

Teachers' subjective perspectives on foreign language vocabulary learning and teaching

by

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AUTHOR'S DECLARATION

I hereby declare that I am the sole author of this thesis. This is a true copy of the thesis, including any required final revisions, as accepted by my examiners.

I understand that my thesis may be made electronically available to the public.

Abstract

This study examines the beliefs and subjective theories teachers hold about vocabulary learning and teaching. Recent research into teacher cognition has repeatedly shown that teachers' perspectives on languages, language learning, and pedagogy play an important role in foreign language classes. Teacher cognition research has increasingly addressed various aspects of learning and teaching in recent years, however, vocabulary teaching and learning has not been the focus of inquiry in these studies. To address this lacuna, the present dissertation employs an exploratory multi-case study with three university instructors at a Canadian university who teach German foreign language beginner classes.

Guided by a poststructuralist-constructivist conceptualization of beliefs and knowledge as dynamically constructed and embedded in social context, I explore how teachers' past experiences as learners, their reflections on their teaching, their professional training, and their interaction with peers, students, and educational institutions influence the subjective perspectives they develop about vocabulary. In applying narrative inquiry as the main methodological tool, the following data was collected and analyzed: video recordings of classroom observations, adjunct stimulated recall sessions, concept map drawings, interviews, and a survey. The analyses shows that the participating teachers draw on various sources to construct their *subjective perspectives* of vocabulary teaching and learning (e.g., their apprenticeship of observation, their reflection-on-action of classroom proceedings, role models, and academic sources of professional development). Furthermore, the findings of the present study show that their personal, lived learner experiences play a key role and appear to be the dominant factor in this process. Experienced academic sources of professional

development, in contrast, are considered less important. Subjective perspectives are not stable propositions but negotiated and changed in accordance with dynamics of space, place, and time; as such, they can be considered as embedded within particular sociocultural contexts. The data also show that subjective perspectives are part of the respective teacher's self-construction and are mediated by processes of self-positioning and other-positioning. Subjective perspectives follow a highly individualized reasoning process. As a result, even though the participating teachers had similar experiences in some areas, their subjective theories on the respective points differ; and vice versa, in some cases different experiences have nevertheless led them to develop similar subjective theories on several points. Besides, the data shows that the subjective perspectives participants report to hold may be rather dissociated from their actual teaching practices. Such tensions between subjective theories and vocabulary teaching practices can be seen as either conscious (e.g., teachers realize divergences and they aim to justify or rectify the discrepancies retrospectively in interviews with the researcher) or unconscious (e.g., teachers are not aware of the gap between their self-proclaimed perspectives and their actions). Subjective perspectives are constructed in mediation with the interdependent constituents of teacher persona, educational context, learner, subject matter vocabulary, and academic reasoning (all of which are, in turn, subjected to change arising from space, place, and/or time).

Given that change is an important part in the lived experiences of instructors, the present study suggests that reflected engagement is to be regarded as a life-long process of personal and professional development. It works in ways that engage teachers, invite them to ask

questions, and to reflect on how academic knowledge constructions relate to themselves, their learners, the context of their teaching, and the subject matter vocabulary.

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Dedication

Für Traute und Helmut

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List of Abbreviations

BAK	Beliefs, assumptions, knowledge
BALLI	Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory
BLL	Beliefs About Language Learning
CEFRL	Common European Framework of References for Languages
CM	concept map
COG	cognitive strategies
CULT	Certificate of University Language Teaching
DELPHI	Developing Language Professionals in Higher Education
DELTA	Diploma in English Language Teaching to Adults
DET	determination strategies
EFL	English as a foreign language
ESL	English second language
ESOL	English for speakers of other languages
FFI	form focused instruction
FLV	foreign language vocabulary
FonF	focus on form
FonFS	focus on forms
GAT	Gespächsanalytisches Transkriptionssystem
GER 101	German for beginners class 101
IB	International Baccalaureate
IRF	initiation response feedback
ISH	International School Helsinki
KRI	Kuntz-Rifkin Instrument
L1	first language(s)

L2	second language, often used as an umbrella term for both second language and foreign language unless specified
MA	Master's degree
MEM	memory strategies
MET	metacognitive strategies
NNEST	Non-native English speaking teachers
OBS	observation
ORE	Office of Research Ethics
PAD	pädagogischer Austauschdienst
PCK	pedagogical content knowledge
PPT	powerpoint
RPST	Research Programme Subjective Theories
SCT	sociocultural theory
SLA	second language acquisition
SLTE	second language teacher education
SLVA	second language vocabulary acquisition
SOC	social strategies
TA	teaching assistant
TEFL	teaching English as a foreign language
TESOL	Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages
TFFL	Teaching French as a Foreign Language
US	United States

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Most language teachers in tertiary education ascribe to the belief that second language skills are increasingly important communication bridges in our global world. Foreign language departments advertise their programs with slogans such as “The world at your fingertips”¹ or “When you study with us, you open a door unto the world”² or by implying that plurilingual students “go on to pursue careers in various cultural and economic branches in Europe.”³ Foreign language competency is clearly considered an asset by many today. Most educators also agree that vocabulary acquisition lies at the core of successful language acquisition. However, past research indicates that adult learners experience second language vocabulary acquisition as a daunting challenge because they no longer seem to be able to simply “pick up” words with the enviable ease and apparent effortlessness of younger children (Nation, 2001; Schmitt, 2000); instead, they often process, retain, and retrieve foreign language words as the result of explicit vocabulary learning and teaching. In instructed language learning settings such as language programs at universities, students’ learning efforts are guided by the pedagogical principles of the teachers they encounter in their language classes. But what does vocabulary teaching look like in a language class? How do teachers approach the task of developing students’ lexical knowledge? How does what teachers know or have been taught about vocabulary learning and teaching relate to their actual teaching practices? How do they perceive and position themselves (or are positioned by others) as vocabulary instructors?

¹ University of Victoria Humanities poster, viewed October 2014, see [Appendix A](#).

² University of Waterloo, Germanic and Slavic Studies website for future undergraduates, retrieved from <https://uwaterloo.ca/germanic-slavic-studies/future-undergraduates>

³ McGill University, retrieved from <http://www.mcgill.ca/german/about/whygerman>

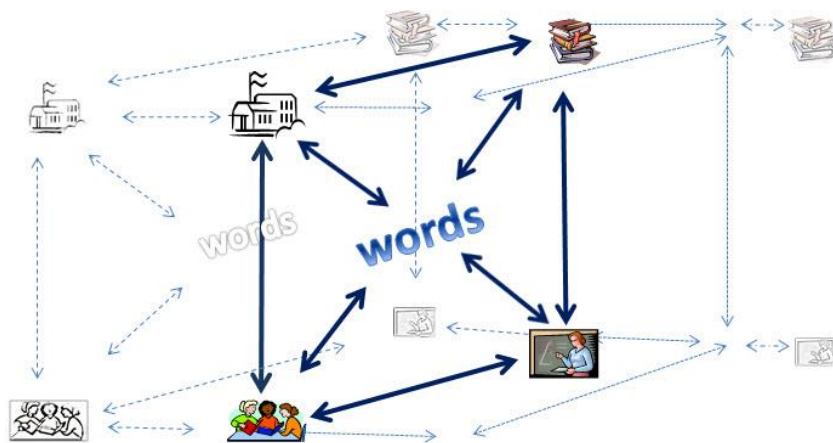
My doctoral research examines how teachers approach second language vocabulary acquisition (SLVA) in tertiary education. It contributes to our understanding of how instructors' formal training, their own background as learners of a foreign language, and their beliefs—in sum, their cognition about vocabulary teaching—impact their classroom practices.

Research in the field of applied linguistics has increasingly made studies that explore beliefs about second language acquisition (SLA) a focus of inquiry. Borg (2006) compiled an extensive bibliography of research projects that foreground various aspects of language teacher beliefs, and the growing interest in such studies is evidenced by the fact that the *Encyclopedia of Applied Linguistics* (2013) included an article on teacher beliefs in its most recent edition for the first time. The article's principal authors, Ana Maria Barcelos and Paula Kalaja, refer to teachers as “gatekeepers mediating their beliefs to generations of learners and others around them” (2013, p. 1). However, although we have numerous studies of second language vocabulary (SLV) that research various aspects of acquisition and pedagogy as well as a significant body of teacher cognition research that focuses on a variety of teacher beliefs' topics over the past four decades, surprisingly few studies combine these two research interests as teacher cognition research of second language vocabulary acquisition and pedagogy (Borg, 2006).

My doctoral research contributes to our understanding of teachers' perspectives on vocabulary acquisition and pedagogy by investigating how teachers' knowledge, beliefs, and past experiences come together as underlying dynamics that mediate the construction of their subjective theories. To further this goal, I research teachers' cognition in the context of their narratives, which are compiled from interview sessions, survey data, concept map drawings,

and classroom observations. My interpretations of the teachers' narratives are guided by a poststructuralist conceptualization of beliefs and knowledge that defines experience (textuality) as a dynamic social activity that is formed by, and embedded in, social contexts (Johnson, 2009). According to this paradigm, teachers' actions and cognition regarding vocabulary are interrelated with the context of their past, present, and future educational settings; with the context of their past, present, and future learning/teaching experiences; and with their reflection-on-action⁴ of past, present, and future classroom practices.

