rogers, 2001, p. 206). The benefits of the functional-notional approach were, however, offset by combining it with the principle of negotiating learning outcomes with learners. This combined approach proved to be difficult for teachers to implement in practical terms (Bartlett, 1990). The negotiated curriculum also suffered from a lack of continuity, feedback, and clarity, not to mention the difficulties for administration and reporting (Burns, 2003). As a result, it was soon abandoned (Burns & de Silva Joyce, 2007). According to Oliver, Rochecouste, and Nguyen (2017), the issues resulting from the negotiated curriculum demanded a more "visible" pedagogy (Bernstein, 1990; Freire, 2005 [1970]). Accordingly, government funds were invested into a National Curriculum Project to instate new curriculum guidelines (Nunan, 1989), namely the Certificate in Spoken and Written English.

The Certificate in Spoken and Written English and its theoretical foundations

In 1992 a new EAL curriculum was developed by AMES[5] – the Australian Migrant Education Services – under the AMEP national plan 1990-1992 (Martin, 1999, p. 36). The curriculum, known as the Certificate in Spoken and Written English (CSWE) was adopted as the national AMEP curriculum in 1993. It was theoretically informed by the 'Sydney School' of linguistics (Hyon, 1996) – a branch of systemic functional linguistics focusing on text types, or *genres*, within their social contexts. Despite the absence of the National Policy on Languages and its generous funding for language programs, the 1990s continued to attract funding for AMEP research, which was geared toward Australia's economic development in a globalised world (Moore, 1995, p. 11). Since the socio-political context and theoretical description of the CSWE is well documented elsewhere (Feez, 1999; Feez, 2001; Burns, 2003; Burns & de Silva Joyce, 2007; Yusny, 2014), only a brief overview will be presented here.

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(5) Known previously as State Migration Education Centres (Martin, 1999), AMES was formally established in 1951 (AMES Australia, 2020).

Built on the foundations of Sydney School genre pedagogy (Hyon, 1996), the CSWE approach views the whole text as the fundamental unit of meaning. In this way, the CSWE moves beyond the sentence level and takes a holistic view of grammar in context. Grammatical structures are viewed not merely as sentences functioning within a particular situation (as in Situational Language Teaching) but rather as the probabilistic linguistic elements that construe and characterise a particular genre (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014). Since context is viewed as inseparable from meaning, text-based language teaching is largely consistent with discourse-focused approaches to language teaching (e.g. Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000). Text-based language teaching also acknowledges the social factors associated with learning languages, and recognises that *learning* a language occurs through *using* the language (Halliday, 2004 [1980]). Text-based language teaching is also, by and large, consistent with Communicative Language Teaching (e.g. Littlewood, 1981) and Task-Based Language Teaching (e.g. Nunan, 2004). The text-based approach allows for a variety of methods and syllabus elements. These elements are organised according to whole texts, the selection of which is determined by learners' needs (Feez, 1999). In this way, text-based language teaching remains learner-centred while potentially retaining the consistency of syllabus elements, which take the form of demonstrated knowledge and performance.

Within the Sydney School's text-based, or genre pedagogy, a teaching-learning cycle was developed (See Figure 1) and adopted by the AMEP.

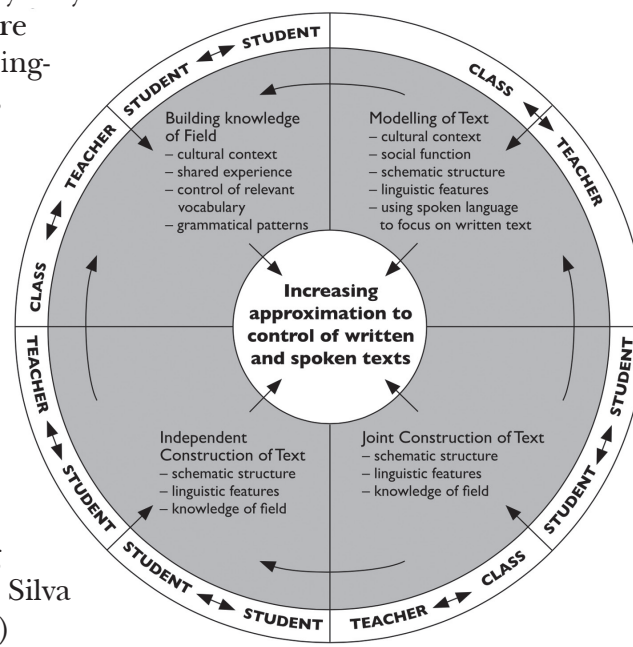

Figure 1: Teaching-learning cycle (Burns & de Silva Joyce, 2007, p. 13)

As shown in Figure 1, the approach can begin with activities that build learners' knowledge of context. The teacher may then present a model text, raising learners' awareness of the text's features including purpose, meaning and grammar. After that, the construction of a similar text is scaffolded through co-construction with the teacher or another learner. Learners then construct a similar text independently. Any feedback about the independently constructed text functions to increase the learner's understanding of the target genre, which brings the cycle back to the start. This, however, is not a prescriptive method. The process can begin at any point: for instance, a learner could start with the independent construction of a text as a diagnostic task.

By involving explicit grammar instruction, the teaching-learning cycle aims to make visible the language choices in a text that may often be taken for granted (Feez, 2001). Additionally, "by making the language patterns of different types of texts more visible, genre pedagogy also makes more visible the values and worldviews embodied in those patterns" (Feez, 2001, p. 215). In other words, text-based langauge teaching helps to facilitate the development of critical literacy.

SFG in the CSWE

From its inception to the first decade of the twenty-first century, the CSWE was supplemented by professional development that was supported by AMEP funding, and the collaboration of researchers, curriculum writers and practitioners. Located at Macquarie University[6], and influenced by the Sydney School (linguistics), the National Centre for English Language Teaching and Research and the AMEP research centre published research and teaching resources prolifically for around 20 years (1989-2009). Combined with pre-service TESOL courses that include a focus on SFG (Chappell & Moore, 2012) and the materials and workshops delivered at the time by AMES NSW, it would seem that the infrastructure for sharing knowledge about SFG was a major contributor to the high level of AMEP teacher expertise.

A notable amount of research published in CSWE's heyday suggests that the ongoing allocation of resources for teachers' professional development was vital for CSWE's success in the

(6) NCLTR was a cooperative between Macquarie University in Sydney and LaTrobe University in Melbourne.

classroom. The importance of professional development has been underlined, with relevance to curriculum innovation (Burns & Hood, 1994; Butorac, 2008; Feez & Joyce, 2000) classroom practice (Burns, 2000; Yates, 2008; Zhang, 2018) and assessment (Brindley, 2000; Brindley, 2001; Murray, 2007). This support is critical because the effectiveness of the enacted curriculum depends largely on training and professional development for teachers: a crucial element that was missing from the Language Instruction for Newcomers to Canada program (Zhang, 2018, p. 123).

When interviewing Australian AMEP teachers regarding how they approached the teaching of writing skills, Cumming (2001) found pedagogical consistency, particularly in comparison to similar migrant EAL programs overseas. He concluded this observed consistency was probably due to the AMEP's use of government-funded professional development programs, resources and research from the previous 20 years. For example, one of the interviewees was quoted on this pheonomenon as saying:

> Debates about writing have been very intense here. For example, in Britain, educators have been compartmentalised. But in Australia that is not the case. Theoretical developments cross fields. There are close relations between researchers and teachers. This has produced very positive things. (Cumming, 2001, p. 8)

Cumming (2001) also found that Australian AMEP teachers had a good understanding of the theoretical underpinnings of the CSWE's teaching-learning cycle (Figure 1), i.e. SFG. Much of this knowledge about the functional nature of language was disseminated through funded channels such as AMES NSW. AMES NSW, the organisation that developed CSWE, implemented an extensive professional development program focusing on SFG and its application to teaching. Such programs helped AMEP teachers to understand the grammatical and linguistic theory underlying the curriculum framework and it seems that this high level of support was necessary for its innovation.

CSWE was the first language curriculum to institutionalise systemic functional linguistics (Feez & Joyce, 2000). As such, the CSWE takes a descriptive rather than prescriptive approach to language, explicitly describing what learners need to do in order to achieve their social goals using language (Feez & Joyce, 2000).

According to Halliday (2004 [1980]), there are three significant areas that need to be considered in language pedagogy: learning language, learning about language, and learning through language. These aspects are reflected in the fact that children start learning language from the moment of birth (p. 308), that language shapes our worldview or social realities (p. 317), and that developing an explicit understanding of the nature and functions of language is critical (p. 322). The three areas are explicitly referenced in the CSWE documentation (Zhang, 2018):

- Learning language: [...] learning to make choices from linguistic systems.
- Learning about language: [...] knowing language choices that are available for use and knowing how these choices are made according to different social and cultural contexts.
- Learning through language: [...] language resources to communicate new knowledge and ideas with others. (Zhang, 2018, pp. 52-53)

Zhang (2018) goes on to argue that the theoretical foundation of the CSWE is a reason for its success, especially when contrasted with AMEP's Canadian counterpart, the Language Instruction for Newcomers to Canada program.

Although the CSWE takes SFG as its theoretical foundation, the teaching-learning cycle does not prescribe the teaching of SFG. Burrows (2000) showed that for some teachers, the implementation of the CSWE resulted in an increased usage of SFG metalanguage and grammatical terminology which was relevant to the curriculum. However, other teachers, who claimed that the CSWE had not affected their teaching, resisted this washback effect. This suggests that, as a framework, the CSWE has the flexibility to accommodate various approaches to teaching grammar. For instance, there is no requirement for teachers to teach SFG, even though this was the original intention of the CSWE writers. In fact, following an in-depth analysis of the CSWE framework, Zhang (2018, pp. 116-117) suggests that the curriculum guidelines could be better aligned to its theoretical framework in order to potentially improve teacher practice.

Assessment within the CSWE

Around the same time that the Australian Language and Literacy Policy was introduced in the early 1990s, concern with assessment

increased, especially from the Department of Employment, Education and Training (Moore, 1995). As Brindley (2001 p.393) pointed out, roughly a decade later, "Educational institutions worldwide have been under increasing pressure from governments to demonstrate efficiency and cost-effectiveness by more rigorous reporting of program outcomes." Notwithstanding the tension between political and educational perspectives on assessment (Brindley, 2001), the need for an assessment system that could serve both AMEP providers and government was clear.

At the time, the assessment system used in the AMEP was the Australian Second Language Proficiency Ratings (ASLPR) scale (Ingram, 1996). New AMEP clients were assessed against the ASLPR before commencing tuition to establish a benchmark against which progress could be measured and reported[7]. However, the ASLPR was considered inadequate for government policy development and funding purposes because it only described learners in terms of general language proficiency. As such, it was not suitable for reporting "reliable gains [...] for the purposes of program reporting and evaluation" (Brindley, 2000, p. 4). A more clearly focused outcomes-based assessment system was needed.

The CSWE assessment system was designed with reporting outcomes in mind. Competency-based assessment was chosen, which was part of a larger nation-wide reform that was wrapped in the political rhetoric of upskilling the Australian workforce (Burrows, 1994). A set of outcomes were written for each of the four certificate levels, based on what learners were required to be able to do in the target text. However, there was a large degree of variation in the design and administration of assessment tasks and inconsistency with assessor's judgements (Brindley, 2001). Brindley (2001) concluded that the most significant factors affecting the quality of competency-based assessment were practical, such as time allocation and level of expertise.

Concerns with the validity and reliability of competency-based assessment were also raised during CSWE's early stages, especially from teachers and assessment experts (Burrows, 1994).

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(7) A very similar procedure is in place today. New clients are assessed against the ACSF scale but progressive assessments are no longer required. The new contract for 2023 will most likely provide funding to providers based on the demonstration of learner progression through the successful completion of units – see Moore (2022) for a discussion of the potential impacts of such a funding model.

Further, the issue of equivalence between the ASLPR and the CSWE was a concern from an educational point of view (Brindley, 2000). Perhaps for this reason, the ASLPR was not replaced by the CSWE. Rather, it was decided that the AMEP would use both systems for assessment and reporting in the AMEP.

Although ASLPR changed its name to the ISLPR[8] in 1997 (Murray, 2007), fundamentally the system was not changed. Arguably the most signifcant change regarding AMEP assessment was introduced via a new business model in July 2017, with both the ISLPR and CSWE scales being replaced by the Australian Core Skills Framework (ACSF). The government decentralised the AMEP curriculum on July 1st, 2017 (ACTA, 2018), so that the CSWE was no longer mandatory. This resulted in some providers deciding to discontinue using the CSWE in the AMEP.

The government's decision to use the ACSF was comdemned by ACTA[9] – the peak body representing Australian EAL practitioners. ACTA's submission to the government claimed that the ACSF lacked validity and reliability, destroyed a working system, was theoretically unsuitable, and eroded the quality of education (ACTA, 2018, p. 6). By this time, funding for the AMEP research centre had ceased and, compared with the 1990s and early 2000s, the AMEP's ability to provide quality EAL instruction was compromised. Since the AMEP research centre was closed in 2009, the volume of published research has dramatically decreased and "With the absence of firmly established professional recognition in the education context, the provision of EAL instruction has suffered the impact of numerous external forces despite the agitations of those associations aligned with this field" (Oliver, Rochecouste & Nguyen, 2017, p. 20).

The demise of CSWE

The new business model of 2017 impacted not only assessment but also the sharing of knowledge which had helped teachers to enact the curriculum. The AMEP research centre and the National Centre for English Language Teaching and Research had been decommissioned eight years previously, and the consequences of reduced funding must have been obvious. For instance, the academic journal *Prospect*, which published many of the articles

(8) International Second Language Proficiency Ratings.

(9) Australian Council of TESOL Associations.

cited in this paper, was funded by the AMEP research centre and ceased publishing in 2009. The demise of the AMEP research centre also meant that the development of the CSWE would now have to rely financially on its licence fee (ACTA, 2019, p. 64).

Since the 2017 business model did not mandate the CSWE, some providers in Queensland, Victoria and South Australia decided that they would adopt an alternative curriculum. According to ACTA (2019), the government's decision to allow alternative curricula was framed as providing flexibility. However, in reality, the move shifted costs away from the Commonwealth by allowing providers not to pay CSWE's licence fee, in turn allowing them to offer a more competitive AMEP tender. Ultimately, the cost was passed on to individual teachers in terms of the extra time required of them, since the alternative curricula was not supported by a bank of ready-made validated assessments and teaching materials (ACTA, 2019). Another source of increased frustrations was the use of the ACSF to report learners' progress to the government. As indicated in ACTA (2019, p. 67), "The curriculum market is now regulated by the ACSF compliance mechanism" and such reporting is a "fiction" that is "maintained and audited in a vicious cycle that is contaminated by conflicting interests" (ACTA, 2019, p. 83).

The move to choose CSWE alternatives is also linked to a gradual erosion of teaching quality. While both the CSWE and the EAL framework (Victoria State government's alternative) require teachers to hold a TESOL qualification, other curricula (namely South Australia's CEP and TAFE Queensland's CSL) do not. This stands in stark contrast to the 1990s and early 2000s, when ample support and professional development for CSWE teachers were provided through Commonwealth funding. As previously argued, the CSWE has a sound pedagogical basis that requires ongoing professional development for effective enactment. It would seem by cutting costs, the proverbial baby has been thrown out with the bathwater.

Where is SFG?

The CSWE was an important innovation in the delivery of the AMEP in Australia and in EAL teaching more generally (Burns & de Silva Joyce, 2007; Feez & Joyce, 2000). Much of its effectiveness can be attributed to the role of SFG, which was instrumental in making language and learning more visible in the curriculum framework (Feez, 1999). As argued above, the role of funding and

policy cannot be understated – indeed it was the funding from the Commonwealth government that allowed the CSWE project to occur in the first place. What the funding provided, however, was the resources to research and develop a theoretically sound curriculum framework that also met the government's reporting requirements and was flexible enough to accommodate varying learner needs and teaching methodologies, in particular the teaching-learning cycle (Figure 1).

The teaching-learning cycle was not only adopted in the AMEP; the Sydney School (linguistics) research also had a profound influence on the Australian National English Curriculum for mainstream schools (Burns, 2003; Jones & Derewianka, 2016). However, although grammar is a fundamental element of the national curriculum and its teaching approach, from an SFG perspective, it was not adequately taught in schools (Polias & Dare, 2006).

The idea that there was a systematic connection between genres and their lexicogrammar and that these patterns could be taught was ignored by most teachers. Instead, what took its place was a somewhat superficial teaching around 'language features' that was neither systematic, or even functional (Polias & Dare, 2006, p. 124).

Functional grammar lays bare the visible ways in which texts achieve their purposes (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014). However, grammar was often neglected by school teachers, creating a need for structured professional development programs in order to properly enact the curriculum. This is understandable, given the reported "lack of teacher declarative knowledge of even basic traditional grammatical items, let alone the more complex grammar typical of authentic texts" (Derewianka, 2019, p. 842).

It would seem that an analogous phenomenon has occurred in the AMEP, whereby the curriculum's greatest strength, i.e. SFG, is no longer adequately addressed. As Derewianka (2019) points out, it cannot be taken for granted that AMEP teachers would have the required knowledge and confidence to teach SFG in a non-superficial way without ongoing professional support. Since the CSWE was eventually replaced with alternative curriculum frameworks in certain states, the question of whether SFG has survived remains unclear. For example, a brief review of selected writing units in the Core Skills for Learning (CSL) and English as an Additional Language (EAL) framework suggests that both are derivative of the CSWE in their approach to working with text

without prescribing the text type. As explained in the next paragrah, despite this similarity, each curriculum framework has key differences when compared to the CSWE.

CSL seems to be directed at literacy more than language, which indeed was one of the main criticisms voiced by ACTA (2018). In the CSL writing unit ETEWRT001 (TAFE Queensland, 2020), the word "grammar" does not appear in the performance criteria. However, in the knowledge evidence for ETEWRT001, explicit reference is made to a number of grammatical elements, including complex and compound sentences, dependent clauses, a range of verb tenses and language register appropriate to text purpose and audience. Interestingly, the demonstration of grammatical evidence is only required as "knowledge" and not "performance"[10]. In practical terms, this means that knowledge of grammatical items may be assessed in knowledge questions that are separate from the written text that learners have to produce. Well-written assessments would integrate the knowledge requirements with the performance evidence but the unit's separation of grammar from performance effectively downplays grammar's role in text construction, which is the very antithesis of the CSWE approach (See Section 4).

The EAL framework's reading and writing unit VU22629 does not include an explicit reference to grammar in the performance criteria, but the document does state, in the evidence guide, that the "Assessment must confirm the ability to use routine conventions and *linguistic knowledge* to [...] write, review and correct a simple message in a workplace context using a series of short sentences" (State of Victoria, 2018, p. 400, my emphasis). The required linguistic knowledge mentioned in the evidence guide is detailed in a separate section of the document, where particular grammar points are itemised with explicit reference to features including sentence structure, question forms, cohesive devices, tense and aspect and modality. This reference to grammatical items suggests that compared to CSL's aforementioned focus on literacy, the EAL framework assigns a higher value to grammar and assumes the explicit teaching of grammar in preparing learners for assessment. It is interesting to note that

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(10) Since the time when this manuscript was initially submitted, the CSL curriculum has been updated. However, in my opinion, the difference between the old and new CSL is negligible and the assessments have remained mostly unchanged.

traditional and not functional grammatical terms are used, although this may not necessarily reflect an intention to avoid SFG.

Although the auditing body Linda Wyse & Associates evaluated both CSL and the EAL framework as being suitable for the AMEP (LWA, 2018), the latter appears to lend itself more readily to the teaching-learning cycle, and requires a more structured and explicit approach to teaching grammar. However, despite EAL's similarity to CSWE, the extent to which the teaching-learning cycle and SFG are present in the classroom is unknown. Since the funding for AMEP research has ended, it is now more difficult than ever to ascertain the status of SFG in the AMEP. Extensive expertise in the area of SFG, which guides best practice and maximises the effectiveness of the curriculum, seems to be missing from the AMEP as a result of the many sacrifices that have been made over the years. In fact, ACTA predict that "On current trends, TESOL expertise at all levels – from schools to teacher educators and researchers – will be lost to Australian education within the next five years (ACTA, 2022, p. 12).

1. Future of the AMEP

In 2023, the AMEP contract is once again up for renewal. One of the key differences in the proposed new contract is a return to the nationwide adoption of a single curriculum. The chosen curriculum is not CSWE, but rather the licence-free EAL framework. As I have suggested in this paper, the EAL has the potential to be an appropriate alternative. However, as teachers and researchers have been arguing since the 1990s (Burns & Hood, 1994; Brindley, 2001; Yates, 2008), what is needed for the successful enactment of the curriculum framework is ongoing professional development provided by language experts. This is true today not only in the AMEP but also for supporting English as an Additional Language/ Dialect students in mainstream schools (ACTA, 2022). Since the EAL framework is derivative of the CSWE, and thus takes as its basis the theory of SFG, it is imperative that AMEP teachers have the opportunity to engage with and improve their knowledge and skills of SFG. A proactive rather than a reactive approach is needed: one in which professionals with advanced knowledge of SFG are engaged to help AMEP teachers understand the language requirements of the successful teaching and assessment of the curriculum framework.

The effectiveness of the EAL framework as a national AMEP curriculum remains to be seen. Being apparently quite derivative of the original CSWE, and with EAL's focus on explicit grammatical items, it seems like it could be an effective substitution. Following the CSWE, the EAL framework seems to retain the legacy of Halliday's linguistic research and the Sydney School (linguistics) in its organising principles. According to SFG, texts achieve their meaning and purpose through grammatical choices, the functions of which are best understood in their social contexts (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014). These linguistic functions have a special metalanguage to describe them, which although complex, is a powerful and empowering way to make visible the intricate workings of language (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014). In order for AMEP teachers to be able to effectively teach SFG, special training and ongoing research and reflection is needed.

2. Conclusion

In this paper I have traced the evolution of the AMEP through various political landscapes to show the multifaceted ways in which it became a world leader in the field of EAL (Moore, 1995). I have argued that the introduction of the CSWE, with its theoretical foundations in SFG, was a game changer in terms of EAL pedagogy. I have also argued that its demise, brought about mostly by funding cuts and shifting political ideology, is lamentable. The decision to let AMEP providers choose their own curriculum, and more generally the contextual factors leading to this decision, have resulted in a significant decline in educational quality. Not only have certain alternative curriculum frameworks proven not to be fit for purpose (ACTA, 2019), but also the professional support and resources that were essential for effectively and efficiently enacting the curriculum have all but disappeared.

The AMEP, which was once an international champion in the field of EAL (Feez & Joyce, 2000; ACTA, 2022), has gradually deteriorated and now requires a concerted effort from its many stakeholders to return to its former glory. In order for this to occur, the role of SFG needs to be acknowledged in the curriculum, which includes remembering how many AMEP teachers across the nation once regarded its pedagogical value. SFG needs to be found and rescued before it is permanently lost in the ongoing conflict between educational values and economic rationalisation. Hopefully, this paper will make at least a small contribution to the pursuit of this important endeavour.

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Teachers' perceptions about their work with EAL/D students in a standards-based educational context

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Abstract: *Responding to increased cultural and linguistic diversity of students and teachers, Australian educators have recognised the importance of providing a diverse range of opportunities for social learning, multicultural engagement and support for students learning English as an additional language or dialect (EAL/D). However only a few studies examine the experience and work of EAL/D teachers (Cruickshank et al., 2003; Hammond, 2014), especially in reference to the standards framework provided by the Australian Professional Standards for Teachers (APST). In this case study, teachers' perceptions about their roles as teachers of EAL/D students working in public schools in NSW are explored. Data was collected through both focus group and individual interviews across four sites and the lens of activity theory and expansive learning is used to examine the tensions and conflicts they reveal especially in respect to the APST. It is hoped that this study will raise awareness of the professional learning needs of teachers who work with EAL/D students.*

1. Introduction

In Australia over 350 languages are spoken (Eades, 2013; Lo Bianco & Slaughter, 2017) and, especially in urban areas, the population is increasingly multilingual with individuals from a range of diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds (Chik, Benson & Maloney, 2019; D'warte, 2014). In New South Wales (NSW), where this research was conducted, around 36.9% of

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students come from Language Backgrounds Other Than English (LBOTE) (CESE, 2020). Some LBOTE students, especially refugee students and those from socially and economically disadvantaged communities, face challenges such as low academic language proficiency levels and may require specific support in their learning (Cummins, 2000; Laguardia & Goldman, 2007). All these students need teachers who are able to recognise and build on students' linguistic resources by developing a culturally responsive pedagogy (Dutton & Rushton, 2021, 2020; D'warte, 2014; Morrison et al., 2019).

To effectively support students, teachers need to choose strategies that develop a meaningful learning environment which embrace multicultural values and the diverse linguistic and cultural heritages of their students. All teachers in Australian schools, must meet Australian Professional Standards for Teachers (APST) which provide a framework for assessing both teachers' performance and their professional learning needs (AITSL, 2018, 2022). Additionally, the APST provide a public definition of teacher quality (AITSL, 2018, 2022). These standards define what teachers should know and be able to do, regardless of their disciplines. However, within the three domains and seven standards that make up the APST, teaching EAL/D students is explicitly mentioned in only the one domain of Professional Knowledge in three focus areas of two standards:

- Standard 1: Know students and how they learn
  - 1.3 Students with diverse linguistic, cultural, religious and socioeconomic backgrounds;
  - 1.4 Strategies for teaching Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander students; and
- Standard 2: Know the content and how to teach it
  - 2.4 Understand and respect Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people to promote reconciliation between Indigenous and non-Indigenous Australians.

In addition, there is little explicit mention of EAL/D anywhere in the APST or indication that teachers have a responsibility to help EAL/D students learn and access content.

In response to the increasing diversity of the contemporary educational context, the Australian Council of TESOL Associations (ACTA) redesigned their standards to assist teachers to map the

detail of ACTA standards onto the national APST (Hammond, 2014). The resulting elaborations of the APST were developed to incorporate the dispositions, understandings and skills of TESOL teachers and an orientation to what Morrison et al. (2019) refer to as a culturally responsive pedagogy. Similar to Morrison et al. (2019), in this study culturally responsive pedagogy refers to "those pedagogies that actively value, and mobilise as resources, the cultural repertoires and intelligences that students bring to the learning relationship." (p. v).

Given that the APST are used in the assessment of teacher competence at all career stages, they can concurrently be used to identify professional learning goals for individual teachers. This includes educators working with LBOTE or EAL/D students, who need to identify personal professional learning goals which support the development of a culturally responsive pedagogy. By comparing the APST with even the shortened descriptors in the EAL/D Elaborations (Table 1), the latter are clearly more explicit in defining what teachers of EAL/D or LBOTE students should know and do. The EAL/D Elaborations also make explicit reference to important principles, such as "multilingualism, reconciliation and anti-racism" (ACTA, 2023) all of which address aspects of a culturally responsive pedagogy.

Table (1). Comparison of APST Standard 1 'Know students and how they learn' and Standard 2 'Know the content and how to teach it.' (Graduate) with EAL/D Elaborations of the APST

	APST	**EAL/D Elaborations of the APST**
1.3 Students with diverse linguistic, cultural, religious and socioeconomic backgrounds	Demonstrate knowledge of teaching strategies that are responsive to the learning strengths and needs of students from diverse, linguistic, cultural, religious and socioeconomic backgrounds.	Demonstrate knowledge of inclusive teaching strategies that respond to EAL/D learner needs and principles of multilingualism, reconciliation and anti-racism. Be aware...

1.4 Strategies for teaching Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander students	Demonstrate broad knowledge and understanding of the impact of culture, cultural identity and linguistic background on the education of students from Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander backgrounds.	Taking account of the local context, and building on students' learning strengths, implement practices informed by all graduate indicators in the EAL/D Elaborations and refer to the Capability Framework as relevant. Demonstrate knowledge of ...
2.4 Understand and respect Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people to promote reconciliation between Indigenous and non-Indigenous Australians.	Demonstrate broad knowledge of, understanding of, and respect for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander histories, cultures and languages.	Demonstrate awareness of how different cultural communities within and beyond Australia perceive and relate to Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people, as well as their histories, cultures and languages. Explore the nature of intercultural competence...

This comparison provides the foundation for further exploration of EAL/D teachers' perceptions of their work and their professional learning needs within culturally and linguistically diverse contexts. This study aims to address the following research question:

- What perceptions do teachers of EAL/D students have about defining their work and identifying their professional learning needs in reference to standards such as the Australian APST and the EAL/D Elaborations?

2. Literature Review

The increasing diversity of the Australian population (Chik, Benson & Maloney, 2019; D'warte, 2014) indicates that teachers

will be required to support a growing number of students to develop language, literacy and cultural capital (Cummins, 2000 & 2005). Australia's rich linguistic heritage includes Indigenous languages, creoles and pidgins as well as the languages and dialects which are spoken in migrant communities. Supporting students from these communities is best achieved by building on their existing linguistic resources in classrooms, a practice that recognises and acknowledges their heritage and home languages (Allard, 2017; D'warte, 2014; Dutton & Rushton, 2018, 2021, 2022).

Many teachers work in contexts which have high percentages of EAL/D and LBOTE students. In Australia 5.8 million 22.8% of the population use a language other than English at home (ABS, 2021) and in NSW, the state with the largest population, 36.9% are LBOTE (CESE, 2020). The needs of EAL/D and LBOTE students are narrowly defined by standardised tests which solely focus on literacy development in English (Comber, 2012; Creagh, 2014; Cummins, 1981). As a result, the identification of learning needs, and the support offered may not adequately identify nor build on the linguistic and cultural resources of students from culturally and linguistically diverse communities.

Analysis of the "effective contemporary practice" of Australian teachers is the stated aim of the APST (2018, p. 2), but there are few affordances offered by the standards and descriptors to recognise the professional linguistic or cultural knowledge that a teacher might bring to their work with EAL/D or LBOTE students. This tension is further exacerbated as the specialist knowledge, mentoring and leadership attributes of experienced TESOL teachers (Hammond, 2012) are not able to be easily demonstrated using the APST, even though appointments at all stages of any teacher's career are made using the framework they provide.