Figure 1 Interrelated Communities of practice



Researching these interdependencies of teacher cognition and practices in SLVA from a constructivist perspective required me to work within the methodological framework of narrative inquiry because it allows me to contextualize teachers in their function as culturally

⁴ More precisely, Farrell refers to these concepts as reflection-on-action, reflection-in-action, and reflection-for-action (2007, p. 4).

constructed mediators of knowledge (Johnson, 2009). It acknowledges that teachers' actions, their identity-construction as teachers, and their cognition have all been shaped by the historical and cultural communities of practice they are part of. Teachers have thus been led to internalize and appropriate the conditions, values, and beliefs about vocabulary acquisition and pedagogy that these communities of practice afforded them. A narrative inquiry based on the data collected within a multi-case study therefore positions the researcher persona as both observer and sense-maker. This perspective takes into account that sense-making as metanarrative is itself another level of textuality. Denzin and Lincoln contend that

poststructuralists and postmodernists have contributed to the understanding that there is no clear window into the inner life of an individual. Any gaze is always filtered through the lenses of language, gender, social class, race, and ethnicity. There are no objective observations, only observations socially situated in the worlds of- and between the observer and the observed. Subjects, or individuals, are seldom able to give full explanations of their actions or intentions; all they can offer are accounts or stories about what they did and why. (2013, p. 24)

Therefore, when I refer to lived experiences⁵ in the analysis of participants' narratives, it is with the understanding that there is no "truth" or "reality" to be discovered, per se, because, as Freema Elbaz-Luwisch explicates,

we are already in the midst of language and narrative form; our lives and experiences in society have been written, formulated, theorized, analyzed, categorized, presented, and represented in the various media, print and electronic; they have been verbalized and represented visually to the point where we apparently can no longer have a "pure" experience that has not already been textualized for us. (2005, p. 35)

⁵ From a poststructuralist perspective, narratives would be termed explications of textuality. Nevertheless, I prefer to use the terms *lived experience* and *lived reality* because they retain a sense of intimacy and closeness to the storying and re-storying of participants' data. With respect to audience, Barkhuizen explicates this storying and restorying as a process of construction. "In narrative inquiries participants tell their stories to researchers who then restory them for a broader audience. In other words, they represent for the audience the participants' experiences in the reports they construct" (2014, p. 98). I contend that the process of retelling and reconstructing the past is already a retold story on behalf of the teller - fitted to the current sequence and told for a communicative purpose. This is explained in more detail later on.

The present study, which is based on the theoretical framework described above, contributes to our understanding of the following:

- Which factors influence participants' subjective perspective constructions about vocabulary learning and teaching?
- What features characterize the participants' subjective perspectives?
- What are the participants' subjective perspectives about vocabulary learning and teaching?
- How do participants' subjective perspectives relate to their classroom practices?

The following chapter outline describes how these questions are addressed in the present study.

Chapter outline

Chapter 2 delineates an explorative-interpretive approach based on the theoretical framework of social constructivism, wherein foregrounding *knowledging* as the result of lived experience and past actions calls for the individual to function as a sense-maker. The second chapter also introduces and discusses the concepts of subjective theory and Devon Woods' *BAK* system of *beliefs, assumptions, knowledge*, followed by an examination of the concept of *subjective perspectives*.

Chapter 3 provides an overview of teacher cognition research. First, it presents a brief section on the historical paradigm shift in teacher cognition research and explicates key terms. Next, it reports prominent findings in teacher cognition (e.g., the condition of apprenticeship of observation, the influence of instruction on cognition, and the relationship between cognition and practices). This third chapter also introduces and discusses research on teachers' beliefs

about vocabulary and then concludes with an overview of past research on vocabulary acquisition and pedagogy.

Chapter 4 focuses on the methodological approach of the multi-case study. It presents my reasons for using narrative inquiry methodology and explains the research design and data collection procedures (classroom observations, interviews, concept map drawings, stimulated recall sessions, and questionnaires). Chapter 4 concludes with an outline of my transcription and coding principles.

Chapter 5 presents the individual case studies in sequence followed by a discussion of results across cases. Every case study's discussion and analysis is organized in a way that demonstrates how participants' past learner and teacher experience, their reflection-on-action, their cognition, and their classroom practices are interrelated.

Chapter 6 discusses implications of this study's results with regard to teachers' future professional development such as *reflected engagement* and *teacher research*. It also describes my research's limitations and outlines future research options.

Terminology

Past researchers have remarked that second language acquisition research incorporates sometimes conflicting, overlapping, and "fuzzy" terminology (Borg, 2006; Schmitt, 2010; Woods, 1996). I therefore use the same terms authors do when referring to particular research contributions. A glossary explains some key terms and how they relate to this study. General terms sometimes conflict with the more explicit usages in this research; for example, though I use second language vocabulary acquisition (SLVA) as the more general umbrella term, it is

sometimes necessary, as is indicated in the text, to differentiate between foreign language and second language acquisition.

A Final Note: I wish to acknowledge the participants' contribution to this study. They shared a wealth of information with me, and I recognize all of them as engaged, caring, and reflective individuals. At no point in this study is it my intention to critique their actions or thoughts.

Chapter 2

Theoretical Framework

This exploratory, multi-case study examines the role that teachers' beliefs, assumptions, knowledge, and lived experiences play in their foreign language vocabulary teaching. From a participant-informed perspective, I aim to contribute to the understanding of how teachers' cognition, their experience as teachers, and their experience as language learners impact their classroom practices. Lyn Richards and Janice Morse (2013) and other researchers maintain that an exploratory-interpretive paradigm grounded in a social constructivist theoretical framework best describes and analyzes participants' shared experiences (Borg, 1998; Denzin & Lincoln, 2013; Grotjahn, 1987).⁶ Richards and Morse believe constructivist grounded theory to be the more interpretive approach of the options available using a grounded theory paradigm, and quote Charmaz' explanation:

Constructivist inquiry starts with the experience and asks how members [i.e., participants] construct it. To the best of their ability, constructivists enter the phenomenon, gain multiple views of it, and locate it in its web of connections and constraints. Constructivists acknowledge that their interpretation of the phenomenon is itself a construction (as cited in Richards & Morse, 2013, p. 66).

As Guba and Lincoln (1994) suggested, this underlying paradigm holds that knowledge is constructed intersubjectively through people's lived experiences and their interactions with the social reality surrounding them. Knowledge is, therefore, not discovered but rather, it is socially

⁶ While the aim to reach an understanding does echo a hermeneutical approach, I do not think this study lends itself to hermeneutical phenomenology research because the starting point for inquiry is not the phenomenon. As I note in chapter 4 (Methodology), the key themes I describe and analyze emerge from the data and are then explored as phenomena that are referenced in the data.

constructed (Denzin & Lincoln, 2013; Guba, 1990). Constructivism overlaps in part with sociocultural theory in the sense that both conceive knowledge as being constructed through interaction. Since recent learner and teacher cognition researchers (Alanen, 2003; Golombek & Johnson, 2004; Johnson, 2006, 2009; Johnson & Golombek, 2002, 2011; Kelly, 2006; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006, 2007; Woods, 2003; Yang & Kim, 2011) base their studies on a sociocultural theoretical framework, I reference this perspective, but I do not foreground the socio-political implications of teacher cognition research as the above-mentioned researchers do. My explorative approach identifies, describes, and analyzes the dynamics of key themes in the participants' data as they are presented. To that end, three central premises within sociocultural theory (SCT) afford an explanatory theory of the mind that help us understand the fluidity and complexity of a teacher's belief and knowledge construction. First, SCT defines learning as a dynamic social activity that is formed by, and embedded in, social contexts (Johnson, 2009). Secondly, seen through the lens of sociocultural theory, language itself is described both as being constructed in social practice and as being a means to construct social reality. Finally, this theoretical framework allows us to contextualize teachers in their function as culturally constructed mediators of knowledge. It acknowledges how teachers' actions, self-perceptions, identity constructions, and cognitions have been shaped by their historical and cultural communities of practice, as well as how teachers have then tended to internalize and appropriate the very conditions, values, and beliefs that shaped them. Relating these aspects of sociocultural theory to teachers' cognition about foreign language vocabulary (FLV) pedagogy and learning and drawing largely on Karen Johnson's 2009 examination of L2 teacher education, I question an epistemology of positivism that sees language as a product and,

instead, introduce an epistemology rooted in sociocultural theory that sees language as a process. Johnson named five *changes in thinking*⁷ that a sociocultural view offers to L2 teacher education (Johnson, 2009, pp. 3–5). I have adapted these to the issue of vocabulary pedagogy and learning as different ways we think about:

- teachers as learners of vocabulary pedagogy
- words as constructed by social practice
- vocabulary teaching
- the broader social, cultural, and historical macrostructures involved in learning and teaching vocabulary
- the professional development of vocabulary instructors.