Teachers of EAL/D students need to understand and take a plurilingual pedagogical stance (Ellis, 2013; Dutton & Rushton, 2021, 2022) if they are to support rather than undermine the learning rights of language-minority EAL/D students (García, 2013; Skutnabb-Kangas, 2013; Slaughter & Cross, 2021). For instance, the term 'translanguaging' (Li, 2014) is used to describe a framework in which plurilingual students are encouraged to use all their linguistic resources and to have their language choices validated and supported (Ollerhead, 2018). The implementation

of a pedagogical theory and approach like translanguaging may lead to the development of all the students' languages or dialects and certainly honours the identities and cultures of students with minority or Indigenous language heritage.

When implementing culturally responsive and translanguaging pedagogies, tension may be generated by a system which assesses and compares students within a stage/age group with little differentiation or consideration for the specific obstacles or learning pathways of LBOTE and EAL/D learners (Cummins, 1986 & 2005). The standardised tests administered from the early years up to and including the examinations in the final years of schooling, confirm the importance of English literacy. These tests are also used to either admit or exclude students from tertiary or post-secondary education (Connell, 1994). This focus on testing foregrounds school practices as ones that are best provided in an English-only classroom. As a result, teaching to the test in a monolingual classroom has now become a normalised part of education at all stages of schooling (Ellis, 2013; Lew & Siffrinn, 2019; Moloney & Giles, 2015).

This normalisation is not supportive of the differentiated learning needed for students who are learning English while they are also learning through and about English (Halliday, 2004). The stakes are high for refugee students or students from socially and economically disadvantaged communities (CESE, 2020). For some of these students, support from home may be non-existent or inadequate due to factors like loss of family, poverty, low levels of education or understanding about how to gain a meaningful education without high scores in standardised tests (Connell, 1994; Vinson, & Rawsthorne, 2015). In the case of refugees and many Aboriginal students, these cultural and social factors may be overlayed with generational trauma and dispossession which further contribute to a disconnection between the home and the school.

The challenge for teachers is to build a connection between home and school to promote student engagement and self-regulation which are widely recognised as vital for educational success (Dutton, D'warte, Rossbridge & Rushton, 2018; Mansour & Martin, 2009), especially for students living with social or economic disadvantage. The provision of teaching and resources which build on cultural and linguistic strengths will contribute to an environment in which EAL/D and LBOTE students can thrive.

Teachers must also be able to reflect on their own knowledge and understandings and whether they are able to effectively identify their students' learning needs, strengths and the strategies that will best support them.

The professional disposition, knowledge and understanding needed to support the development of a culturally responsive pedagogy (Coleman, 2015; Ellis, 2004 & 2013; Fielding, 2016; Li, 2014; Morrison et al., 2019) is in direct contrast to those built on a deficit model of additional language development. A deficit model places focus on learning a new or additional language or dialect rather than building on linguistic and cultural strengths. The deficit model is confirmed by a regime of standardised testing which only focusses on English literacy. A pedagogical stance which recognises and values linguistic competency is needed if innovative practices are to be effectively implemented for all students. A culturally responsive stance which values all students' linguistic and cultural resources (Creese & Blackledge, 2015; Duarte, 2019; French, 2016) is informed by theory and is intrinsically in conflict with the concept of an English-only classroom focussed on literacy in English.

A classroom which focusses on language as central to learning as it builds cultural and linguistic awareness also benefits monolingual English-speaking students (Fielding, 2016; García & Li, 2014; García-Mateus & Palmer, 2017; Hamman, 2018). Similarly talking and listening as a focus for learning can support all aspects of student learning (Ellis, 2004, 2013; Morrison et al., 2019), especially when the use of all of a student's languages or dialects is encouraged. For example, choosing drama strategies and group tasks which focus on oral interaction have been shown to both build on EAL/D students' existing linguistic resources while promoting engagement, self-regulation and the development of English language and literacy (Cummins & Early, 2011; Cummins, Hu, Markus & Montero 2015; Dutton & Rushton, 2018, 2021; D'warte & Slaughter, 2020).

The importance of supporting EAL/D and LBOTE students to maintain and use all their linguistic resources in educational settings has been established in many recent Australian studies (e.g., Dutton & Rushton, 2018, 2021, 2022; D'warte & Slaughter, 2020; Fielding, 2016; French, 2016; Ollerhead, 2018; Slaughter & Cross, 2021) but the impact of the framework of the APST as a tool of the system in determining and describing the work of

EAL/D teachers has not. The foundation of this research is one of the tools of the system in which teachers work, the APST, and the descriptors which describe and define teachers' work. Teachers' perceptions of the APST and how they are enacted within the educational system are explored along with the EAL/D Elaborations of the APST. Subsumed within this investigation is the adequacy of the APST descriptors to define and describe the work of teachers of EAL/D students within the specific Australian context.

3. Research Design and Methods

3.1 Theoretical Framework

Activity theory has been used in a number of studies (e.g., Barab et al., 2002; Yamagata-Lynch & Haudenschild, 2009) to explore contradictions and tensions that occur in educational contexts. The exploration of the web of complex social interactions in which the individual teacher and their community are situated are viewed as a collective activity system which "contains and generates a variety of different view- points or 'voices,' as well as layers of historically accumulated artifacts, rules, and patterns of division of labor" (Engeström, 2012, p. 27).

The examination of teachers' work and professional learning in this study is also supported by the use of Cultural Historical Activity Theory (CHAT) as a lens through which to explore the "multi-voiced and multilayered nature" of teaching (Engeström, 2012, p.26). Drawing on a sociocultural theoretical perspective, Engeström (1987) conceptualises learning as a dynamic social activity embedded in a socially-situated context which is shaped by a larger system of people, tools, rules and activities. Engeström (2007) suggests that an organisation can resolve tensions and internal contradictions by "boundary crossing, knotworking, negotiation, exchange and trading" (p.24) within and across 'activity systems' creating new social spaces for learning.

The complex nature of a multilayered and multi-voiced activity system may produce collective achievement or conflict (Engeström, 2012). By examining individual perceptions within a system, the systemic factors behind personal or individual perceptions may come to reveal the tensions within the activity system. In this study, the APST and the EAL/D Elaborations of the APST are both exemplifications of the tools and rules of the wider educational system in which teachers' work takes place. By

examining teachers' views of these tools and rules and their perceptions of their work and how it relates to standards set out by the APST, the tensions that need to be negotiated to create new social spaces for learning within the larger educational system may also be revealed.

3.2. Research design and context

This study uses a multi-site case study research design to explore the perceptions of EAL/D teachers in a specific context in Australia and was approved by the relevant university's Human Ethics Research Committee (no. 2015/568). Yin (2003) defines a case study as an investigation of a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life setting and emphasises that a case study is appropriate when investigating what is happening within a specific social context.

In this multiple-site case study, the researchers make a thorough and intensive exploration of a contemporary issue (teachers' perceptions), within a real-life setting (the contexts of EAL/D teachers' practices in one specific place in Australia). Data were collected at four sites which drew teachers from local state schools in demographic areas that are exemplified by socially and economically disadvantaged communities with significant numbers of EAL/D students.

3.3 Participants

A total of 21 teachers gave consent to participate in the interviews and focus groups. To ensure anonymity, participants in the focus group interviews were not individually identified and were not asked to identify themselves, their schools or their qualifications, although some spontaneously offered information about their career stages during the focus groups or interviews. The data collected reveal that the participants were at different career stages including some mainstream classroom teachers and some who have tertiary qualifications as specialist EAL/D teachers. Some of those without specialist training had no specialist support or professional development other than experiences shared in their own context.

3.4 Instruments

Data were collected from both individual and focus group interviews, which varied in size (n=1 to n=8) and totalled 3 ½ hours of recording. Individual interviews were undertaken when

the participants wished to be part of the research but were unavailable at the times the focus group interviews were undertaken.

Three semi-structured interviews with open-ended questions were undertaken with teachers from professional learning networks for teachers of EAL/D students. These interviews were held at two network sites in Sydney (anonymized as Bati & Algarb) and one in a regional area near Sydney (anonymized as Nan). Two semi-structured interviews with open-ended questions were also conducted with a school principal (anonymised as Kelly) and an EAL/D specialist teacher (anonymised as Brigid) at Algarb (n=2) and with an EAL/D specialist teacher (anonymised as Lauren) at Paschim (n=1). As the researchers were working closely with the networks, the participants who offered to participate in individual interviews were personally known.

For the focus groups 8 teachers participated at Bati, 3 at Nan and 7 at Algarb. To uphold anonymity, none of the participants were asked to identify any individual or personal information, and their voices were analysed as contributing to a single group response. For this reason, all contributions in the focus group interviews are identified in the transcriptions as 'teacher @ Nan/ Bati/Algarb, respectively.

Participants were encouraged to discuss and focus on any issues that they felt were of importance to their teaching practices in their particular contexts. The teachers were supported to discuss their work in relation to the following research question: *What perceptions do teachers of EAL/D students have about defining their work and identifying their professional learning needs in reference to standards such as the APST and the EAL/D elaborations?*

The interviewer and focus group facilitator prompts offered participants opportunities to discuss their own experiences and their perceptions of the APST and the EAL/D Elaborations. For instance, prompts relating to their own experience included: *Tell us about yourself and your experience in working with EAL/D students at your school.; What challenges do you think your EAL/D learners face at school?; What areas of professional learning do you need to enhance your teaching of EAL/D learners at your school?; What kinds of support do you need to facilitate your teaching of EAL/D learners?*

Perceptions of both the APST and the EAL/D Elaborations were also addressed with questions such as: *To what extent do you*

think the current Australian Professional Standards for Teachers (APST) support understanding in your context?; How can the ACTA Elaborations: 1. Support a better understanding of the APST in your context? 2. Support whole school plans for professional learning?

3.5 Analysis

Using the lens provided by CHAT (Engeström, 2012) teachers' experiences within the standards-based framework provided by the APST were explored as were the practices and tensions which the subjects of this research discuss in the interviews. Interviews were transcribed and then a thematic analysis was undertaken to categorise the data and examine features and patterns using the lens provided by Activity Theory. Credibility was maintained by ensuring the researchers worked both individually and then collaboratively to develop conceptual themes (Merriam, 2002) and analyse the data. Each researcher individually used CHAT to identify features and patterns. They then met to share their analyses and the themes they had identified and to develop thick descriptions (Geertz, 1973) of the data.

4. Findings

In this paper there is not the scope to discuss all of the themes which were evident in the data, instead it reports on the following three prominent themes that were the focus of discussion at all sites:

- the tensions in defining the EAL/D specialist teacher's role
- differentiation in the language classroom
- the importance of professional learning

While the teachers in this case study are aware of the APST and their use for setting professional learning goals and teacher accreditation, many had not used the EAL/D Elaborations and provided a range of responses when asked about their use. Lauren, an EAL/D specialist at Paschim, states:

> "I have been using the EAL/D Elaborations and they're fabulous however I have had people who have said no don't you use them don't trust them. So, I think there're a lot of people not feeling very confident about using those kinds of elaborations because they're different." (Lauren@Paschim)

Lauren's comment about a lack of confidence or even knowledge of the EAL/D Elaborations is echoed in the comments of many teachers at Algarb and Bati such as:

- *"No didn't know about them."* (Teacher@Algarb)
- *"We weren't given the option to use the EAL/D Elaborations."* (Teacher@Bati)
- *"No, I've never seen them."* (Teacher@Algarb)
- *"I'd like to have another look."* (Teacher@Algarb)

However, those teachers who were familiar with the EAL/D Elaborations of the APST found them useful. As Kelly, the school principal at Algarb states:

> "I'm using them to evaluate ... it gives us more information... because supporting EAL/D students is... in our school plan... part of one of our strategic directions, so these will help me to evaluate how we are going." (Kelly@Algarb)

4.1 Tensions in defining the EAL/D specialist teacher's role

As career progression is mapped by the APST in general terms, there is tension in differentiating and describing the roles of EAL/D educators, especially the mentoring aspect of the role of the specialist EAL/D teacher. For example, the role may be perceived as just a generalist support role:

> "I was an EAL/D teacher mentor... for 5 weeks last term, and there are a lot of teachers being appointed with new arrival funding with no EAL/D training at all. I think the natural thing for them to do is to give learning support." (Teacher@Nan)

Common modes of teaching such as team-teaching or the withdrawal of EAL/D students from mainstream classrooms may contribute to the view of the EAL/D teacher's role as a support to the mainstream teacher.

> "I feel like quite often I'm doing the job of an SLSO (School Learning Support Officer). Sitting next to the student helping him with the work then and there... While others they come to me and they say how about we split the room... and use me as a resource, as they should. I think that's a challenge." (Teacher@Nan)

The role of classroom teachers who are teaching EAL/D learners, either as mainstream classroom teachers or in specialist EAL/D roles, but without specialist knowledge, was also of concern.

> "I found the biggest challenge at my school is the apparent lack of training that mainstream teachers have, in catering to the needs of EAL/D students, particularly early career teachers. Considering the majority feed into South West Sydney, we have such a high percentage of EAL/D learners in the area, I am a little bit concerned that so few have, I mean some do choose some TESOL electives which is great, but a lot don't." (Teacher@Bati)

There is tension around recognition of the roles of EAL/D teachers, including the importance of their specialist knowledge and pathways to leadership. This is exemplified when teachers without specialist knowledge attempt to identify the needs of newly arrived EAL/D students.

> "If you're *(a new student)* arriving and your literate in a different script, you'll be put in the learning support group learning phonics... If you *(a teacher)* don't know what EAL/D is, or if you know what it is but you don't know how to do it, you'd just go straight to learning support... and put him in the phonics group and leave him there." (Teacher@Nan)

The role of the EAL/D teacher may also be seen as that of a specialist mentor, providing cognitive, cultural and social support for EAL/D learners and mentoring mainstream staff but without recognition as Highly Accomplished or Lead as identified by the APST.

> "I've finished my Master's degree in educational leadership... apart from delivering the TELL *(Teaching English Language Learners)* course and the Teaching Refugees course, with me being the facilitator, there isn't anything there for me to learn other than stepping into leadership positions." (Teacher@Nan)

4.2 Differentiation in the language classroom

Another theme identified in the data is the need to differentiate to meet the needs of EAL/D students. As Lauren at Paschim states:

> "Everybody is so preoccupied now with all this documentation ... they don't know... how to think about differentiation ... You need to think differently about what you're doing for it to be effective for them." (Lauren@Paschim)

Lauren, an experienced qualified EAL/D teacher, also noted that in fast-paced learning not enough attention is paid to the social and emotional impact on students acquiring a new language in a new cultural context. In the classroom they are also expected to learn through the medium of English while they also learn English and about English (Halliday, 2004). Therefore, students who are learning English are simultaneously learning about English, about the relationships, languages and cultural expectations of the school and the wider society. This means differentiating learning for individual students requires opportunities to learn about the contexts in which learning takes place.

> "One of the biggest issues is the speed we expect kids to be successful across the plan markers and the literacy continuum. You know they've been in the country for just a few weeks, a month and suddenly we expect them to get everything. Not just to get the curriculum but to get all the subtle nuances of living in a new country, a new community without their parents really understanding. So, I guess all that social dimension of being in Australia." (Lauren@Paschim)

It was also recognised that an emphasis on standardised testing has resulted in English-only classrooms with a focus on teaching to the test (Creagh, 2014; Ellis, 2013; Lew & Siffrinn, 2019; Moloney & Giles, 2015) rather than responding to the needs of students.