These theoretical underpinnings permeate my entire study in one way or another. For example, in chapter 3, I point out how paradigm shifts from product-oriented to process-oriented views on language relate to the social constructedness of language and teaching approaches. In chapter 3, I also describe how the development of language itself is grounded in a continuous process of mediation within a sociocultural context, a process whereby language emerges as the result of said mediation even as it is simultaneously the tool for this development. In chapter 4, I trace the historicity of teaching vocabulary approaches, highlighting how paradigm shifts were a consequence of socioculturally grounded changes of their time. Finally, in chapter 6, I argue that teacher education should embrace a professional development model that regards teachers' lived experiences as teachers and learners not only as

⁷ Karen Johnson argued that “a sociocultural perspective changes the way we think about teacher learning (...); language (...); language teaching (...); the broader social, cultural, and historical macrostructures (...); what constitutes professional development” (2009, p. 3-5).

the cause of their BAK construction (*beliefs, assumptions, knowledge*), but also as a valuable contribution to their future professional development.

Foregrounding' lived experience as the result of past actions and as it engenders future actions calls for an argumentative strategy within constructivism that focuses on the individual as *sense-maker*. My *subjective perspectives* approach has the potential to foreground the teacher as "knowledge constructor." Teachers act on past experience as learners, they make sense of their reflections on classroom actions, and they draw on professional input from a variety of sources. The following section briefly describes *subjective theory* conceptualizations in a foreign language context and argues that it makes sense to use this approach when addressing how teachers talk about their beliefs about vocabulary learning and teaching.

2.1 Subjective theory–BAK and *subjective perspectives*

This section introduces *subjective theory* as the theoretical framework of analysis used in my study. I regard the participants' explications as the voicing of their subjective perspectives. They constitute, in large part, the data I use to analyze and extract recurring themes. It is therefore important to describe subjective theory construction and situate this theoretical approach within the broader study of individual cognition in the context of North American and German discourse. I present the reasoning behind my use of subjective perspectives as the principal term when describing teachers' verbalizations of their cognition and when analyzing their concepts about vocabulary learning and pedagogy before briefly comparing the concept of subjective theory with Woods' BAK system⁸ and conclude by highlighting key aspects of both.

⁸ It goes beyond the scope of this dissertation to compare discourse developments on the North American continent with European discourse about subjective theory. Grotjahn, for example, notes that he wished that the *Research Programme*

Rüdiger Grotjahn (1991) describes *subjective theories* as “very complex cognitive structures [that] are highly individual, relatively stable, and relatively enduring” (p. 187). In foreign language teacher cognition, they are conceptualized as the means used to make sense of what teachers conceive, predict, think, and act upon in foreign language classes. Making the teacher the focus of sense-making is not a new concept. In fact, it has been a recurring theme in psychology and education research since the late 1970s (Groeben & Scheele, 1977; Groeben et.al., 1988).⁹As early as 1987, Prabhu described the way teachers’ expertise governed their actions as a *sense of plausibility*. In her conceptualization of *action research*, Anne Burns (2010) explores how teachers’ actions can be used to inform theory. Kumaravadivelu (2003) and Littlewood (2004, 2011) argue for a post-method framework of teacher education and propose that both the classroom experience and current language teaching theory should be guiding principles for the professional development of language teachers.¹⁰

Parallel to the North American discourse outlined above, German psychologists and educational scientists developed the *Research Programme Subjective Theories* (RPST). Grotjahn (1991, 1998) discusses the considerable overlap of North American terms related to this research framework. What sets RPST apart from North American discourse is its core concept that “subjective theories on the one hand and objective (scientific) theories on the other are structurally and functionally parallel or analogous to each other” (Grotjahn, 1991, p. 191). It is

Subjective Theories (RPST) approach were more widely used as a methodology to analyse human action and thinking. For more information regarding the comparison of studies and their terminology (e.g., Barkhuizen [1998] on learners’ perceptions; Woods [1996] on beliefs, assumptions and knowledge; and Borg [1998] on teachers’ personal pedagogical systems) in Grotjahn, 1998, pp. 44–45.

Woods’ BAK network is discussed in more detail in Chapter 3.1.

⁹ See also the preceding discourse in psychology of *personal constructs* based on the engagement and sense-making of humans with their lived reality (Kelly, 1955).

¹⁰ The emergence of subjective theories as concepts in psychology and teacher education is beyond the scope of this dissertation; I refer to Flick (1989) for a historical overview of subjective theory constructions in various disciplines and to Groeben et al. (1988) for the conceptualization of subjective theories in education.

this characteristic, I argue, that has been used to place what teachers think, believe, and know back into the equation of teacher cognition research, considering it an important contribution to understanding the forces that influence classroom practices and placing it on a par with academic research. Researchers have argued that subjective theory analysis allows us to look at how teachers process their lived experiences (Groeben et al. 1988; Grotjahn, 1991; Kallenbach, 1996, 2007). As mentioned above, teachers' reflections on action has been researched in the past. One of the widely accepted models used to frame the interrelatedness of knowledge construction and classroom practice in a North American context is Devon Woods' 1996 concept of a *BAK* (beliefs, assumptions, knowledge) system wherein beliefs, assumptions, and knowledge all work together to affect teacher cognition. He defines the components of beliefs, assumptions, and knowledge as belonging to one system and regards these components as three points along a continuum. Beliefs are thus seen as a provisional acceptance of concepts that might or might not be true. As such, they are regarded as interrelated rather than as discrete entities. They are not stable within the individual but are formed in social interactions within social contexts; furthermore, they are linked to cognitive processes (Woods, 2003). Woods maintains that the BAK structure consists of "dynamic constructions of more or less coherently interconnected conclusions, patterns, regularities, generalizations constantly evolving through the interplay of external observations and experiences coming into contact with the prior BAK structure" (2003, p. 206).

I shall now compare the features of Woods' BAK system to those of subjective theories.¹¹ In particular, I look at (1) the tenet that subjective theories move from *wissen* [knowing]¹² to

¹¹ How Woods' BAK network is discussed in the larger context of teacher cognition is further explored in Chapter 3.1.

Wissenschaft [science] via the process of verbalization; (2) their focus on the constructor; and (3) their claim to be scientific constructions on a par with any other academic, scientific construction.

With regard to the first aspect, Kallenbach (1996) argues that the circumstances of verbalization provide the necessary coherence, disambiguity, and contextualization that are usually not needed in subconscious, implicit *knowing*, and that the very notion of rendering thoughts into text transforms them into theoretical concepts. Woods views teachers' verbalizations in a slightly different way, seeing them as necessary sources for data analysis of the BAK system. He described it in 2003 as follows:

I wish to emphasize that the teachers' verbalizations are the source of the individual propositions posited in their networks of beliefs, assumptions, and knowledge. It is through examining the recurrence of these verbalizations, and their relationships to others in the data, that I posited certain features of their BAK system.¹³ (p.197)

Much as Kallenbach does, Woods believes that teachers, in the act of being interviewed, categorize and verbalize aspects of their BAK. Woods sees this process of verbalization as a type of processing "where elements do not exist as individual entities but coalesce into patterns in particular situations" (1996, p. 197). However, he then disagrees with Kallenbach's position by pointing out that BAK networks are not always entirely conscious (1996, p. 286).

¹² The German term can only be inadequately translated as *knowing* because it conflicts with a discourse term favoured by Dewey to distinguish between the characteristics of a process as *knowing* and the product of that process as *knowledge* (cited in Kumaravadivelu, 2011, p. 21).

¹³ I draw on this aspect as one of my coding principles discussed in chapter 5.

The second aspect of subjective theories strongly emphasizes that the creator of these theories is the agent¹⁴ of self-identity construction. Teachers use subjective theories about the subject matter, about learning, and about teaching to position themselves as instructors. This notion of *positioning* contests the humanistic conception of the individual as a person with a unique and fixed core (Norton, 2012; Weedon, 1997). In her seminal work on exploring identity in language education, Bonnie Norton argues for a poststructuralist view of agency and subjectivity. “Drawing on the Foucauldian notions of discourse and historical specificity, subjectivity in post structuralism is understood as discursively constructed and as always socially and historically embedded” (2012, p. 3).

In Woods’ conceptualization, teacher identity construction is not the focus of inquiry. Instead, analyzing teachers’ BAK networks serves as a means to identify **what** teachers’ (or learners’) beliefs, assumptions, and knowledge are about.

Finally, I address whether subjective theories should be viewed as being on a par with *Wissenschaft* [academic scientific constructions of knowledge]. With reference to Furnham’s (1988) categorization of lay theories in contrast to scientific theories, Kallenbach characterizes subjective theories as being, for example, implicit, at times vague or contradictory, even lacking the need for verification, relatively stable, and involving affective assessments (1996, p. 35). One might well wonder how, or even whether, these attributes could be related to *Wissenschaft* [scientific theories]. Kallenbach believes the following structural and fundamental dynamics are crucial aspects of theory construction:

¹⁴ Identity construction from a poststructuralist perspective is discussed further below. Norton sees a challenge in the poststructuralist concept of *agency* with respect to teachers’ capacity to resist essentialized identities. See more on this in Norton and Morgan (2013).

Sowohl subjektive als auch wissenschaftliche Theorien dienen dazu, zu verstehen, wie etwas ist, zu erklären, warum es so ist und vorherzusagen, wie etwas sein wird¹⁵. (p. 35)¹⁶

In response to Wenden (1999), who considers beliefs to be subsets of knowledge, Woods delineated his conceptualization of how knowledge and beliefs are ordered hierarchically, arguing that knowledge is a subset of beliefs “for which there is the greatest consensus, the greatest demonstrability, and the least personal identification” (2003, p. 205). This view clearly identifies Woods as a constructivist who asserts that knowledge is constructed in the same vein as subjective theories. Kallenbach (1996) merges all three components into one, whereas Woods moves knowledge away from the knower and back to a scientific paradigm that has features of demonstrability, consensus, and little personal identification.

However, I challenge the very contention that subjective theories must adhere to scientific paradigms. As I demonstrated above, the question regarding whether or not subjective theories are theories in an academic sense remains a controversial one, but I view the question itself as problematic because it continues to see scientificity as the only appropriate measure. In a similar way, Woods’ concept of knowledge does not defer from the notion of knowledge as product (despite having fuzzy boundaries), and I prefer the term *knowing* in a Deweyan sense instead, where knowing is seen as a process rooted in the personal activity of the knower¹⁷ (Kumaravadivelu, 2011). However, I believe there is merit in Woods’ concept of how the BAK

¹⁵ Both subjective and academic theories strive to understand how something is, aim to explain why something is the way it is, and predict how things will be.

¹⁶ Grotjahn (1998), however, believes that the very fact that we can conceive several, even partly contradictory subjective theories related to the same concept presents a significant obstacle to our ability to compare them with scientific concepts. He therefore does not agree with Kallenbach’s claim that subjective theories should be considered scientific concepts.

¹⁷ Chapter 3.1 discusses the concepts of knowing and knowledge in more detail.

system shifts between beliefs, assumptions, and knowledge as dynamic constructions.¹⁸ The subjective theory concept's focus on identity construction has value. To avoid the controversy of a "scientific theory" claim, I choose to refer to the participants' verbalizations as their subjective perspectives, but I will continue to use the term BAK system when referring to a research context where it is used in this way. The next section discusses the concept of identity and its relation to the construction of subjective perspectives from a poststructuralist position in more detail.

2.2 Identities from a poststructural perspective

Relevant research on identity (identities) construction is briefly outlined before I explain why I used poststructuralist identity construction as the underlying theoretical paradigm of the present study. In particular, I draw on Buchholtz and Hall's notion of identity as (1) "emergent in discourse"; (2) "interactional positioning at a macrolevel, local, and temporary level"; and (3) "intersubjectively constructed" (2010, p. 19). Furthermore, I refer to Chris Weedon's notion of "the subjectivity of identity construction" that appears as "contradictory and in process" (1997, p. 21).

Teachers' professional identity formation is intrinsically intertwined with the emergence of teachers' subjective perspectives. I signify who I am, who I was, and who I want to be as a teacher (of vocabulary) in the verbalization of my subjective perspectives. At the same time, the way I have positioned myself (or how I have been positioned by others) in the process of this verbalization leads, in turn, to a mediation or renegotiation of my identity. Therefore, subjective perspectives shape a teacher's identity (Kumaravadivelu, 2012); and how I perceive myself and

¹⁸ Chapter 3.1. addresses Woods' BAK network in more detail.

how others perceive me shape my perspectives. In my research, I refer to Mary Buchholtz and Kira Hall's (2010) framework for the analysis of identity as constituted in linguistic interaction because this framework allows me to relate how participants position themselves in their narratives to how they develop their subjective perspectives. What teachers believe, assume, or know about vocabulary learning and teaching is part of their identity construction; it shapes who they are (were, or will be) as language teachers in the past, present, and future. Following Buchholtz and Hall's arguments, I see identity as "the social positioning of self and other" (2010, p. 18) in an intramental dialogue with self and an intermental dialogue with self and the external world rather than as a manifestation of the individual psyche. Buchholtz and Hall argue that "the analytic value of approaching identity as a relational and socio-cultural phenomenon that emerges and circulates in local discourse contexts of interaction rather than as a stable structure located primarily in the individual psyche or in fixed social categories" (Buchholtz & Hall, 2010, p. 18).

Early structuralist studies of teacher and learner identity framed identity as "a fixed, invariable attribute in the 'mind' of the individual" (Ricento, 2010, p. 895), whereas poststructuralist studies view identities as multiple (hence its plural form), contradictory, multi-leveled, and as being shaped and changed in interaction (Block, 2007; Buchholtz & Hall, 2010; De Costa, 2011; Duff, 2002; Kumaravadivelu, 2012; Menard-Warwick, 2008; Morgan, 2007; Norton, 2013; Tsui, 2007; Weedon, 2007). Language is, in this concept, both the vehicle used to display positions and perspectives and also the site of identity construction, where discourse mediates identity. Past research on teacher identity therefore often uses narratives and case studies to trace the emergence of identity concepts. Menard-Warwick's (2008) multi-case study is an

example of how a poststructuralist perspective reveals the multi-faceted and contradictory dynamics that play a crucial role in the development of identities. Based on narratives and classroom observations of two ESL teachers from a non-native English speaking teachers background (NNEST), Menard-Warwick explored her participants' perspectives of teaching cultural topics. She related these teaching moments to her participants' narratives of their own pluricultural identity formation. She found that the teachers' approach to teaching cultural content reflected both their own biographical experience and the educational context. Buchholtz and Hall's notion of identity construction is exemplified in Menard-Warwick's case studies. Her participants mediated their identities in narratives and discourses with their external world. They reported how they had positioned themselves as NNEST instructors with an immigration background (macrolevel), as experienced educators who had learned to "fit in" at their schools (local level), and as instructors of cultural content that drew on their own background experience (temporary level) to share their narratives. Through/in the course of retelling their life stories they renegotiated, reflected, and reframed their perspectives. Thus, by foregrounding these shifts and changes in their personal history, Menard-Warwick explores the complexities of identity construction as a nuanced, multi-faceted process that is realized and shaped in discourse. Though my research focuses on teacher cognition, I nevertheless acknowledge how closely *subjective perspective* constructions of vocabulary learning and teaching are related to teachers' identities. As we will see in the discussion of the case studies, this aspect is reflected in my participants' stories of their lived realities.

This chapter delineated the framework for the theoretical underpinnings of this research (an exploratory–interpretive paradigmatic approach grounded in a social constructivist theoretical

framework) and illustrated the terminology used. A literature review of teacher cognition research follows. It presents a brief historical overview of paradigm shifts in teacher cognition and highlights some of the key issues in research, including teachers' own learning experiences, classroom practice as a site of *subjective perspective* construction, and how beliefs regarding vocabulary pedagogy and learning have been researched in the past.

Chapter 3

Researching Teacher Cognition and Vocabulary Teaching: An Overview

This chapter outlines major findings in the area of teacher cognition and then examines aspects of past research that relate to teacher cognition about vocabulary learning and teaching. A brief overview of how background information about vocabulary acquisition and pedagogy affect the concepts teachers encounter as discourse in their professional development follows.

3.1 Teacher cognition research

With teachers increasingly being identified as key stakeholders in SLA, it comes as no surprise that second language teacher education (SLTE) now assumes a more central position in SLA research (Bailey & Nunan, 1996; Bartels, 2005; Borg, 2003, 2006, 2011, 2013; Freeman & Richards, 1996; Johnson, 2009; Kumaravadivelu, 2006; Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011; Richards and Farrell, 2005; Woods 1996). A key component of understanding teachers' actions in their classrooms is to contextualize the factors that shaped them as professionals. In part one of this overview, I present a brief historical overview of major concepts in past teacher education and cognition research and introduce the plethora of definitions and approaches related to cognition research. I then report on key issues that are the current focal point of inquiry into beliefs, assumptions, and knowledge concepts, and conclude with a critical review of teacher cognition research that focuses on vocabulary teaching.

3.2 A historical overview

The following section provides a brief historical overview of the profound paradigm changes in teacher education research. Many scholars in the field of teacher cognition note a distinct shift in research interests (e.g., Barnard & Burns, 2012; Borg, 2003; Ellis, 2012; Hawkins, 2004; Johnson, 2009; Kumaravadivelu, 2012; Woods, 1996) from positivistic research, which identifies characteristics of good teaching that then presumably lead to good student performance, to a more observational stance in studies that describe *what* teachers do and *why*. Recent years have seen another paradigm shift toward teacher education research that regards teacher development as a dialogic mediation of everyday knowledge and scientific concepts. We now ask questions about what teachers know, what they believe, what they do in class, and potential influences affecting these matters. Teachers' cognition and practices are thus seen to emerge from social contexts, an approach that acknowledges that teachers do not function in a vacuum; they are part of this knowledge construction as subjects (e.g., learners of a target language) and as agents (e.g., as teachers of a target language), a process that is detailed below.