> "And on top of that, the literacy deficit in the home language that we are very aware of ... that has a huge impact on the acquisition of the second language." (Teacher@Bati)

The loss of the first language, i.e., subtractive bilingualism (Collier & Thomas, 2009), is also recognised by the participants as an obstacle to language development.

> "In my school my concern is with the loss of the first language, it is so evident with our parent group they want

> English, English, English. When we get to the older grades, I work with year four, that impact their learning, the loss of first language, subtractive bilingualism." (Teacher@Bati)

Similarly, the importance of oral interaction in the development of English language and literacy is emphasised in the data, which links directly to the APST Standard 3 "Plan for and implement effective teaching and learning":

> "Unless we have support for them through differentiation, scaffolding through speaking, listening activities through action times, whatever means we have, they won't learn... we have 94%. They make up the bulk of our classrooms the EAL/D kids, it's not like we're working with a small group we're actually working with a majority. That's how we teach, our classroom teaching." (Teacher@Algarb)

The participants are aware that student engagement and learning are supported when students are encouraged to use all their linguistic resources (Ellis, 2004, 2013; Morrison et al., 2019) At the same time, they indicate tensions related to the pedagogical choices that teachers make when working in a standards-based context with EAL/D students.

4.3 The importance of professional learning

The importance of professional learning in providing all teachers with ideas and strategies for supporting EAL/D students was seen as important for teachers in all schools, even those with low numbers of EAL/D students:

> "... we don't have teams of 4 or 5 teachers there's just me, there's just us. We're losing that network of support we've lost that network of support that we used to have." (Teacher@Nan)

In NSW, the state in which this research was conducted, 36.9% are LBOTE (CESE, 2020) and many teachers work in contexts which have high percentages of EAL/D and LBOTE students. However, as the quote suggests, teachers do not all have access to the mentoring support of colleagues with specialised knowledge and experience.

Information about the role of EAL/D teachers was also seen as important in informing school leaders about professional learning for their staff:

> "I think the Elaborations would give those principals a little more support in recognizing the needs of the qualified and or unqualified EAL/D teachers." (Teacher@ Bati)

The participant in this quote indicated that the EAL/D Elaborations, as opposed to the APST, perhaps provide an explicit, detailed description of the professional disposition, knowledge and understanding needed to support the development of a culturally responsive pedagogy (Coleman, 2015; Li, 2014; Morrison et al., 2019).

It was also noted that in some settings, mainstream teachers were carrying almost the entire load of support for EAL/D students but without any professional learning or support from a teacher with specialist knowledge. For example, Kelly, the principal from Algarb states:

> "I think even in a school like ours where we have 1.8 teachers, there is still a lot of teaching that needs to be supported without a specialist teacher... The classroom teachers have to do it, the specialist teachers are there to advise and to support and to model ... but it's the actual teachers that have to do it. How often are they getting that specialist support? Once or twice a week." (Kelly@ Algarb)

The data also indicates that evaluation and implementation of classroom practices necessary in the provision of differentiated support is dependent on both pre-service and in-service education and the mentoring support that a teacher has experienced. With high levels of EAL/D students, mainstream teachers, who do not necessarily have the specialist knowledge to understand the diversity of EAL/D needs are having to take on responsibility for their education:

> "Mainstream teachers think EAL/D students are new arrivals and they neglect the fact that they can be... beginning, emerging, consolidating or developing ... It is the mainstream teachers who are doing the brunt of the EAL/D education especially with a school with ... close to 100%." (Teacher@Bati)

In a context, where standardised tests reflect so personally on teachers and their classrooms, strategies which are perceived to slow the pace of learning are often replaced by tasks which can be graded and benchmarked.

> "Teachers are so busy in the classroom and when you do a TPL (Teacher Professional Learning) based around what kind of things you should do with your EAL/D learners all the teachers are really excited about using those ideas but when they go back in the classroom, they get bogged down with all the work and the assessment and the data collection they have to do it's kind of the first thing that flies out the window cause there's not enough time." (Teacher @ Bati)

Without the detailed understanding of language development which professionally accredited EAL/D teachers possess, the commitment to implement innovative pedagogical change is challenged by the pressure to teach to the test that teachers experience in contemporary classrooms.

5. Discussion and Conclusion

In this multiple-site case study, 21 teachers shared their perceptions about their work in a contemporary standards-based educational context. The APST and the Elaborations of the APST are both examined as tools and rules of the educational system in which teachers work. By focusing on teachers' perceptions within a system, the systemic factors behind individual perceptions and the complex "multilayered and multi-voiced nature" (Engeström, 2012, p.26) of an activity system are revealed. Analysis of the data identified three key themes: tensions in defining the EAL/D specialist teacher's role; differentiation in the language classroom; the importance of professional learning.

A limitation of the study is that the data only represents the perceptions of a particular group of teachers at a moment in time in four specific contexts. However, the APST and EAL/D Elaborations are relevant to all Australian teachers and this research could be replicated in many more sites across Australia. Indeed, the tensions and disjunctions which are revealed in the data are worthy of further research as they reflect issues which are more wide-ranging than an individual teacher or site. While the APST provide a framework for describing the work of teachers, at the same time the growing number of LBOTE and EAL/D students in Australia (ABS, 2021) and in NSW (CESE, 2021) implies that the work of many teachers will increasingly include working with EAL/D students.

The wider implication of these findings is that mainstream teachers need support from specialist EAL/D teachers as both

colleagues and mentors. A deficit model of language development confirmed by standardised testing and narrowly focussed on literacy in English (Comber, 2012; Creagh, 2014; Cummins,1981) is intrinsically opposed to a culturally responsive stance which values students' linguistic and cultural resources (Creese & Blackledge, 2015; Duarte, 2019; French, 2016). Standardised tests which focus on literacy development in English (Comber, 2012; Creagh, 2014; Cummins,1981) do not adequately support identification of the needs of EAL/D and LBOTE students. Rather to meet APST Standard 1. "Know students and how they learn" teachers must be able to identify and build on the linguistic and cultural resources of their students. Through the mentoring of specialist EAL/D teachers, mainstream teachers could be supported to develop these understandings and implement innovative pedagogy.

While this research found that the EAL/D Elaborations are not widely recognised or used, when teachers identified their use of the EAL/D Elaborations, they were recognised as a useful tool for negotiation with the system (Engeström, 2007). The EAL/D Elaborations offer detailed descriptions of an EAL/D teacher's role at every stage of career development, which assists in professional development planning. In contrast, the APST do not allow for the demonstration of the specialist knowledge and attributes of experienced TESOL teachers (Hammond, 2012). In a contemporary context where the numbers of EAL/D students are increasing, it is of vital importance to be able to describe the "effective, contemporary practice" of Australian teachers in any context (APST, 2018, p. 2).

Differentiating learning for EAL/D students is built on an understanding that students, especially language-minority students, have the right to learn using all their languages or dialects (García, 2013; Skutnabb-Kangas, 2013; Slaughter & Cross, 2021). As standardised tests solely focus on literacy development in English (Comber, 2012; Creagh, 2014; Cummins, 1981), teachers need support to make innovative pedagogical choices that will support all students and will concurrently support differentiated learning for EAL/D students. The provision of such support would assist in addressing the issue of subtractive bilingualism highlighted in the data and ensure that students are supported to use and maintain all their linguistic resources. The differentiated learning necessary to help students explore and use all their linguistic

resources requires a teacher to have specialist knowledge of EAL/D students and of suitable strategies to support learning (Fielding, 2016; García & Li, 2014).

If teachers are to build a connection between home and school in an increasingly diverse Australian population (Chik, Benson & Maloney, 2019; D'warte, 2014) they must also be able to reflect on their own knowledge and understandings in identifying student needs and strengths. Strategies that build on the linguistic and cultural resources of students will recognise and respond to students' linguistic repertoires (Allard, 2017; D'warte, 2014; Dutton & Rushton, 2018, 2021, 2022) and support them to thrive.

The data also revealed that professional learning is required for all teachers of EAL/D students if they are to meet the needs of EAL/D students. Teachers need to be able to develop a culturally responsive pedagogy (Morrison et al., 2019) to support learning. Similarly, understanding language development (Fielding, 2016; García & Li, 2014) is the basis for making effective pedagogical choices. An understanding of the strategies which build on oral language and encourage the use of all of a student's linguistic resources is necessary to support learning (Dutton & Rushton, 2018, 2021, 2022; D'warte & Slaughter, 2020; French, 2016; Ollerhead, 2018; Slaughter & Cross, 2021).

In conclusion, the findings of this research highlight that all teachers could use the EAL/D Elaborations to accurately set professional learning goals for their work with EAL/D students. As opposed to the APST, the EAL/D Elaborations provide the detail necessary to support the creation of new social spaces for differentiated learning for EAL/D students and the introduction of an innovative culturally responsive pedagogy (Dutton & Rushton, 2022, 2021; Li, 2014; Morrison et al., 2019).

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Science and EAL teachers' perspectives and practices in building word knowledge in implementing the new Victorian EAL curriculum

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Abstract: *The recent implementation of* The Victorian Curriculum F-10: EAL *requires content teachers who teach EAL students to be familiar with the revised EAL curriculum for the purposes of planning and developing approaches to assist learners' development in English. In the literature and in curriculum frameworks, word knowledge is considered an important aspect of EAL students' learning. However, little is known about what pedagogical practices teachers across the curriculum perceive as being important, and use, in developing EAL students' vocabulary. In this study, we investigated linguistically responsive vocabulary teaching in a Year 7 science class. Our aim was to elucidate teachers' perceptions and practices in teaching vocabulary in science. The qualitative case study drew on principles of linguistically responsive instruction (LRI), which refers to practices for meeting the needs of students in culturally and linguistically diverse classrooms. Analysis of interview and classroom data from an EAL teacher and a science teacher revealed a range of LRI practices for developing word knowledge based on understanding the distinction between conversational*

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and academic language, language learning principles, responsive teacher talk, plurilingual awareness, and the importance of social interaction for learners. We offer recommendations for a whole school approach to LRI, adaptation to online LRI, and curriculum development.

Key words: *EAL curriculum, linguistically responsive instruction, science, vocabulary, teacher collaboration*

Introduction

In Australian government[1] schools, 25% of students are English as an additional language (EAL) students. They represent over 2,000 linguistic and ethnic backgrounds (Australian Curriculum, n.d.). EAL students often receive between six to 12 months of intensive EAL education before transitioning to a mainstream school where they continue to learn English at the same time as content in a range of disciplines in English. The integration of EAL students in mainstream schools necessitates collaboration between EAL specialists and content teachers. Whole school approaches to EAL provision recognise that responsibility for language as opposed to content learning should be distributed and shared by all content specialists, not only EAL teachers (Creese, 2010; Edwards, 2014; Filipi & Keary, 2018; Hammond 2012; Haworth, 2009; Nguyen & Dang, 2021).

In Victoria, the recently revised *Victorian Curriculum F-10 EAL* (Victorian Curriculum and Assessment Authority (VCAA), n.d.) has created opportunities for collaboration between EAL and content teachers. This is due to the requirement that all teachers of EAL students need to be aware of their students' English language needs so that they can progress through the CL, C1, C2, C3 and C4 points along the Pathway C of the Curriculum, which applies to late immersion students in Years 7 to 10. The requirement does not necessitate that content teachers report against the levels on the pathway (the role of the EAL teacher). However, there is an expectation that content teachers become familiar with *The Victorian Curriculum F-10: EAL* for the purposes of planning and developing approaches to assist learners' development in English. In science, and specifically Year 7/8

(1) There are three educational sectors in the Australian school system: government, catholic and independent schools.

chemistry, which is the focus of this study, the Science Achievement Standard expects students to: "use appropriate scientific language, representations and simple word equations to communicate science ideas, methods and findings." (*The Victorian Curriculum F-10: Science*, VCAA, n.d.). One key area of language that is highlighted here and more broadly in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research is vocabulary (Teng, 2019).

In this study, we investigated linguistically responsive vocabulary teaching in a Year 7 science class. Our aim was to elucidate the perceptions and practices of an EAL and a science teacher in teaching vocabulary in science. Our aim is linked to the principle in TESOL that language learners need direct language practice with an explicit focus on grammatical structure and vocabulary. The research question that the paper aims to address is: *How do the perceptions of and practices used by the EAL and science teachers align with the language principles of linguistically responsive instruction related to word knowledge?*

We begin by reviewing three key areas of the literature pertinent to this study: linguistically responsive instruction (LRI), vocabulary learning, and the learning of language in science.

Literature review

Linguistically responsive instruction

One of the prevailing issues in our increasingly culturally and linguistically diverse classrooms is the need for LRI practices across all subject areas to cater for students who are developing their English language skills. These practices include additional pedagogies and teacher knowledge based on understandings that are derived from educational psychology, and research in linguistics and SLA (e.g., de Jong & Harper, 2005; Lucas et al., 2008). There is also a need for teachers to advocate on behalf of EAL learners and to value the cultural and linguistic diversity that they bring to the classroom and to the wider school community (de Jong & Harper, 2005; Gallagher & Haan, 2018; Lucas et al., 2008). In other words, all teachers need to understand the socio-psychological/political aspects of language learning (de Jong & Harper, 2005). The *Australian Professional Standards for Teachers* expect all teachers to "[d]emonstrate knowledge of teaching strategies that are responsive to the learning strengths and needs of students from diverse linguistic, cultural, religious and socioeconomic backgrounds" (Australian Institute for Teaching

and School Leadership, n.d.). Therefore, it is important to understand how teachers make sense of, and demonstrate, such requirements in practice.

Recognition of the need to expand teacher knowledge, skills and beliefs to successfully meet the needs of EAL learners has led to the development by researchers of different frameworks or guidelines to assist teachers and to inform teacher education programs (see for example, de Jong & Harper, 2005; de Jong et al., 2013; Lucas et al., 2008). These guidelines encourage and support teachers to develop pedagogical practices that enhance learning for second-language learners and attend to the importance of diversity and multilingualism. The guidelines are informed by a set of principles and values including the need for teachers to: (i) understand the distinction between academic language and conversational English proficiency (based on Cummins, 2000); (ii) understand the importance of social interaction for learners; (iii) ensure that their classroom talk is responsive and provides scaffolded instructions (i.e. a revised and updated concept of comprehensible input (Krashen, 1982) that instead places emphasis on interaction and the responsive actions of speakers); (iv) ensure that students have a strong foundation in their L1; (v) understand the linguistic and discoursal differences between languages, and identify the linguistic demands of texts and tasks; (vi) appreciate the importance of knowing learners and creating a secure classroom learning environment; (vii) understand different cultures of learning; (viii) apply principles of language learning by giving attention to both language forms and meaning; (ix) apply strategies that enable students to leverage their L1 use; and (x) foster multilingual citizenship (based on de Jong & Harper, 2005; de Jong et al., 2013; Lucas et al., 2008). In this study, we focus on principles (i), (ii), (iii), (viii) and (ix) as they are most relevant to word knowledge of EAL students.