The term *teacher cognition research* was coined in the early 1990s to describe the study of what teachers believe, assume, and know, but *teacher education research* itself dates back more than five decades. The following overview of the major concepts that prevailed at different periods highlights the utility of relating pedagogical paradigms of vocabulary learning and teaching to the different theories on language.

While the goal of understanding the teachers' impact on what happens in language classes permeates all studies, perspectives regarding what the appropriate focus of inquiry should be has shifted in concordance with shifting pedagogical paradigms of the predominant learning

theories and of theories about language in particular times and places (Borg, 2006; Woods, 2003). Educational research moved from the positivistic studies of the early 1970s¹⁹ (which identify characteristics of good teaching leading to good student performance) to a more observational stance in studies that describe what teachers do and why they do it (Barcelos, 2003; Borg 2003, 2006). Because successful learning was believed to be the product of efficient teaching in the 1970s, studies attempt to identify teacher behaviours that are conducive to student learning. Referring to Shulman's (1986) and to Clarke's (1996) critiques of this positivistic stance in research, Johnson (2009) points out that this approach not only assumes the existence of a single, "right" way to teach, but also takes for granted that such a method can be captured by careful analysis: "Positivism, also referred to as the scientific method, is rooted in the belief that reality exists apart from the knower and can be captured through careful, systematic processes of data collection, analysis, and interpretation" (Johnson, 2009, p. 7). This conception logically implies that such optimal behavioural patterns can be taught in teacher education programs as *generalizable models of teacher effectiveness* (Anning, 1988; Borko et al., 1988; Calderhead, 1988b; Kennedy, 1991). Next, a change in perspective toward behaviour that prioritizes psychological dimensions of decision-making shifted the focus of teacher education toward psychological studies of problem solving and decision making (Borko, Shavelson and Stern [1981] were ahead of their time in this endeavour.). However, though some temporal overlap existed, it was not until the mid-1980s that what teachers were thinking about their teaching began to be seen as an important interaction played out between knowledge

¹⁹ For example, Borg mentions the work of Dunkin and Biddle (1974) who presented a model where learning was seen to be a product of teaching (Borg, 2006, p. 5).

of the subject matter and pedagogy (Clark & Peterson, 1986; Fenstermacher, 1994).²⁰ Borg (2006) points out that teachers were then perceived as “sense-makers” (Fennema & Franke, 1992). He refers to Clark and Peterson’s 1986 model of teacher thought and action as groundbreaking, not only because they conceptualize how teachers’ thought processes should be related to teachers’ actions and observable practices in class, but also because they suggest that these components interact in the formation of cognition. At this point in the late 1980s and early 1990s, research interests in teacher education expanded to explore what teachers think, assume, know, and believe—in short, teacher cognition. Central to this shift was a constructivist view of cognition—how teachers “make sense” of phenomenon was considered to be an ongoing process of constructing and reconstructing meaning. The emphasis changed from what teachers know (as a quasi-static set of knowledge items) to how they mediate knowledge (*knowing*), which is a constantly changing process. The next section addresses how these concepts of believing, knowing, or assuming were theorized.

²⁰ Schön’s 1983 and 1987 studies are early examples of how reflective practice entered teacher education discourse.

3.3 Definitions: Beliefs, assumptions, and knowledge

Terms describing teachers' beliefs, assumptions, and knowledge in teacher cognition research have always been fuzzy concepts, and they remain so today. Traditional approaches largely viewed them as separate entities, and we therefore encounter taxonomies that aim to identify different types of knowledge (e.g., Richards, 1996; Shulman, 1986, 1987) and those that focused on beliefs, their development, their representation in our minds, and the differences.

Knowledge systems have often been associated with science-based principles. Richards (2008) outlines two strands that have traditionally formed the knowledge base of second language teaching: (1) "the knowledge about" language and learning (also referred to as *content knowledge* and/or *explicit knowledge*) the academic underpinnings of classroom practices, and (2) "the knowledge how" (also referred to as *pedagogical content knowledge* and/or *implicit knowledge*) that is derived from the work of teaching itself. *Pedagogical content knowledge* supposedly transforms content in ways that make it accessible to learning.

Shulman's categorization (1986, 1987) goes into more detail. Adapting his taxonomy of teacher knowledge, and focusing on SLVA in tertiary education, this taxonomy then describes the following:

- language learning theories in second language acquisition;
- the learner in general in tertiary education;
- pedagogy in general;
- the subject matter vocabulary;
- pedagogy of the subject matter vocabulary;

- the educational context of vocabulary instruction within tertiary education;
- the curriculum in SLVA.

Presenting this taxonomy in list form seems to imply that these subsets of cognition function independently, when in fact they should be viewed as interrelated. The analytic outline of vocabulary teaching methods in Table 3 demonstrates how theoretical assumptions lead to organizational patterns that then govern classroom procedures. The knowledge and beliefs systems that we adhere to thus tie into our concept of the learner, the pedagogy we implement, and the educational setting we expect to encounter. This interrelatedness is exemplified by my description of the Audio-lingual method, which has the theoretical underpinnings of language as a system.²¹ Based on paradigms developed in the fields of structural linguistics and behavioural psychology, this method calls for the systematic accumulation of vocabulary knowledge as a linear learning process with a focus on aural-oral acquisition procedures. The learner, seen as a *tabula rasa* persona, acquires vocabulary by responding to stimulus and reinforcement procedures provided by the teacher. This scientific background is based on a view of language learning as structural learning that relies on the implementation of structured, graded, and scaffolded activities (e.g., memorization drills based on aural-oral cue response patterns) within an educational context that provides the means for a controlled environment adhering to a specific curriculum and material design.

²¹ This description is based on Kumaravadivelu's discussion of language-centred methods (2006, pp. 97–113). Devised in the US during World War II to create short-term, simplified courses with a strong focus on listening and speaking, this method is still used in Berlitz language schools today. It also happens to be the method used at my first teaching position decades ago, and many of the activities are very familiar to me.

Table 1 Framework for the analysis of teaching methods-The Audiolingual Method

Knowledge/Beliefs System About:	Theoretical Assumptions	Organizational Pattern	Classroom Procedures
Concept of language	<p>Language as system based on theoretical principles from</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ structural linguistics <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - aural/oral most important - unique and finite number of structures ▪ behavioural psychology stimulus/response reinforcement 	<p>systematic accumulation of discrete linguistic patterns exemplifying the following characteristics:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ learning as linear process ▪ speaking before writing preference ▪ controlled input ▪ form-based input modification (selected, graded, scaffolded) ▪ teacher-centered 	<p>focus on aural input in typical procedures:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ structured dialogues ▪ substitution drills ▪ controlled role-plays <p>focus on these principles:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ step-by-step presentation of learning material ▪ confirmed learning progress before moving to next step ▪ teachers provide correct stimulus
Concept of learner	<p>tabula rasa principle:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ learners react to stimulus and reinforcement ▪ learners must be trained 	<p>linear relation between input => intake => output</p> <p>learner does not need reflection learner does not have to be creative</p> <p>learner intention is structural habit formation</p>	<p>aural-oral cue response patterns:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ memorization drills ▪ learner-teacher hierarchy
Concept of learning and pedagogy	<p>structural learning is scientific; acquisition is sequential and additive; acquisition must be controlled;</p>	<p>syllabus design structures input</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ grades ▪ selects ▪ scaffolds <p>instruction must be repetitive;</p>	<p>tasks follow the 3 Ps principle:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ presentation (listen to dialogue) ▪ practice (in LAB drills)

	acquisition follows principles of <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ selection ▪ gradation ▪ presentation needs correct model	learning by analogy, not by analysis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ produce (in controlled role-plays)
Educational context	educational structure is necessary; educational material must be controlled	provides a controlled environment; adheres to curriculum and material design	teacher-fronted instruction; mandatory use of course material

The infusion of this approach with intertwined conceptualizations of beliefs and assumptions and “scientific” knowledge is obvious, as is the case with all such approaches. Given that knowledge concepts are generally based on the governing theoretical paradigms of their time, we can readily identify the influence that behaviourism,²² as the academic source, had upon the Audio-lingual method. However, curriculum design is created, interpreted, and acted upon by people. Therefore, we cannot envision it as an entirely top-down process moving from its theoretical foundation based on academic principles to organizational patterns to classroom procedures. The reality of organizational patterns and the lived experience of people in these classroom procedures mediate between theory and practice. Knowledge and beliefs are negotiated between these elements, and constructs of knowledge and belief are contested. After all, most of us are no longer drilled in language labs with rote memorization activities. The Audio-lingual method and its theoretical underpinnings have been replaced by other theoretical paradigms that govern how we view language, a development that logically leads to other