Vocabulary learning

Vocabulary has been highlighted as important for success in school, both for students generally (Hindman et al., 2016) and for EAL students in particular. Having an expanded vocabulary is crucial to EAL learners' everyday interactional and academic competence (Molle et al., 2022), evident for example in understanding teacher instructions, the language of subject

materials and texts, and for socialising in and outside the classroom. In content areas, the language encountered becomes the vehicle for language learning (Molle et al., 2022). While vocabulary is learned both intentionally (through formal instruction) and incidentally, both in and outside the classroom, research has shown that for the latter to be successful as a strategy, a certain proficiency threshold has to be reached and a strong vocabulary needs to be in place. Where this is not the case, students are unable to use contextual clues, including application of grammatical knowledge, to arrive at meaning (Teng, 2019).

Beck et al.'s (2013) concept of the three tiers of vocabulary (Tier 1, Tier 2 and Tier 3) has recently been taken up by the Department of Education in Victoria (DET Victoria) to encourage schools to adopt a similar pedagogic approach to vocabulary across curriculum areas. Tier 1 vocabulary refers to everyday, familiar words that students encounter as they socialise with others. Tier 2 vocabulary comprises high frequency words encountered in school that are common to content across the curriculum and that have a range of meanings. Tier 3 vocabulary includes words that are specific to particular content areas and therefore low-frequency.

In *The Victorian Curriculum F-10: EAL*, reference to the three tiers is evident in the descriptors for word knowledge, which is a sub-strand of the communication strand. In the speaking and listening, and reading and viewing modes (most relevant to this study), a number of performance indicators across the CL to C4 pathways in learning vocabulary are identified. These indicators refer to understanding of both general Tier 1 vocabulary (e.g., *identify key vocabulary and ideas; recognise words for everyday items... (C1); use topic-related compound words to extend vocabulary (C2)),* and Tiers 2 and 3 content area vocabulary (e.g., *recognise topic-specific vocabulary that has been taught (C1); use words with multiple meanings across curriculum areas (C3)* (both Tier 2), *use specific curriculum area language, including technical terms (C4)* (Tier 3)). The descriptors provide a useful guide for examining how teachers plan to give attention to vocabulary and how this translates to actual practice in the classroom.

Next, we consider language learning in science education, that is the context of the current study. In particular, we focus on issues associated with teaching and learning specialised vocabulary in junior secondary chemistry.

Learning science and language

Science education has specialised language and patterns of use that are specific to the discipline (Halliday, 1978). Acquiring and being able to use these language features is therefore an important enabler of student learning and academic success.

Students commonly find the language of science challenging, which can act as a barrier to developing understanding. This challenge is further complicated when science teaching is in the language that is not their own (Rees et al., 2018). Learning chemistry presents additional challenges because language demands include not only the formal ways of representing chemical processes and structures, but also graphical and symbolic language. Cink and Song (2016) reported case studies of senior students from diverse ethno-linguistic backgrounds who viewed the language of chemistry as a barrier to continuing their study of the subject. Consequently, "a number of authors ... have argued for the importance of explicitly teaching language and developing language skills within chemistry teaching" (Rees et al., 2018, p. 756).

Compounding these challenges is the situation that science teachers are not usually trained in language learning, nor how to integrate language and content instruction. Particularly in a secondary school context, teachers tend to view themselves as content specialists, not as teachers of language. As successful science learners themselves, it is perhaps not surprising that science teachers pay little attention to the language demands associated with the subject matter, and/or the ethno-linguistic backgrounds of their students.

One approach that has been advocated to support students' science language learning is through explicitly teaching Tier 2 and 3 words so that students can begin to access and communicate their scientific content knowledge (VCAA, Literacy Teaching toolkit, n.d.). In chemistry, some examples of Tier 2 words include *mixture, element, compound;* while Tier 3 words include *matter, atoms, molecule.* Strategies that can be employed to teach both science and language for these terms include: identifying and talking about similarities and differences between everyday and specialised use of terms (e.g., mixture in the kitchen and the laboratory—Tier 2), and providing hands-on experiences that enable students to build memory images of specialised terms (e.g.,

building and drawing molecules—Tier 3). Additionally, teaching language functions can promote higher-order thinking and concept development; for example, through providing students the opportunity to reflect on their learning and understanding of new terms (Stoddart et al., 2002).

The above review highlights the need for additional understanding about language and EAL learning as part of every teacher's knowledge and skill set. The centrality of vocabulary acquisition is one aspect of language that the review has shown to be critical. The review has also shown how vocabulary and concepts specific to science can be particularly challenging and require linguistically responsive approaches to enable students to remember, understand and apply them.

The current research

The school site for this research (described below) has adopted the three tiers of vocabulary as a whole school focused approach to literacy development across all content areas. This model, together with the principles of linguistically responsive pedagogies, but narrowed to centre specifically on word knowledge, plurilingual awareness, and the importance of social interaction, informs the theoretical framework for data analysis. Also important to the analysis is how teacher confidence and knowledge about language occur in the context of collaboration between the EAL and (science) content teachers.

Methods

Context and participants

The study took place in a secondary school in the South East of Victoria, Australia. Ethics approval was obtained from the authors' university, and permission from the DET Victoria and from the school's principal. Consent to participate was sought and received from the two teachers, the students and the parents of the students in the science class, which included four EAL students (at Level C1).

The school offers an extensive EAL program with the support of multicultural aides to cater for EAL students from Year 7 to Year 12. An EAL teacher (Anne-Marie, pseudonym), who was also the EAL coordinator for the school at the time of data collection, and a science teacher (Ellie, pseudonym) participated

in this study. Anne-Marie had been teaching EAL at the school for 11 years. Her role in addition to teaching included providing professional development (PD) for content teachers and EAL teachers, and working with individual content teachers who had EAL students in their classes. She had a strong understanding of the revised EAL Curriculum and had been actively using it in her own teaching, and to support content teachers. Ellie had been teaching science for approximately four years at the same school. At the time of the study, she had taught Year 7 every year and had always had EAL students in her classes. Although Ellie recognised EAL students' needs for language support in learning science, she reported feeling unsure about how to address these needs. She had no formal training in supporting language learning, apart from one PD session provided by Anne-Marie for all teachers early in the year in which this study was conducted. She reported having a basic knowledge of the EAL Curriculum but that she did not explicitly refer to it in her planning and teaching. When a science teacher was sought to work with Anne-Marie to plan and teach a Year 7 science unit with language learning in mind, Ellie volunteered to participate as she was keen to develop her skills in this area.

Based on information gleaned from the interviews conducted, collaboration between the EAL teachers and content teachers in the school usually occurred in informal and incidental ways. Teachers also shared resources on a virtual platform. As part of this project, Anne-Marie and Ellie met several times; however, these meetings tended to be organised 'on the fly' when Ellie needed to debrief and discuss strategies for teaching vocabulary in her science classes. Three factors worked against more formal collaboration structures: working in different subject teams, clashes in the timetable, and the unexpected need to go online which disrupted regular face-to-face planning meeting times. Consequently, Anne-Marie was not involved in co-teaching with Ellie. However, the two teachers did organise a formal meeting towards the end of the unit to discuss and plan differentiated assessment tasks so that the EAL students could be better supported in achieving positive learning outcomes.

Data collection and analysis

Data were collected using two individual interviews with Anne-Marie and two group interviews with both Anne-Marie and Ellie,

and video-recordings of five science classes (three online, two face-to-face). Each audio-recorded interview lasted between 45–60 minutes. All interviews were semi-structured and focused on how the teachers interpreted *The Victorian Curriculum F-10: EAL* in relation to *The Victorian Curriculum F-10: Science,* how they used the curricula in their planning and teaching, and how they described or reflected on their teaching and collaboration practices with reference to word knowledge. Lesson recording was performed either by a technician (in the case of face-to-face classes) or by the science teacher (in the case of online classes during COVID-19 lockdown periods in 2021). These were then professionally transcribed for detailed analysis. Additional features in the classroom extracts selected for analysis to capture some prosodic and embodied features from conversation analysis (Jefferson, 2004), were transcribed by the first author in Courier New 10 using notations that appear in Appendix 1. To distinguish the classroom and interview extracts, the transcriptions for the interviews are in italicised Times New Roman 12. Times New Roman 12 is also used in the classroom extracts to describe what is going on.

To answer the research question, the interviews and lesson recordings of Days 1 and 3 (face-to-face) and Day 2 (online) of the science unit were first coded against the teachers' perceptions and practices in the five LRI principles within the area of developing EAL students' word knowledge (Table 1). The analysis was performed by each of the three authors independently. The team discussed the analysis frequently to resolve discrepancy, to decide on categories where there might be overlap by going back to the data, and to compare and aggregate the findings during the analysis rather than establishing an inter-coder reliability rating at the end of the process. In proceeding through the coding, examples of data that could be coded to more than one principle emerged. This was particularly the case for principles (iii) and (viii) which were difficult to separate. Ultimately, the decision to place them in one or other of the principles was based on whether the strategy was primarily linguistic in focus highlighting how the teacher attended to it (viii), rather than how the teacher's talk was responsive (iii).

Table 1: A working document for recording data analysis

LRI principles relevant to vocabulary knowledge	**Strategies** ***(N.B. Only one example is given for each principle below; see Appendix 2 for the full range)***
(i) understand the distinction between academic language and conversational English proficiency	e.g., using life experience/ knowledge of the everyday world to explain scientific concepts
(ii) understand the importance of social interaction for learners	e.g., encouraging questions, responding and reacting, elaborating, assessing
(iii) ensure that classroom talk is responsive and provides scaffolded instructions	e.g., using embodiment including hand gestures and facial expressions in explaining and in response to students
(viii) apply principles of language learning by giving attention to both language forms and meaning	e.g., focusing on pronunciation and sounding out new words in context
(ix) apply strategies that enable students to leverage their L1 use	e.g., drawing attention to the use of the L1 in resources

Before examining how the teachers planned, introduced and taught vocabulary with reference to *The Victorian Curriculum F-10: EAL,* as well as *The Victorian Curriculum F-10: Science* in Ellie's case, it is important to note that the content descriptors are framed from the perspective of what the learner should be able to do. The LRI framework and the three tiers approach to vocabulary, however, are framed from the perspective of the teacher; specifically, teacher knowledge about language relevant to support learning. This notwithstanding, by limiting analysis to the sub-strand word knowledge as one feature of language in *The Victorian Curriculum F-10: EAL*, we have sought to relate the descriptors to the identified approaches that Ellie used to introduce new vocabulary and science concepts, and to the related points raised by the teachers in the interview.

Findings

In triangulating the video classroom data with the teacher reports in the interviews, we tracked the alignment of the approaches and

reports with the three tiers of vocabulary used by the school across all content areas and the LRI principles (listed in Table 1). This generated 25 verbal and nonverbal strategies for introducing and teaching vocabulary identified in the data. These appear in Appendix 2 as stated above.

In the discussion below, since all the principles are interrelated and overlap to some extent, we have organised the discussion by combining principles (i), (iii) and (viii) (see Table 1) together in the initial subsection. The next two subsections focus on the remaining two LRI principles, (ii) and (ix).

Understanding the distinction between everyday and academic language, applying principles of language learning, and responsive teacher talk

In this section, we present findings about three LRI principles, including (i) the distinction between everyday conversational and academic language, (iii) responsive teacher talk, and (viii) explicit attention to linguistic form and language function essential to second language learning through an explicit focus on vocabulary.

In science, Brown and Ryoo (2008) maintain that EAL learners learn best when exposed to science concepts in everyday language before being introduced to the scientific terms. The first lesson of the unit provides such an example. Here the class was involved in drawing and labelling a picture of an atom by recalling some of the previously introduced terms. Ellie was using the whiteboard and the students were using their exercise-books.

(Ellie, Lesson 1)

1T: ...the label i'm looking for (0.8) is about {the centre (0.4) of the
{((makes a circling gesture with her hands))
2 atom.
3 (0.3)
4 {rather than calling it the centre or the middle there's a
{((Jack starts to put his hand up, then retrieves it))
5 {<science> word that we need to use.
{((gestures))
6 ((0.4, during which she casts her eyes over the class.))
7 jack?
8 S: is it like the core?
9 T: oh you're so:: close. sometimes it's referred to as the core. if you

10 look it up on the internet, they might use that word sometimes.
11 <the word we use> (0.3){starts with N (0.6) and it's not neutron.
{((writes N on the board,
Tim raises his hand))
12 (1.0)
13 tim?
14S: is it nucleus?
15T: the nucleus, well done. {(0.8) <the nucleus.> so that's how you
{((writes on the board))
16 say it. nu::cleus.

In this typical teacher-controlled, instructional initiation, response, evaluation (IRE) sequence (Mehan, 1979), Ellie is eliciting the label, *nucleus*. In her initiating turn in line 1, she is using an everyday term—*centre,* which is a Tier 1 word—to build on students' already known or familiar vocabulary and replace it with the Tier 3 technical word, *nucleus*. It therefore provides an opportunity for students to understand how everyday words can have a special meaning in academic content. Her multimodal packaging (Filipi, 2018) using hand gestures, the prosodic features of slowing down her speech, intonational marking, pausing, writing the word on the board and modelling its pronunciation (that's how you say it), all combine to emphasise *nucleus* as the key word, and scaffold and facilitate student recall and language learning, actions which show evidence of principles (i), (iii) and (viii). Teachers may not be aware that they are producing these linguistic strategies, and they were not mentioned during the interviews. These strategies are nonetheless recognised as being important in EAL teaching.

In their interviews, both teachers referred to more established strategies, including (Kahoot) quizzes, glossaries, dictionaries, pronunciation and role-play. Ellie identified the use of visual pedagogy and physical representations as important, illustrated in the following response to a question about how to confront EAL learners' limited language.

(Ellie, Interview 3)

> I'm trying to be as visual as possible ... that means sort of simulation. Like there is a lot of online simulators that show little bits of atoms and they can click and put things together and just see it, and often there is almost no writing on the screen for a lot of those sorts of

> simulations. I've tried to get them sort of standing up and role-playing things as a class. So moving around acting as parts of the atom without having to talk too much. ... They can put that time in to just remember what the name is of their component that they're acting out? So just a word or two words and then work up from there, so hopefully they can then get a definition later or they can explain it later.

Visual pedagogy (Sibold, 2011) and kinesthetic, physical, embodied representations of specialised language (Reid, 1987), can enhance students' exposure to language. They support the process of language learning in context by drawing attention to contextualised words and assisting students in remembering them. Building a solid language base is vital for later, higher order skills development.

Having to teach online due to COVID-19 presented Ellie with additional challenges that led her to reflect on her use of language. In the next extract, she reported the need to analyse her language choices and phrasing in giving instructions to ensure students' comprehension (principle iii).

(Ellie, Interview 4)

> So I find that a particularly challenging part of remote learning, not being able to see faces and gather that informal feedback. I did try to reach out through chat messages to them sometimes, but then I sort of had to really think about what language I was using when I was typing those messages and making sure that that wasn't too complex or I wasn't writing too long of a sentence and my message was getting lost in it. So that was helpful, but then again, I think that was more challenging than being in person and being able to show them and point to things in their book or, you know, help them like that.

Ellie's reference to the lack of non-verbal cues highlights an important element in providing 'on the fly' feedback that enables adjustments to be made based on decisions taken in the moment (cf Schön's (1983) concept of *reflection-in-action*). She also draws attention to the reflective space that online teaching can provide in being able to revisit her chat messages for length and complexity. Also evident is analysis of language that Gibbons (2002) suggests is important in teaching EAL learners.

Ellie's concern aligns with Lucas et al.'s (2008) principle that EAL students need exposure to teacher talk that is responsive and comprehensible, and just beyond their current level of proficiency (principle iii). It is important to note, however, that such a concept needs to take interaction into account. In other words, the notion of comprehensibility and 'input' do not exist in an interactional vacuum but are established in concert with students, and fundamentally as a result of interaction.

From the online classroom data, there is evidence of Ellie making adjustments in her teaching through the use of paraphrasing, repetition, prosodic marking, and embodiment, all revealing attention to language (principle viii). Such actions also reveal how pedagogical decisions are made in the moment in response to a specific need or situation. In the following extract, Ellie was discussing the periodic table during the online class.

(Ellie, Lesson 2)

1T: um: i can also show you ((2.0 during which she brings up a slide))
2 the definition of what an element actually IS in case
3 anyone is unsure. (0.4) <so an element is basically the simplest
4 type:: of material or the simplest form of matter ((The latter
5 definition is written on the slide.)) that we know exists.> ...
6 so each one is {unique, each one has a {different
{((cusped hand gesture)) {((gesture is repeated))
7 structure ... for the atom inside it,

The terms 'element' and 'atom' were introduced in the previous lesson. In showing the definition on the slide, Ellie is expecting that some students may need a reminder. Importantly, the definition is presented in both oral and written modes. Ellie does not simply read aloud the definition, she also paraphrases and simplifies the wording from simplest type:: of material (formulated orally using everyday Tier 1 language) to the simplest form of matter (formulated in writing on the screen using the Tier 2 and 3 science specific terms *form* and *matter*). Reformulating (a form of paraphrasing) is also used in her next utterance (*unique* and *different*, line 6) to underscore that each element is unique. Through the reformulation, combined with repetition of the concept, and prosodic marking, Ellie draws attention to a key feature and adjusts her teacher talk to facilitate student understanding.

Plurilingual awareness: Establishing a place for L1 use

As well as referring to the whole school Tier 1, 2, 3 approach, Anne-Marie also referred to *The Victorian Curriculum F-10: EAL* as a source of teaching ideas. One strategy she highlighted in particular was plurilingual awareness, also identified as a key LRI principle (de Jong et al., 2013; Lucas et al., 2008). In her interview, she notes the use of students' L1 as a resource, which she describes as a practice which has only recently been encouraged in EAL learning.

(Anne-Marie, Interview 1)

> So with this change ... we were able to encourage students to use their L1 ... obviously not to an extreme level but in terms of clarifying ideas, giving instructions, helping them with answers to questions, being able to use their L1 a little bit more, use translators, use other students in the class, use my aides in the class ... Encouraging them to talk to each other about the new, the new vocabulary, the new language, and then bringing it into an English kind of forum if you like.

Both teachers expressed a lack of confidence in using L1 as a strategy though, including how much of the students' L1 to use, as noted by Anne-Marie. Their lack of confidence is encapsulated by Ellie:

(Ellie, Interview 2)

> I don't think I was completely confident in what to do in that space ... I want to make sure that it's done well. So I feel like it's something I'd have to sit and plan and ask for examples of what other people have done before I'd feel really good and confident about using it properly myself.

However, on one occasion, during a simulation task, Ellie does encourage the use of Mandarin.

(Ellie, Lesson 1)

1T: it's really cool and you can put it in chinese as well which is
2 awesome. that's good.

Here Ellie is drawing the student's attention to the use of her L1 as a resource in the software application being employed.

Importantly, her positive assessment (awesome) provides encouragement in using the L1. This was the only example of a plurilingual strategy observed during the five lessons.

Understanding the importance of peer social interaction

Ellie reported struggling to find ways to encourage social interaction in the online space during the COVID-19 lockdown. She had no access to features such as breakout rooms that could have enhanced interaction. To compensate, Ellie devised tasks that encouraged students to use their home as an interactive space and then to share their learning with their peers.

> *(Ellie, Interview 4)*
>
> There were a couple of little collaborative activities I did try to get students to do ... Some students had a go, some students didn't really have a go ... things like getting them to walk around the house and find items to build an atom with or to represent an atom with and then sharing that with their peers. So I feel like that was a nice way to involve their house and get them talking about things at home at the same time as working through the ideas we were learning.

During the online class, this activity translated to the following instruction.

(Ellie, Lesson 2)

1T: what you can then do if you are feeling confident is have a go at
2 building a particular atom from the periodic table using materials
3 around your house. (0.4) so you might have lego or playdough or food
4 for breakfast. try and build a picture of a particular atom called
5 fluoride ... and i would love for you to actually take a picture of
6 what you build and send it as a reply to this lesson plan. (0.5) so
7 actually share it with other people and show them what you have
8 made and show them what you have figured out about it by looking at
9 the periodic table.

Noteworthy here is the optional nature of the activity which allowed students to attempt the task if they felt "confident". The importance of physical representations and hands-on activities for learning science concepts has already been discussed above, so potentially this is a missed learning opportunity for some students

in an online space where access to embodied features is missing or not prominent. With respect to EAL, it is important to have high expectations of EAL learner participation (Mohr & Mohr, 2007). As well, instructions need to be clear and explicit to remove doubt or uncertainty about task accomplishment. Finally, creating opportunities for students to share with peers what they have made or found is pivotal in providing practice in giving explanations and talking through the introduced science concepts. While important to science, these are broadly applicable skills across all curriculum areas. In terms of plurilingual strategies, this could also be done in a shared L1 in breakout rooms as well as in English.

Conclusion and recommendations

In this study, our main purpose was to explore the perceptions and practices of a science teacher and an EAL teacher, about the development of EAL learners' English language skills that underpin the revised EAL curriculum, taken up through attention to vocabulary. The analytic framework that informed the study was driven by LRI that draws on SLA and inclusion research to provide a set of key principles to guide teaching (e.g., de Jong & Harper, 2005; Lucas et al., 2008). The principles address the often-cited need (e.g., Creese, 2010; Edwards, 2014; Filipi & Keary, 2018; Hammond 2012; Nguyen & Dang, 2021) for distributed and consistent pedagogies that place the onus for language development on all teachers and not just on EAL specialists.

The interview and classroom data suggest that both teachers understood and practised the LRI principles relevant to informing vocabulary teaching, even if they expressed a lack of confidence in adopting plurilingual strategies (both Anne-Marie and Ellie) and a lack of familiarity with *The Victorian Curriculum F-10: EAL* (Ellie), as well as concern for the few opportunities for social interaction when teaching moved online (Ellie). Thus, while an impressive range of vocabulary strategies that aligned with the descriptors in the EAL curriculum for word knowledge were clearly evident in the teachers' perceptions and face-to-face classes, these were largely absent from the science teacher's online practice (Ellie). To a large extent, teaching online without the availability of features such as breakout rooms to encourage group activities, led to a more transmissive and teacher-centred

approach to teaching vocabulary. Despite the constraints of their situations, the teachers were able to implement the LRI principles related to word knowledge development, such as adjusting teaching through the use of paraphrasing, repetition, prosodic marking, and embodiment to ensure students' comprehension (principle iii) and encouraging the use of students' L1 (principle ix). These strategies were not only responsive to the students' learning needs but also aligned with the curriculum frameworks in the area of word knowledge.

A further finding from the study pertains to the EAL curriculum. Using the LRI principles to frame our analysis was useful in showing how the principles underpinned the revised curriculum. The principles were evident in particular in the emphasis on: language learning in word knowledge and the distinction between everyday and academic language (the three-tier vocabulary model); responsive teacher talk; plurilingual awareness and the principle of using the L1; and the importance of social interaction for developing students' English.

We recognise the limitations of this study as it represents the perceptions and practices of two teachers in one school. While this situation inevitably limits generalisability, the findings elucidate examples and insights that may resonate with other teachers and schools, and provide a basis for expanding this work.

Finally, based on this research, we offer the following four recommendations for teachers and stake-holders in the implementation of the revised EAL curriculum:

- It would benefit learners if EAL teachers could meet regularly (even if briefly) with content teachers and plan lessons jointly in order to achieve a more language informed pedagogy that is married with content teacher expertise. This would enable content teachers to feel more confident and supported in addressing EAL learners' needs to further develop their English language while learning content, and to become familiar with the EAL curriculum.
- The shift to online learning precipitated through COVID-19 provides opportunities to consider how this space may be productively used to support EAL learning by bringing together language, content, technology and pedagogy across all content areas. This could be achieved, for example, by using lesson recordings to review content, encouraging students to ask questions in less

public ways such as one-on-one posts, and grouping EAL students together for additional focused and scaffolded activities in English and/or the L1 through features such as breakout rooms. An expert in technology-enhanced learning could also be employed to support the teaching team in these aspects.

- In working with the revised EAL curriculum, it was evident that the strands were addressing and specifically relevant to English content only. *The Victorian Curriculum F-10: EAL* needs to be relevant to *all* content areas. It is also important for all teachers to be able to learn about the pivotal role of language in each discipline's curriculum through targeted PD or accessible resources.
- It is important that schools provide the necessary infrastructure and support for EAL teachers and content teachers to discuss EAL learner needs in ongoing planning, and not simply as "one offs".

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Appendix 1

The following transcription notations are based on Jefferson (2004) and used in the classroom transcripts.

[– overlapped talk (when speakers speak at the same time)
{ – gesture co-occurring with words (from Filipi, 2007)
xxx – underlining to indicate word stress
: – sound stretching
(0.0) – pauses and gaps measured in tenths of a second
< > – talk that is slower than the surrounding talk
(( )) – a comment to describe nonverbal behaviour

Appendix 2

LRI principles relevant to vocabulary knowledge	**Strategies derived from the data analysis**
(i) understand the distinction between academic language and conversational English proficiency	1. Characterising science as being different from the everyday by drawing attention to different uses of words/concepts 2. Using life experience/knowledge of the everyday world to explain scientific concepts and the ways in which they are similar and related but different from their everyday uses
(ii) understand the importance of social interaction for learners	3. In whole and individual class activities, encouraging questions, responding and reacting, elaborating, assessing and inviting further thinking by using both verbal and nonverbal features such as smiling and nodding 4. Encouraging students to apply concepts at home and sharing with others (at home and in class) what they found; for example, by sharing visual understanding of a concept with peers

(iii) ensure that classroom talk is responsive, and provide scaffolded instructions	5. Pausing, e.g., to allow students to formulate an answer 6. Introducing a topic/the lesson by preparing students for what they will see and need to look out for 7. Reformulating, rephrasing 8. Offering hints and elaborating 9. Repeating keywords
(viii) apply principles of language learning by giving attention to both language forms and meaning	10. Using embodiment including hand gestures and facial expressions in explaining/ introducing new words in context 11. Connecting, and transferring ideas or processes to other phenomena, concepts 12. Relating the concept to a shape (looks like) 13. Using diagrams and visual pedagogy 14. Making links to common or accepted usage 15. Using different colours or patterns to convey different labels on diagrams 16. Using hypotheticals 17. Using anthropomorphism 18. Using mnemonics and associations 19. Using prosody to mark key words 20. Using synonyms 21. Drawing attention to spelling of unfamiliar or new words 22. Suggesting how to manage not knowing a word 23. Focusing on pronunciation and sounding out 24. Using word attack skills and collocation
(ix) apply strategies that enable students to leverage their L1 use	25. Drawing attention to the use of the L1 in resources

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Book reviews

AN EAL/D HANDBOOK: TEACHING AND LEARNING ACROSS THE CURRICULUM WHEN ENGLISH IS AN ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE OR DIALECT

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The social, cultural and linguistic landscape of our Australian society has become increasingly diverse. Recent census data shows that almost 30% of Australians were born overseas and that over 20% of the Australian population speak a language other than English at home (ABS, 2022). In the education arena, based on data gathered by a former President of the Australian Council of TESOL Associations (ACTA), it has been shown that Australian Government and Catholic schools host over 600,000 learners of English as an additional language or dialect (EAL/D). While these students navigate a complex socio-cultural world of new knowledge, belief systems, norms, values, customs and behaviours, they also have to embark on adding Standard Australian English (SAE) to their existing cultural and linguistic repertoires. The scale of this task is colossal and requires much more time than that typically allocated in Intensive English support programmes. Similarly, not only do EAL/D language specialists but also all mainstream teachers find themselves busy with 'Standards' or lesson programming but, most importantly, with building linguistic and pedagogical knowledge and skills that allow them to design and implement supportive learning and teaching sequences for EAL/D learners' needs. Harper and Feez's edited collection, *An EAL/D Handbook: Teaching and learning across the curriculum when English is an additional language or dialect*, is a timely contribution that showcases a myriad of illustrations of pedagogical practice which focus particularly on how, through a text-based approach, language learning is embedded in the curriculum through

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the study of geography, history, science, and literature.

The book contains eight chapters, seven of which (Chapters 2-8) follow an engaging and insightful structure featuring a reflection and an illustration of pedagogical practice which opens up with questions framed around the EAL/D learners and their needs. Focus is afforded to how meanings are cumulatively built across the curriculum to create inclusive learning environments and to support learners to develop explicit knowledge about language. Chapter 1, through the expertise of four scholars, provides a comprehensive overview of teaching, scaffolding and assessing EAL/D learners in mainstream classes. Feez and Harper take us through some fundamental questions that form the basis of EAL/D pedagogy. Some of these questions tap into the very distinct attributes of EAL/D learners addressing matters such as who they are and what they bring with them to the classroom. Drawing on Standard 4 of the Australian Professional Standards for Teachers (AITSL, 2017), the authors address the challenges that EAL/D learners need to overcome in a mainstream class, of which teachers need to take full account when preparing, creating, maintaining and sustaining learning environments that are inclusive of all students' needs.

In order to understand the development of EAL/D teaching in Australia, Feez and Harper conclude their section with a succinct historical snapshot of the grassroots of language teaching approaches around the world dating back to the 19th century. This account traces the transition from pedagogy with an impetus on the rules of formal grammar to more contemporary Australian-based approaches. A trend typified by a shift away from pedagogy focussed on de-contextualised discreet units of language towards a focus on the ways in which language is used communicatively for meaning-making purposes in different social contexts. In the same chapter, Jenny Hammond addresses the centrality of scaffolding in effective EAL/D teaching. Besides revisiting the concept, Jenny stresses the need for teachers to develop the adequate knowledge, skills and dispositions to be linguistically responsive to EAL/D learners. The bedrock for linguistic responsiveness is knowledge about language and knowledge about language learning. To conclude Chapter 1, Margaret Turnbull discusses assessment of EAL/D learners. Besides a definition and description of what it means to assess EAL/D learners, Turnbull provides a brief overview of some important considerations to be made when assessing learners' English language proficiency.

In Chapter 2, Dahlsen, Jones and Derewianka draw on the principles of 'the teaching and learning cycle' to explore how newly arrived EAL/D students from diverse backgrounds can be afforded 'high-challenge' content in the Australian context by way of high-support pedagogies. The illustration of pedagogical practice shows the developmental ways through which students gained cumulative knowledge, meanings, vocabulary and sufficient language structures to read and write about the chosen curriculum concepts from Science and Geography. As the students developed a wider range of vocabulary and language structures, significant improvements in their writing were observed. In Chapter 3, Cindy Valdez-Adams and Jenny Hammond focus on delivering high-challenge Geography content in a Year 4 class through high-support teaching to enable students to think and talk like geographers. Through high levels of collaboration between EAL/D and mainstream teachers and their shared understandings of 'designed in' and 'contingent' scaffolding, Valdez-Adams and Hammond present an illustration of pedagogical practice that demonstrates success in creating an inclusive environment in which all students could take part actively in a high-challenge Geography program. Further, they model how with the appropriate provision of high levels of support, students can be afforded opportunities to 'talk to learn' and 'learn to talk'.