²² The behaviourist school of thought that is best represented by psychologists Skinner, Watson, and Thorndike claims that all behaviour is acquired. See discussions on the nature/nurture controversy in Ormrod (2013) and in Sprinthall, Oja and Sprinthall (1997). Skinner bases his concept of learning on operant conditioning (e.g., of pigeons), where a response is followed by a reinforcing stimulus.

methods of teaching vocabulary. If we acknowledge the constructedness of methods and approaches based on predominant paradigms of their time, we must also acknowledge that there can be no right (or “true”) way to conceptualize knowledge. Instead, there are constructed and reconstructed knowledges (truths) directing our learning. In an effort to deconstruct the concept that knowledge is a product which is plucked from the tree of knowledge, Kumaravadivelu refers back to Dewey’s considerations of the term knowledge and who preferred to use the term *knowing*:²³ “For Dewey, knowing is not confined to some abstract thinking that takes place somewhere in the human mind. On the contrary, it is very much rooted in the personal activity of the knower” (2011, p. 21). This emphasizes the process of knowing and foregrounds the agent of this process by highlighting its origin in the actions of people. This leads us to the next questions: How do human actions and their reflections about them relate to cognition? How have the terms beliefs, knowledge, and assumptions been conceptualized? How do we distinguish between beliefs and knowledge? Do we even have to? These aspects are delineated in the next section.

3.4 Concepts related to knowledge, beliefs, assumptions (and the like) in teacher cognition

Many researchers note that beliefs and knowledge do not have clearly definable boundaries. How might we identify whether, where, and when assumptions turn into beliefs, or beliefs into knowledge? To confound the issue even more, use of these terms overlaps because they cross interdisciplinary boundaries between cognitive psychology, philosophy, and educational psychology. Furthermore, as Borg argues with regard to the field of teacher cognition, there seems to be little agreement about terms that clearly signify these concepts in ways that allow

²³ Kumaravadivelu’s argument for a simpler frame of reference to conceptualize knowledge (and its components) is discussed at length in the next section.

studies to be compared (Borg, 2006, p. 49).²⁴ We even see the same term used to refer to different or adapted concepts. Given such inexactitude, it may be helpful to outline a few of the controversies surrounding some of these definitions.

Meijer et al. (1999) use the compound term *practical knowledge* to refer to “the knowledge teachers themselves generate as a result of their experiences as teachers and their reflection on these experiences” (as cited in Borg, 2006, p. 49). Other researchers refrain from using the term knowledge at all if knowledge was generated by the teacher him/herself, preferring to limit the term to a scientific concept of acquired learning within an educational setting. Similarly, Borg cites the terminology that Grossman, Wilson, and Shulman employ in their research to refer to content knowledge as “factual information, organizing principles, central concepts of a discipline” (Borg, 2006, p. 37).²⁵ A factor that confuses the issue even further is that different studies sometimes use different terms to denote the same concept. For example, Borg notes that beliefs about teaching have variously been called *folklinguistic theories*, *conceptions of teaching*, *lay theories*, *representations*, *implicit theories*, or *philosophies of language learning* (2003, 2006). Thus, it comes as no surprise that Pajares refers to beliefs as a “messy construct” (1992, p. 307).

The issue gets even messier when, as mentioned above, the distinction between beliefs and knowledge is debated. There is considerable controversy in the field regarding what

²⁴ Borg compares studies in teacher cognition and includes a list of how terminology is used in those studies. See his Table 2.2 for a complete list of these studies (2006, p. 47–49). Barcelos also provides terms used in cognition research and quotes from various studies highlighting their use (2003, p. 9); her table is reproduced in [Appendix B](#)

²⁵ Discussion of philosophy’s history of reflection upon knowledge goes well beyond the scope of this study. Epistemologists from the time of Plato on have attempted to define which components are fundamental to the nature of knowledge. This touches on concepts of *justified*, *true*, and *believed*. Whether these three components can indeed be considered the defining characteristics of knowledge is now a matter of controversy. Among others, Edmund Gettier’s counterexamples, known as the Gettier cases (1963), contest that definition. Historically, the discussion ranges widely, from efforts to identify a universal knowledge (e.g., Rene Descartes’ claim that knowledge exists because it is evidenced in the human process of thinking (*cogito ergo sum*)) to a postmodern conceptualization that does not see knowledge construction outside of the lens of the constructor (e.g., knowledge emerges through community agreement). See S. Bernecker and F. Dretske (2000) for a comprehensive overview of contemporary epistemology.

distinguishes an assumption from a belief and what may properly be considered knowledge. As was discussed in Chapter 2, Woods' conceptualization of a BAK system describes the conventional associations with these terms as follows: (a) assumptions as references to a temporarily accepted state which may or may not be verified later; (b) beliefs as propositions that do not have to be proven, where people can have different views (e.g., I believe Meryl Streep to be one of today's best actresses; I'm sure flashcard practice can help most students learn vocabulary); and (c) knowledge as propositions referring to conventionally accepted facts (e.g., the universe revolves around the earth).²⁶ Some researchers (Nespor, 1987; Pajares, 1982) try to define boundaries, while others claim that the concepts are multidimensional. They refer to them as being "inextricably intertwined", and overlapping (Verloop, Van Driel, & Meijer, 2001, p. 446), or even "melded together in complex and indeed inextricable ways to produce multifaceted, holistic accounts of, and actions in, language teaching" (Johnson & Goettsch, 2000, p. 461). In keeping with a holistic approach, I will henceforth use the term *cognition* when referring to this intertwined *beliefs/assumptions/knowledge* concept, but I will continue to cite the authors according to how they use the terms. Woods' belief that knowledge is constructed within society was explored in the second chapter's discussion of subjective theories.

Barcelos (2003) chooses a different method to address the complexity of terms used for these propositions and concepts in cognition research, grouping research studies according to which of the following three approaches they adhere to: *normative*, *metacognitive*, or *contextual*. In the normative approach, beliefs are considered to be discrete, stable entities within the

²⁶ Woods (1996, 2003) questions the boundaries and characteristics of these concepts. His work is detailed later in the current chapter.

individual that can be measured quantitatively and analyzed according to statistical procedures (Barcelos, 2003; Woods, 2003). In cognition research, quantitative studies using a normative approach often rely on surveys, as evidenced by the wide-spread use of Horwitz' 1987 Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory survey (BALLI). Survey variations and their generalized appropriation in later research (e.g., Horwitz, 1985, 1987, 1988, 1999; Kern, 1995; Peacock, 1998, 2001; Yang, 1992) suggest a preference for quantitative methods.²⁷ Furthermore, Barcelos draws attention to the fact that, in such normative approaches, beliefs often carry a negative connotation as they tended to be considered non-scientific. They were therefore often labelled as illusions or misconceptions, and dichotomies such as good or bad and right or wrong were ascribed to them. Good beliefs were thought to lead to successful language teaching, whereas bad ones hindered the learning and teaching process. As was noted earlier, this cause-and-effect notion is consistent with the prevailing product-oriented teaching and learning paradigm of a positivistic approach. Normative research interests are not concerned with determining how beliefs came to be, but with identifying those that are conducive to teaching and, respectively, to learning.

Barcelos refers to the second research approach as metacognitive. While an outside-researcher perspective is still evident in this approach's choice of data collection, the research questions place more emphasis on the development and reflection of what Wenden (1987, 1999) calls participants' *metacognitive knowledge*. Wenden's concept explores how concepts of beliefs (metacognitive knowledge) are related to the development of students' language learning

²⁷ Many other studies relying on survey data have developed their own surveys (e.g., Campbell et al.'s 1993 Beliefs About Language Learning–BLL; Kuntz's 1996 Kuntz-Rifkin Instrument–KRI).

competence, or, to use her terminology, the development of students' *metacognitive strategies*.²⁸

Barcelos' third category, contextual approaches, describes studies that see knowledge as being constructed, wherein knowledge emerges as the result of contesting and assessing beliefs within a sociocultural context. Contextual approaches²⁹ acknowledge this fluid quality of constructedness and shift the focus of inquiry to an analysis of how these beliefs relate to the context of a teacher's professional reality.³⁰ Barcelos further claims that, while contextual studies may adhere to different theoretical frameworks, they share the fact that they employ data collection means (e.g., case studies, narratives, classroom observations, stimulated recall, journals, and interviews) that give teachers a voice. Contextual approaches regard teaching as a complex endeavour, wherein cognitive and affective components underlie behaviour. In particular, studies in recent years contributed to this paradigm shift in teacher cognition research that now focuses on teacher development as a dialogic mediation of everyday knowledge and scientific concepts (e.g., Allwright, 2006; Barcelos, 2003; Barnard & Burns, 2012; Borg, 2012; Denzin & Lincoln, 2013; Johnson, 2009; Klapper, 2006; Ng, 2012; Ryan, 2012; Woods, 2003). This perspective puts teacher experience as the "missing link" into the equation designed to understand classroom interaction, but there is more to it than simply

²⁸ In 1986 and 1987, Wenden conducted semi-structured interviews with 25 ESL students to investigate how they organized their learning. This research has since continued to inform language learning strategies research.

²⁹ Later on, in 2011, Barcelos and Kalaja refer to the sociocultural approach as an "offshoot" of the contextual approach.

³⁰ Wenger (1998) refers to this shaping and negotiation between context and self within a particular momentary social environment as constructing identity and knowledge in *communities of practice*. He identifies his four components of learning as (1) meaning, (2) practice, (3) community, and (4) conceptualizing a theoretical framework for learning within a sociocultural reality. [Appendix C](#) reproduces his graph on the interrelatedness of these components.

adapting a Piagetian concept of assimilation and accommodation.³¹ Not only can teachers' cognition and practices be seen to emerge from social contexts, but teachers also take an active role in shaping this context—as performers and as perpetrators of their socially constructed (and reconstructed) environment. Giroux claims that they function as “transformative intellectuals” (as cited in Johnson, 2009, p. 121).

This shift in the contextualization of beliefs is also reflected in changes that can be observed in mainstream teacher education programs as well as in research themes.³² More and more materials regarding teachers' beliefs are now included in teacher education syllabi, both as research findings concerning those beliefs and as modules promoting such self-awareness of teachers' personal beliefs.³³ An example of the latter is the University of Birmingham's language teacher education program, which lists learning outcomes that clearly place teachers' critical reflection of their own belief systems in the foreground of teacher development:³⁴

After completing all six activity cycles in the module, teachers will

- appreciate the role of belief systems in determining professional practice;
- understand how the processes of teacher learning and professional development are related to personal belief systems;
- be able to articulate and explain their personal beliefs on aspects of language teaching and learning;

³¹ One of Jean Piaget's (1970) key concepts on cognitive growth is *assimilation*. It refers to the fact that experiences are best learned when they match the level of mental development. This is the necessary precondition for the second concept of *accommodation*, which refers to the internalization of experiences into existing knowledge systems.

³² An in-depth introduction to mainstream teacher education programs lies beyond the scope of this study for two reasons. First, although this study's participants were teaching in North America, they had been trained elsewhere, and secondly, modules specifically addressing beliefs about vocabulary acquisition are relatively rare. Therefore, this section simply highlights some of the current debates in teacher education.

³³ See Klapper (2006, pp. 15–42) for recommended readings and reflective practices about beliefs.

³⁴ See also Module 2 of the University of Cambridge's ESOL DELTA teacher training program.

<http://www.cambridgeenglish.org/images/22084-delta-module-two-assessment-specs.pdf>

- be able to articulate and explain their personal beliefs on aspects of becoming a language teacher;
- be able to use a range of techniques to help them critically reflect on their own beliefs and professional practice as part of their continuing professional development, including the planning and enactment of plans within a simple action research framework (DELPHI, Module 1).³⁵

Furthermore, a growing number of professional development reference books for language teachers explicitly investigate language teachers' beliefs. John Klapper's 2006 work, which is based on Kolb's (1984) learning cycle, proposes a model that incorporates teachers' reflections on action as a continuous mediation of past concrete experiences. Reflected observation leads to new insights and then to abstract conceptualizations; active experimentation is then triggered, and this experimentation engenders renewed experiences, thus completing the cycle.

Secondly, the growing body of work in the field of teacher cognition has led to diversification along two lines: (a) a division by disciplines, and (b) a division by research topic (Borg, 2003).

With regard to the division of disciplines, Borg (2006) lists more than 600 publications treating aspects of second or foreign language teacher cognition.³⁶ Of these, more than 200 were published within the past three years alone. How much the scope of research interest has broadened within the field of second language teacher cognition is also quite apparent. We now witness a wide diversity of topics, as evidenced by the following list of research foci in recent studies: Some address beliefs concerning metalinguistic awareness; others examine beliefs related to autonomy, multilingualism, or intercultural competence (e.g., Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012; Griva & Chostelidou, 2012; Yoshiyuki, 2011; Young & Sachdev, 2011); still others

³⁵ See the University of Birmingham's language teacher program, DELPHI (Developing Language Professionals in Higher Education Institutions) for more details. <http://www.delphi.bham.ac.uk/modules/mod1sum.html>

³⁶ This count is based on the language teacher cognition bibliography compiled by Simon Borg, updated April 14, 2014. [Language-Teacher-Cognition-Bibliography-14-APR-14.pdf](http://www.delphi.bham.ac.uk/modules/mod1sum.html)

examine the effect that beliefs may have on self-perception and identity construction (e.g., Farrell, 2011; Trent, 2011, 2012). Researchers have also explored differences between pre-service and in-service instructors (e.g., Borg, 2011; Faez & Valeo, 2012; Gatbonton, 2008); differences between teachers' belief systems and learners' beliefs (e.g., Davis, 2003; Ganjabi, 2011; Zhou, A., Busch, M., & Cumming, 2013); the conflict between beliefs and prevailing applied linguistic theories (e.g., Johnson, 1994; Pasquale, 2011; Raths, 2001); and, finally, the gap between teachers' beliefs and their practices (e.g., research exploring the use of L1 in the L2 classroom by Edstrom, 2006; Macaro, 2001; and Song, 2009). Given the breadth and scope of these studies and having pointed out the importance of vocabulary acquisition in a second language context, it seems surprising that, since Borg's review in 2006, studies focusing on teachers' beliefs about vocabulary acquisition have been relatively sparse. Borg declared that vocabulary teaching had been a neglected field in teacher cognition studies, and a count of studies on teacher cognition with a focus on vocabulary teaching shows that this remains the case today. My literature review discusses these studies in more depth, but I will first present research that addresses issues of a broader relevance to vocabulary teaching:

- the influence of the teachers' own language learning experience on teaching;
- the influence of instruction on pre-service and in-service teachers' cognition; and
- the relationship between teachers' cognition and teachers' practices.

3.4.1 The influence of the teachers' own language learning experience on teaching

Some of the most prominent findings in teacher cognition have identified that teachers' own second language learning experience plays a pivotal role in shaping their classroom actions as teachers (Almaraza, 1996; Bailey et al., 1996; Johnson, 1994). This precept dates back as far as

Lortie's 1975 research; he calculates that by the time teachers enter their pre-service training programs, they themselves have been exposed to more than 13,000 hours of classroom instruction as language learners. Lortie terms this condition *apprenticeship of observation* (1975, p. 61). He describes this observation as an interaction where the student learner anticipates and acts upon the actions of the teacher. However, he also points out that students only have an outside view because they cannot be privy to the pedagogical intentions the teachers hold in their minds. Therefore, "what students learn about teaching, then, is intuitive and imitative rather than explicit and analytical; it is based on individual personalities rather than pedagogical principles"³⁷ (Lortie, 1975, p. 63). He concludes that this imitation becomes generalized across individuals and constitutes a powerful influence which transcends generations (p. 63ff). Teachers come to pre-service teacher training with strong conscious and subconscious preconceptions of what a "good" teacher does in class, as well as what kind of behaviour they as teachers would want to avoid (Golombek, 1998; Woods, 1996). Some of these preconceptions may have originated as Lortie's apprenticeship of observation predicts, but others may be more difficult to trace, for pre-service teachers certainly do not enter their programs equipped with a mental tabula rasa regarding what teaching is about. As social beings who are socialized within a specific sociocultural context, they have conceptions of what a language teacher is and what he/she does; what to expect in a classroom; and what actions, constraints, or supports to anticipate in the educational system they are part of. Not only do these preconceptions encompass organizational and contextual factors such as how the L2 is

³⁷ Educational psychology research findings suggest that "for affect-based attitudes subjects showed more attitude change, when the persuasive appeal employed an affective approach" (Olson & Zanna, 1993, p. 121). Further research in SLA needs to explore if the intuitive nature of belief construction in SLA renders these beliefs too, less susceptible to change by cognitive-based approaches in teacher education, because their acquisition was affect-based in the first place.

positioned and valued within academia, and which resources are provided (or withheld), but they also involve preconceptions regarding colleagues, parents, administrators, and learners (Johnson, 2009). These pre-existing beliefs are considered so powerful that they engendered discussion of a controversial issue regarding how much impact formal, pre-service teacher training could then have on these beliefs.