With a particular emphasis on dialogic teaching and learning, Chapter 4 explores the role of 'talk for learning' (or 'talking to learn') in building knowledge across curriculum areas. Drawing specifically on Alexander's (2008, 2020) six principles that help guide "the conduct, preparation and planning for talk that promotes learning through sustained and in-depth exchanges" (Cozmescu & Sandiford, 2021, p. 168), Helen Cozmescu and Carmel Sandiford illustrate pedagogical practice geared towards helping Year 6 EAL/D students in a primary school in Melbourne. Despite possessing sufficient English for everyday spoken interactions, learners required more specialised knowledge and academic language that would enable them to participate fully in a Socratic Circle. This took place after a carefully designed teaching and learning sequence that sought to build meanings, knowledge and language cumulatively through a variety of reading, writing, listening and speaking experiences.

Entitled 'Working with multilingual voices in the classroom', Chapter 5 brings together the collective pedagogical efforts of the authors – Nathan Jeffrey, Vi Nguyen and Gill Pennington – and the

lived cultural and linguistic experiences and stories of EAL/D learners on the topic of 'journeys'. This culminates in the production of a digital story that would reflect their own personal journeys. Aimed specifically at achieving social, emotional and language outcomes, the authors accomplished their pedagogical goals through targeted support and use of a variety of multimodal resources which helped learners extend their vocabulary, knowledge of language structures and confidence to produce, and even act out, their digital narratives.

The topic of sustainability through the use of multimodal persuasive texts is addressed in Chapter 6 by Susan Allaou and Jon Callow. In his 'Reflection' section, Callow not only foregrounds the role and significance of multimodality in the classroom but also stresses the importance of multimodal texts, including visual resources, in creating opportunities for developing EAL/D learners' sense of confidence, inclusion and membership in their new community. The illustration of pedagogical practice highlights both the potential of multimodal texts to support EAL/D students' engagement, language and literacy development, and to serve as conduits for learners to communicate ideas persuasively on a scientific topic, that of our planet Earth. Similarly, Melita Godson and Bronwyn Parkin devote their attention in Chapter 7 to exploring how EAL/D children as young as five or six develop their scientific language through a series of hands-on orienting activities, explicit and intentional teaching of new vocabulary and grammatical structures required for children to think and talk scientifically. The illustration of practice, which centred around a focus text that also became the end goal of the teaching and learning sequence, demonstrates that children were able to use scientific language more flexibly in extended oral responses and through jointly constructed texts.

The final chapter in the book, Chapter 8, by Carmen Leahy and Brian Gray, has a particular focus on making argument and discussion genres accessible to marginalised students who, despite using social English effectively, needed significant support to master academic English to discuss literary texts. Centred around the selected text 'Animal Farm', which would also prepare students for a visit to the Parliament House in Canberra, the illustration of practice followed Parkin and Harper's (2019) teaching sequence model. The model was applied to frame the teaching and learning sequence that

resulted in students being able to move smoothly from 'Close Reading' to 'Supported Writing', and most importantly, to appropriate sufficient language for argument and discussion in order to produce their own original text.

In brief, this edited collection, which presents the critical and reflective voices of scholars, is nicely woven together with the descriptions of practitioners' pedagogical practice which, all together, reveal that curriculum content is by no means inaccessible to EAL/D learners. Each of the chapters showcases dynamic and systematic pedagogical avenues, based primarily upon high levels of support, scaffolding, teacher collaboration, careful planning and explicit instruction, which can lead to significant development of EAL/D learners' academic language to succeed across the curriculum. This volume would be a valuable companion to EAL/D teachers and researchers who operate in the Australian system.

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Book reviews

AN EAL/D HANDBOOK: TEACHING AND LEARNING ACROSS THE CURRICULUM WHEN ENGLISH IS AN ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE OR DIALECT

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To the highly complex situation of the classroom, teachers bring a research-informed approach to planning, teaching and post-teaching reflection. More challenging may be the capacity to *enunciate* the theory and associated research which sits behind teaching choices, as the daily activities which demand attention provide little respite to 'join the dots' between theory and practice. Harper and Feez's most recent PETAA publication, *An EAL/D Handbook: Teaching and Learning across the curriculum when English is additional language or dialect* opens the space for just such enunciation.

Lingard and Renshaw (2009) argue that teaching is "a research-informed profession" (p. 26) and teachers can be supported to have a "researchly disposition" (p. 27) involving "two-way substantive conversations between researchers and practitioners." (p. 34). I will argue in this review that Harper and Feez (2021) provide such an opportunity in this publication. I recently chose to use this text as the basis for professional development activities with specialist EAL/D teachers who sought to review and define their own unique pedagogical practices in their EAL/D classrooms. I chose this contemporary publication for the very reason that it modelled a dialogue between theory and action, between researchers and practitioners. Rather than explore in a more traditional way the content of the text, I will illustrate how I used this text, as another way of providing insight into its value. I will begin first with a brief overview of the book.

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An EAL/D Handbook: Teaching and learning across the curriculum when English is an additional language or dialect, edited by Helen Harper and Susan Feez, and published by PETAA in 2021, provides genuine insight into the thinking of teachers, as they describe in detail some aspect of EAL/D teaching and learning in action. Whilst this kind of insight into EAL/D pedagogy is invaluable, what makes this text particularly rich for teachers is the accompanying partner dialogue/commentary from contemporary researchers and scholars working in the field of language education in Australia. Pedagogical insight relevant to the practice in each of the chapters is provided by academic scholars, enabling the reader to 'make theoretical sense' of the teaching and learning being described. Each report by a teacher is foregrounded by a summary of related theoretical knowledge, providing a reading lens to support the reader in making connections between the more abstract theories which inform EAL/D pedagogy and the activities and planning which translate that theory into practice.

To illustrate, Chapter 2 begins with Bev Derewianka, introducing us to the teaching and learning cycle, and the purpose of each stage of this cycle. Derewianka highlights the theoretical bedrock of this cycle, which was originally developed in the 1990s, based on Vygotskian principles of scaffolding, utilizing systemic functional linguistics and genre theory. We then meet teachers Barbara Dahlsen and Rebekah Jones who take us into a classroom for beginner EAL/D students in upper primary (years 3-6). They describe in detail the student group, their linguistic and cultural resources, their English language learning needs, and the context for the learning being presented in the chapter. For these learners, the teaching and learning cycle provides the framework for a focused study of houses (with links made to the Australian curriculum, in science and geography). Dahlsen and Jones provide us with a rich textual and visual description of the activities undertaken at each stage of the cycle, followed by a reflection on the successes and challenges they experienced. In this chapter, thanks to both parts -theoretical and practical- we can make sense of the theoretical principles which inform the choices the teachers are making as they plan and deliver the teaching and learning activities for this student group. The structure of this chapter, where theory is followed by practice is then replicated across the remaining chapters, with each chapter offering us insight into different kinds of EAL/D contexts.

In utilizing *An EAL/D Handbook* as a professional development (PD) resource, I designed discussion prompts for PD participants based on some of the chapters. I share some of these materials below as examples which could be reshaped, depending on the context, or could inform further activities with this text. The goal for the PD was to support teachers to explore and express their own pedagogical practices as EAL/D teachers. The PD activities were undertaken as part of a longstanding and close partnership, where I have worked on a number of projects with this group of teachers, and we share a strong collegiality. The chapters of *An EAL/D Handbook* were springboards for the teachers to review and reflect on their own classrooms, and to support this goal, I created reading guides and prompts for their consideration (below). Keeping in mind the workload of the teachers, I provided summaries of the key messages presented in Chapters 3 and 4, to support the PD participants' reading and our subsequent discussions.

Reading guides and prompts

Chapter 2

After reading Chapter 2 of Harper and Feez (2021), consider the following for discussion while keeping in mind your own teaching and learning habits, practices, and understandings in reviewing each of these questions:

1) To what extent is your planning guided by a version of the teaching and learning cycle (Figure 2.1 on page 43)?
2) How does this cycle align with the curriculum documents and resources you use?
3) Are there other frameworks/cycles/guides that you draw on for your planning?
4) The chapter provides some examples of how the teachers break down the learning and embed language learning in the unit of work. It provides a useful model for us to consider and review in light of our own classroom activities. Use this summary table as a checklist to indicate which aspects you feel are strong in your teaching repertoire, which you would like to work on, and add any techniques you utilise which have not been included.

Cycle stages	Their activities	I do this ✓	My goal ✓	Comments
Building knowledge of the field	• Aim for message abundancy through use of multiple modes and media • Review of language (vocab) relevant to topic that students already know (e.g., think-pair-share activity) • Picture wall, building vocab relevant to topic (e.g., classificatory language) • Excursion relevant to topic (e.g., neighbourhood walk) with retrieval chart or similar • Watch videos (e.g., YouTube) • Read texts related to unit of work topic • Discussing and labelling static images • Undertaking hands-on activities • Taking part in scaffolded talk (whole of class, in groups)			

Cycle stages	Their activities	I do this ✓	My goal ✓	Comments
Supported reading	• Read-aloud (whole class) • Modelled reading (whole class) • Shared reading (whole class) • Guided reading (groups/pairs/individuals) • Collaborative reading (groups/pairs/individuals) • Independent reading • Teacher-talk about reading text with students (see page 49) • Comprehension activities			
Learning about the genre	• Provide a model of target genre • Deconstruction and reconstruction of target genre (e.g., scrambled sentences) • Grammar patterns of relevant genre (sentence structures, types of verbs, building noun groups, circumstances, tense etc.)			

Cycle stages	Their activities	I do this ✓	My goal ✓	Comments
Supported writing	• Writing an extended text by copying a model (or with some adaptions) • Writing extended text by adapting a model (working with teacher) • Working in pairs/groups to write extended text (e.g., dictagloss)			
Independent use of the genre	• Independent writing of target text • Conferencing with teacher and/or peers about writing • Self-assessment activities against rubric • Presentation/ performance of writing • Feedback to students about their writing • Assessment of independent writing			

Chapter 3
What's covered in Chapter 3?
Context of learning: Year 4 geography classroom, with input from the EAL/D teacher, Cindy Valdez-Adams, who works with the mainstream teacher to ensure inclusion of all EAL/D students.

Key messages covered in the chapter
Jenny Hammond describes the three key foci of the geography program:

- Teaching students to think and write about geography (giving students a purpose/reason for learning geography)
- Teaching students the required content (in the case presented in this chapter, this is about landforms and landmarks and why particular sites should be protected)
- Teaching students the language and literacy features of geography

Jenny suggests that the second and third foci are common while the first is less common, but is important, because often EAL/D students find it challenging to explain why they are engaging in particular activities - the purpose is not always communicated.

The purpose of learning is built into all planning and activities, and supports why students are doing what they are doing (learning to think and write like geographers).

Overview of a couple of lessons, giving details of the ways in which learning builds across the lessons - these are nice summaries of the key stages of a lesson in which language pedagogy is embedded.

Examples of scaffolding demonstrated in the lesson planning.

Two terms are used: designed-in and contingent scaffolding. Designed scaffolding refers to planned support, e.g., activities consciously designed and selected to scaffold learning, so pre-planned, while contingent scaffolding (also referred to by Gibbons as interactional) is not planned but may arise in the course of an activity and would look like spontaneous talk between teacher and student/s or between students. (Gibbons, 2009).

The following pedagogical practices are described in this chapter and include:

High challenge and high expectations:

- Explicit overlay of purpose to the teaching unit - the 'mama goal' (learning to think and write like geographers), and backward planning from this
- All students are expected to participate regardless of language learning level
- Deliberate task design moving from highly supported to independent engagement

Targeted and differentiated support through scaffolding:

- Use of texts in different modalities
- A minimum of five opportunities to engage with content in different ways, via interesting and motivating tasks
- Lessons have stable recurring structures which move students from a controlled activity to a guided activity and finally a more independent activity
- Goals for learning, each lesson, clearly enunciated and reviewed at the end of each lesson
- Peer support in L1 possible, opportunities also for peers to model their own learning

Talking to learn and learning to talk:

- Meaningful opportunities for talk, in whole of class, pairs (e.g., think-pair-share), and in group work
- Opportunities for informal talk with classmates and formal talk with whole of class, to build language of geography

Our thinking and sharing

Reflect on your current classroom and teaching and learning activities.

What is the purpose of learning in your classroom (the 'mama goal')?

Describe what the following looks like in the context of your own practice:

- High challenge and high expectation
- Targeted and differentiated scaffolding
- Talking to learn and learning to talk

Chapter 4
What's covered in Chapter 4?
Context of learning: Year 6 primary classroom, working with students who had commenced school as EAL/D students but are no longer eligible for funding, despite continuing to need EAL/D assistance. The teacher in this chapter is a literacy teacher, who works with classroom teachers to support the embedding of literacy into classroom teaching. The students are working on a unit of work on immigration to Australia.

Key messages covered in the chapter
Framework for implementing a dialogic classroom provided. The six principles of a dialogic classroom (Table 1.4) are described as:

- Collective, reciprocal, supportive - establish conduct and ethos for a dialogic classroom
- Deliberative, cumulative, purposeful - support the building of content knowledge

Clear explanation of why dialogic talk is important for EAL/D students, and how it supports language development.

Illustration of practice documents the preparation of the students so that they can participate in a Socratic circle.

The teaching sequence both recognises what the students know and clearly outlines what the teaching and learning is targeting. This involves both content, but also lots of skills in talking, using language for interaction, expressing and developing ideas, and interacting with others.

Texts are utilised but annotating texts, rather than writing, is the focus. A range of texts provide students with the content they will take to the Socratic circle. Nice ideas are given as prompts for students to annotate texts (Figure 4.3).

Explicit teaching of the Socratic circle, with a range of roles for students and capacity to scaffold this whole activity, whilst ensuring all students have a role to play, including an observation sheet for recording interaction for those not in the circle.

Opportunity to exploit some of the spoken language to transpose into written mode and explore features of written academic language.

Our thinking and sharing
Has anyone used a Socratic circle in their classroom? How could it be used with your EAL/D students?

What are the pedagogical universals of this which might be adapted for your teaching context?

***

What I have presented here is just one aspect of the PD activities we undertook, however, these reading and reflection activities which drew on this book, helped navigate us towards a central conversation about pedagogy and enabled us to consider, in a deep sense, what constitutes a language pedagogy and how this pedagogy is enacted through teaching strategies which support language learning.

Finally, while *An EAL/D Handbook* is valuable for EAL/D teachers, it offers professional knowledge for all teachers of EAL/D students. It certainly offers excellent content as a basis for professional reflection on teaching which is theoretically informed and inclusive of EAL/D students. Importantly, it has much to offer Initial Teacher Education (ITE) programs, where its content should be utilised to give pre-service teachers some insight into EAL/D pedagogy, both theoretically, and in action. It has the scope to support "researchly dispositions" (Lingard & Renshaw, 2009, p.27) in teachers and pre-service teachers, building capacity to enunciate that important relationship between theory and practice.

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Book reviews

THE PREPARATION OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH AS AN ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE AROUND THE WORLD. RESEARCH, POLICY, CURRICULUM AND PRACTICE

Polat, N., Mahalingappa, L., & Kayi-Aydar, H. (Eds.)
Multilingual Matters, 2021

Cris Delatado Barabas
McGill University, Canada

How do countries and nation-states produce strong language teachers? What insights can be gleaned from various countries and their language teacher education programmes? In *The Preparation of Teachers of English as an Additional Language Around the World: Research, Policy, Curriculum and Practice*, editors Nihat Polat, Laura Mahalingappa, and Hayriye Kayi-Aydar argue that it is crucial to venture beyond political and geographical boundaries in order to cross-pollinate ideas and actions when creating innovative EAL teacher education programmes. The volume was generated with the main goal of identifying effective policies and systems, research foundations, curricula and instructional practices for such programmes. Each of the eleven chapters focuses on a different country, explores current pressing issues and identifies future directions that could provide insights for those who are involved in educational and governmental regulating bodies.

Since one of the goals of the volume is to compare programmes across the selected countries, each chapter strictly follows a prescribed structure starting with a summary and concluding with descriptions of in-service professional development requirements. To some extent, this provides ease when reading the chapters, allowing anticipation of the content structure and efficient and direct comparisons between countries. Given the number of countries included in the book, this review will focus only on the editors' introductory chapter and four chapters on TESOL programmes in Brazil, Canada, New Zealand, and the USA. The decision to confine the review to these chapters is primarily due to the similarities and

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complexities of their contexts. Except Brazil, they are predominantly English speaking multicultural and multiethnic contexts and they receive a large number of immigrants which greatly influences the educational landscape. There is also a push for, and open conversations about, multiliteracies in these contexts. These include issues such as race, gender and sexuality, and, to some extent, translanguaging in both teacher education programmes and language education.

In their introduction, the editors briefly elucidate and justify the criteria for their decision-making processes in terms of selecting countries for inclusion. They took into consideration social, political, and economic differences as well as pragmatic reasons such as their familiarity with the countries. A clear strength of their selection is that there are entries from the Global North and the Global South, which represent both inner and expanding circles of world Englishes. Societies with strong multicultural characteristics and those that are heavily homogeneous are also well represented. However, unfortunately, entries from the outer circle are not well represented, which means those countries currently going through an educational paradigm shift by strengthening their mother tongue based on multilingual instruction (e.g., countries in Southeast Asia) are not included in this volume.

The opening chapter by Dilma Mello, Valeska Souza and Viviane C. Bengezen (chapter 2) focuses on the Brazilian context and reminds the reader of the affordances and constraints of implementing a language teacher education programme in a complex and post-colonial society. They discuss Brazil's move towards inclusive and localized pedagogy by emphasizing a critical stance towards multiliteracies and partnership with indigenous teachers. However, the authors indicate that, due to economic inequalities and neoliberal ideologies taking a stronghold, such noble goals of infusing anti-racist, inclusive and anti-oppressive perspectives in both EAL teacher education programmes and English language education in general is not always effective across contexts. While the chapter contains a wealth of information, it would perhaps have been enhanced by including an exploration of how the concept of multiliteracies is viewed in various settings in Brazil and how provisions of anti-oppressive perspectives are embedded in the programmes.

One prominent theme across a number of chapters of the book is drawing parallels between EAL teacher preparations for immigrants and refugees in receiving countries. For example, Farahnaz Faez and

Michael Karas (chapter 3) are crucially concerned with the Canadian context, a complex society that receives immigrants, refugees, and displaced people. Throughout the chapter, they compare requirements for adult ESL teacher accreditation and the initial teacher education programmes of universities in Ontario, primarily due to it being the most populated and largest immigrant-receiving province. Their exploration and use of Ontario as a case study presents ideas to target readers about the advantages and drawbacks of not having a national mandate for EAL teacher education. In this case, the federal government gives power to provincial jurisdictions when it comes to regulating language teacher education programmes and teacher licensing. However, whilst the authors mention the importance of a critical overview of issues and barriers that hinder successful teacher preparation, this topic of discussion was not explicitly articulated. Moreover, the chapter would have been enriched by comparing Ontario to another province such as British Columbia on the west coast, another jurisdiction with diverse population, in order to highlight commonalities and differences of practices. Further elaboration on professional development might have also supplemented the chapter, particularly with a focus on emerging issues such as approaching reading, which is currently a highly debated topic in North America.

Martin East, Jocelyn Howard, and Constanza Tolosa (chapter 13) also discuss EAL teacher preparation in a country with a fast-changing demographic, New Zealand. Similar to Canada, they show that New Zealand does not have a national mandate or policy regarding EAL teacher preparation; it has a national curriculum that can be interpreted freely by universities. The only national requirement is for all teachers to be qualified and either provisionally or fully registered. The strength of this chapter is that the authors examine on a micro-scale the interpretation and implementation of this national curriculum or guidelines. That is, they employ a case study approach in order to explore practices in two universities from the North and South Islands of the country. Target readers gain insights into why and how these universities highlight issues that are relevant in the country's multicultural context, for instance critical themes in EAL teacher preparation courses. This includes topics on literacy learning across the curriculum, language and cultural diversity, and culturally responsive and inclusive educational practices. A key contribution of this chapter is that it stirs conversations on how

social institutions and individual stakeholders respond to changing demographics and learner needs. Policymakers and teacher education professionals (both pre-service and in-service) will find interest in the authors' elaborations on the professional development activities and affordances provided to teachers who have been in the profession for a long time. This chapter also provokes discourses in terms of how non-language/content area teachers could continuously engage in professional development, in the context of increasing numbers of plurilingual learners in immigrant receiving countries.

As a final example, in their exposition on EAL teacher education programmes in the USA, Laura Mahalingappa and Nihat Polat (chapter 12) highlight the impact of decentralization of policy implementation. The chapter shows that, similar to Canada, programmes in the USA follow standards and competencies set by each state. These programmes are influenced by a plethora of state-level factors such as history, demography, politics and other ideologies. In Canada, New Zealand and the USA, the chapter authors show that EAL programmes have courses that address issues of language learning and culture, racism and discrimination, and culturally responsive pedagogy. However, in the context of the USA especially, the chapter could have been enhanced by inclusion of how EAL teacher education programmes and their courses are affected by state mandates and laws with regard to dominant political leanings. For instance, topics relating to race and LGBTQIA+ identities may not be welcome in some states while, in other jurisdictions, they are openly discussed and celebrated in classrooms. This political, social and, to some extent, religious atmosphere must have had an impact on EAL teacher education programmes and would have been worth investigating in Mahalingappa and Polat's chapter.

Despite some of the above-mentioned shortcomings, overall, the volume invites further exploration of contextual factors and issues concerning EAL teacher education. As noted by the editors, it is critical to both compare and recognize research needs that are unique to each specific country. They highlight the importance of classroom-based research and its integration in undergraduate EAL teacher education programmes as well as the place of teacher identity and agency in the profession. The volume will be of interest to language and literacy education professors, students, researchers, and policy makers. For university level educators, select chapters

might be used as reading materials for TESOL courses. Similarly, students and graduate researchers interested in comparative TESOL education will find the chapters resourceful for literature reviews and for exploring research avenues and gaps in the field. Finally, governmental policy makers and their advisers will find insightful practices that could be incorporated into policies for their local or national teacher education programmes.

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Book reviews

CRITICAL LITERACY WITH ADOLESCENT ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS
EXPLORING POLICY AND PRACTICE IN GLOBAL CONTEXTS

Alford, Jennifer H. 2021. Routledge Research in Language Education. London and New York.

Gae Nastasi and Madeline Fauls
Metropolitan Region EAL/D Program

While critical literacy has been studied and applied in first language education for over forty years, its implementation in English language teaching and learning contexts has been both more recent and more challenging (Fajardo, 2015; Haque, 2007). There is misunderstanding about what it is, and its complexity means that many teachers find it challenging to incorporate in their classroom practice. As Luke (2013, cited by Alford, 2021) points out, students of migrant or working-class backgrounds are often not afforded the same access to education as more privileged students, instead seen to be requiring development of basic skills (grammar, vocabulary) rather than exposure to a more 'intellectually challenging' curriculum. Yet, as Freire & Macedo (1987, cited by Alford, 2021) point out, it is vital that students of migrant backgrounds develop the ability to "read the word and the world critically" (Alford, 2021), this being crucial to their understanding of the differing cultural discourses that they will encounter as additional language speakers, whether within the school system, the wider mainstream community in which they live, or within a rapidly increasing globalised society. This position on critical literacy underpins Jennifer Alford's book, *Critical Literacy with Adolescent English Language Learners – Exploring Policy and Practice in Global Contexts* (2021).

The book's first chapter deals with the definition of critical literacy and its importance for adolescent learners of English within the context of educational policy. Alford is particularly interested in the educational practitioner understanding of critical literacy, beginning her exploration of the concept with individual teacher

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definitions drawn from her research. She then explores the origins and complexity of the concept, grounded in critical social theory (The Frankfurt School) (Corradetti, 2017) and influenced by various ideological social, political and educational approaches, such as Freire and Macedo's *critical pedagogy* (1987) or the work of theorists such as Giroux (1992) and Shor (1980) who consider education as a way to maintain entrenched power and privilege structures. However, of major importance in this chapter is Alford's explanation of why critical literacy is crucial for EAL learners, highlighting that, rather than taking away from language learning in the classroom, it has benefits, both educational and social. Development of critical literacy skills is a social and educational equaliser, providing all students access to social and educational capital – thus justifying why English as an Additional Language/Dialect (EAL/D) teachers need to read the book with a view to ensuring implementation of critical literacy strategies.

Chapters 2 and 3 focus on international perspectives. In chapter 2 Alford explores how critical literacy is conceptualised within a range of global educational policies and curricula: the USA (specifically California), the UK, Canada, Sweden and Australia. She uses Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) to explore policies from these five global contexts; this technique allows the researcher to investigate the ideological underpinnings of policy and curricula. Chapter 3 moves from policy to an international literature review of the implementation of critical literacy, with a particular view to the EAL/D classroom. Alford also discusses six different models of critical literacy: Freebody and Luke's *Four Resources Model* (1990; 1999); Lewison, Flint and van Sluys' *Four Dimensions of Critical Social Practice* (2002); Janks' *Synthesis Model of Critical Literacy (2010); Lau's Integrated Critical Literacy Instructional Model* (2013); Lewison, Leland and Harste's *An Instructional Model of Critical Literacy* (2014) and Anwaruddin's *A conceptual framework for Critical Affective Literacy* (2015). These models provide a basis for both teachers and researchers to consider the role and implementation of critical literacy within a variety of classroom settings.

Having provided readers with a thorough theoretical overview of critical literacy, Alford transports the reader into classrooms to explore how teachers enact critical literacy with secondary EAL/D students through teaching practice within the constraints of curriculum policy. The four case studies, analysed through the CDA

methodology, demonstrate how four Queensland EAL/D teachers (Celia, Margot, Lucas and Riva) recontextualise their constructions of critical literacy. Despite each teacher working from the same curriculum documents, different aspects of critical literacy enactment were observed across two secondary school contexts – these are summarised on page 119 (Alford, 2021). Alford's analysis was based on Janks' 2010 *Synthesis Model of Critical Literacy*. Janks proposes four manifestations of critical literacy: Domination, Access, Diversity and Design. **Domination** focusses on the constructedness of texts and an awareness of why the text creator has made particular choices to include or not include. This may manifest in the classroom as text deconstruction with consideration of social power relationships embodied by the texts. **Access** relates to language use, and certainly within Australia, is embodied in *genre pedagogy* and its focus on dominant social forms of language which allow students participation in curriculum, and more broadly, society (Cope and Kalantzis, 2013). **Diversity** focusses on the significance of diverse home literacy practices in schooling while **design** relates to human creativity, in particular, the student's ability to create new meaning. Alford's classroom analysis showed a prevalence of Access and Domination orientations, with evidence also of Diversity while Design (where students re-create) being absent (although understandable, given curriculum constraints). Despite these limitations, the case studies provide a springboard for other teachers to consider the "conditions of possibility" (Alford, 2021: 166-7) to enact critical literacy within their own contexts. These possibilities, as well as a synthesis of the results of the case study, form the basis of Chapter 5 which concludes with a future research agenda.

Educators, writers of policy, those engaged in research with English language learners and teachers of students for whom English is an additional language will find this book thoroughly relevant and practical. It defines what critical literacy is and how it is constructed and enacted in both education policy and classroom practice. It presents an overview of global perspectives in an appealing and interesting format. At its core, *Critical Literacy with Adolescent English Language Learners: Exploring Policy and practice in Global Contexts* is a timely reminder of the importance, necessity, and continuation of critical literacy teaching practice. The book does three things very well. It acknowledges the work of teachers globally in advancing the cause of critical literacy in English language learning classrooms. It

also explores how critical literacy is fundamental in English language teaching policy, and it provides extensive details of the author's research and analysis of empirical data gained from her study of four teachers' praxis in Australian high schools. This book is an essential resource for EAL/D teachers, particularly those working with EAL/D students within the school context. It reminds us that teaching English language is more than simply teaching grammar and vocabulary, but teaching students how to 'understand' the world in which they live.

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- Referencing should follow the APA referencing style; for examples, see a recent issue of the journal at http://www.tesolincontext.org.au/.
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- Tables, figures or diagrams should be numbered consecutively and included in the relevant part of the text. Each should have an explanatory title.
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Mission statement

ACTA is the national coordinating body representing all teachers of English to speakers of other languages. It aims to promote and strengthen English whilst supporting people's linguistic and cultural heritage. English is the language of public communication and the lingua franca for the many different sociocultural groups in Australia, as well as a major language of international communication. For full and effective participation in education, society, and in the international arena, competence in English is necessary.

TESOL is the teaching of English by specialist teachers to students of language backgrounds other than English in order to develop their skills in spoken and written English communication. At the same time, TESOL teachers strive to be sensitive to the diverse linguistic, cultural, and learning needs of individuals.

TESOL draws on a knowledge of the nature of the English language, first and second language acquisition, crosscultural communication, and appropriate curriculum, materials, and methodology for multicultural contexts. It is an integral part of the broader social, educational, and political context. It can inform and be informed by this context.

As a program, profession, and field of study and research, TESOL shares certain understandings and practices with the subject English as a mother tongue, child and adult literacy, languages other than English (LOTE), and bilingual and multilingual education, but also has distinct characteristics.

ACTA's objectives are

To represent and support the interests of teachers of English to speakers of other languages ACTA is committed to quality teacher training and professional development in TESOL and working conditions and career paths which enable teachers to have the stability and continuity of employment to develop, maintain, and deliver quality programs.

To ensure access to English language instruction for speakers of other languages ACTA is committed to ensuring that all students with ESL needs have access to programs that acknowledge and meet their diverse specific needs.

To encourage the implementation and delivery of quality professional development programs ACTA is committed to the development and maintenance of the highest quality programs for students at pre-primary, primary, secondary, and tertiary levels that are appropriately funded, resourced and staffed, and articulated in clear pathways.

To promote the study, research, and development of TESOL at state, national, and international levels ACTA is committed to ensuring that TESOL and TESOL related issues are debated and accorded due recognition in state and national policy initiatives as well as in the international community.