3.4.2 The influence of instruction on pre-service and in-service teachers' cognition

Some researchers claim that teachers largely retain beliefs they had held prior to their training (Floden & Ferrini-Mundi, 2002; Kagan, 1992; Peacock, 2001). Peacock (2001) investigates the impact that a formal ESL three-year teacher training program had upon 146 pre-service teachers' beliefs about second language learning. He concludes that, despite explicitly instructing the teacher trainees that some aspects of second language learning were desirable, the trainees maintained prior beliefs that their teacher educators had assured them were misconceptions of second language learning, even after three full years of instruction. This finding prompted him to design an "instruction package for correcting trainee beliefs that were detrimental to their own language learning or to their future students' learning" (Peacock, p. 183). Since core courses on second language methodology had not sufficed to change pre-service teachers' beliefs, Peacock believed that a program where these misconceptions were explicitly confronted was needed to overcome these entrenched notions. His instruction package emphasizes this "wrongness" and the need to alter such beliefs. He proposes five stages to address this: (1) pointing out how trainees beliefs differed from those of experienced teachers; (2) showing trainees how their BALLI survey results differed from those of experienced teachers; (3) assigning reading tasks of relevant research publications related to the

misconceived beliefs; (4) setting up small group discussions that focused on approaches where true beliefs of experienced teacher beliefs differed from those who were less experienced; and (5) watching videos where experienced teachers discussed and then applied the “correct” approach.

In contrast to Peacock’s assumption that a change in beliefs could be achieved only with a specialized training program, Gloria Almaraza’s (1996) qualitative longitudinal, nine-month study of four student teachers at the University of London did note a change in beliefs based on formal instruction alone. She admits that teachers’ *apprenticeship of observation* initially influenced teachers’ perception of “good” teaching practices, but she also stresses that the formal instruction within the teacher education program informed teachers’ choice of methods in their internship classroom practices. However, she also cautions that there is no way to know whether these pre-service teachers shed these acquired practices once their training program is completed. Almaraza also points out that although the program was identical for all four pre-service teachers she investigated, the ways they implemented these acquired teaching techniques differed. According to her, the variations in change between different teachers seem to be rooted in their individual prior BAK system. Cabaroğlu and Roberts (2000) look at this process from a slightly different angle. They also attest to individually derived variations, but they see this process of cognitive development less as a change of beliefs and more as an accommodation and restructuring within the prior belief system:

The process of professional development is one in which new information and new experiences lead student teachers to add to, reflect upon and restructure their ideas in a progressive, complex and non-linear way, leading towards clearer organisation of their personal theories into thematically distinct clusters of ideas. It is therefore

inappropriate to conceptualize student teacher cognitive development in terms of a simple process of aggregation of new ideas. (2000, p. 241)

Kallenbach's³⁸ 1996 research reflects a different perspective. Whereas Cabaroğlu and Roberts saw a "clearer organization" as a result of this accommodation process, Kallenbach sees this construction as the process of emerging *subjective theories*, which can, in turn, be contradictory, fluid, vague, and incoherent. They are often based on events and personal experience and, at the same time, they seem to be resilient to change. Furthermore, they need to be verbalized in order to be developed.

Subjektive Theorien über Fremdsprachenlernen sind komplexe Wissensstrukturen, die der/die einzelne aus der persönlichen Erfahrung im Umgang mit Fremdsprachen in und außerhalb der Schule aufbaut. Sie stellen subjektiv wahrgenommene und relevante Aspekte des Fremdsprachenlernens in einen individuellen Sinnzusammenhang.... Durch die mit der Verbalisierung einhergehende Bewußtmachung haben subjektive Theorien das Potential in nachfolgende fremdsprachliche Lern- und Anwendungsbereiche hineinzuwirken. Subjektive Theorien entstehen als Theorien, indem sie expliziert werden. (1996, p. 49)

Finally, other researchers draw attention to the fact that teachers may have learned more about beliefs in teacher training and acquired the concepts to reflect on their beliefs, but that this does not necessarily lead to any change in their beliefs or to a change in practice (Phipps, 2007; Richards, Ho, & Giblin, 1996). Thus we continue on to the next group of studies: those concerned with the relation between teacher cognition and teacher practices.

³⁸ Kallenbach's research with German students learning a foreign language explores the effects of *subjective theories* on language learning. Though her participants were not teachers, much of her reasoning is readily transferable to teachers' knowledge construction. This study was delineated in Chapter 2 as one of the underlying theoretical paradigms of this research. To date, no studies in the North American context have taken a similar approach to researching teacher cognition.

3.4.3 The relationship between teacher cognition and teacher practices

Central to these studies is the issue of how teachers reflect upon both classroom practice and the theoretical concepts they encounter in their professional development. One of Borg's recent studies uses this reflection on beliefs as a starting point for change. The findings of his qualitative study of the University of Cambridge's teacher training program in 2011 suggest that teacher education does impact beliefs based on reflection. Participants of this study were six in-service teachers who participated in an eight-week professional development program (DELTA).³⁹ Unlike Peacock's instruction package that specifically addresses misconceptions, the DELTA program offers explicit opportunities to reflect on beliefs and their impact on classroom practices. The program's objective is not to promote "a deep and radical reversal in beliefs"; rather, it develops awareness that thus strengthens and extends the teachers' belief systems (Borg, 2011, p. 378). Borg's findings support the arguments of other researchers who claim that an increased level of awareness is the necessary condition for conceptual change that then affects class practices (Almaraza, 1996; Freeman, 1993; Richards, Ho, & Giblin, 1996). However, not enough longitudinal studies have yet been done to allow us to trace these changes and determine whether such conceptual changes alter classroom practices over the long term. Thus, Almaraza (1996) cautions that we cannot really know whether change actually occurred. Teachers may only temporarily adjust their classroom practices as part of classroom observations in the context of teaching training to fulfil the expectations of their educators and to abide by the stipulations of their program.

³⁹ Diploma in English language teaching to adults.

Apart from consciously rejecting classroom practices that contradict their deeply felt beliefs following teacher training, there may be other reasons why teachers' cognition sometimes does not align with their practices. Phipps and Borg (2009) described this divergence as *tensions between teaching beliefs and practices*. Their qualitative study of three experienced university ESL instructors examines the relationship between the beliefs these individuals held about teaching grammar and compares them to their classroom practices. It highlights differences as tensions and identifies the underlying reasons behind them as an opportunity for reflection because they "provide a potentially powerful and positive source of teacher learning" (Phipps & Borg, 2009, p. 388). They also imply that teachers are well aware of these tensions and attribute them to contextual constraints such as syllabus design, time constraints, or learner expectations (Burns 2010; Farrell & Lim, 2005). Sometimes, they became aware of the reasons for a mismatch between beliefs and practices only when reflecting on their actions in post-observation sessions (Phipps & Borg, 2009).

Many of the above studies use qualitative data collection methods, but in one of his most recent publications, Simon Borg (2013) presents the findings of a quantitative study based on surveys carried out over a period of six years with 1,700 international participants. It explores how teachers relate to research in their field. One of his findings suggests that the vast majority of teachers⁴⁰ believe that research engagement⁴¹ leads to more effective teaching in class.

This brief overview of predominant issues in teacher cognition research is based, to a large extent, on studies of reading and grammar instruction. I go on now to examine studies of teacher cognition about vocabulary.

⁴⁰ In one subsection, 100 teachers (72%) responded in favour of more engagement (Borg, 2013, p. 127).

⁴¹ Engagement in this sense means both doing research and reading published research.

3.5 Research on teachers' beliefs about vocabulary

As I noted previously, publications and studies with a focus on vocabulary teaching are surprisingly sparse, even in recent years. Since Borg suggested the need for more research addressing teachers' beliefs regarding vocabulary acquisition in 2006, his more recent bibliography (2014) refers to only one more publication in this field. Some of the few international studies I reference for this study are based on doctoral research rather than published work.

The majority of these studies seek to identify a teacher belief and knowledge system and the learning strategies that are most conducive to learners' successful vocabulary acquisition. By definition, then, they adhere to the positivist assumption that there *is* such a thing as "best practices." In 2011, Xuesong Gao and Qing Ma compared the vocabulary teaching and learning beliefs held by pre-service and in-service teachers in Hong Kong with those held by pre-service and in-service teachers from mainland China. They examined whether pre-service and in-service propositions differed and whether the mainland China teachers' propositions diverged from those of the Hong Kong-based teachers, as well as how those differences (or similarities) could be explained. To this end, they conducted a survey with 250 in-service and pre-service ESL teachers. Their 17-question, Likert scale questionnaire contained two open-ended questions as well as an adaptation of Gu's 2005 vocabulary learning questionnaire for learners. Based on their coding of the results, they conducted semi-structured interviews with 15 participants. Their findings suggest that the participants' beliefs were mediated by their individual educational experiences and contextual conditions, thus supporting the position of researchers who regard beliefs as dynamic, shifting, and context-situated (Barcelos, 2003;

Johnson, 2009; Kalaja, 1995).⁴² Gao and Ma further assume that some available vocabulary learning strategies work better than others. They deduce that the “dictation” activities of Hong Kong and the “memorization” strategies commonly used on the Chinese mainland need to be overcome, and that efforts should be made to enhance and diversify knowledge about vocabulary learning strategies. I agree with the latter, but I strongly oppose the notion that there is one way of doing it right and that other ways need to be overcome.⁴³ In particular, I concur with Kumaravadivelu’s position regarding the need for *particularity*: “any postmethod pedagogy must be sensitive to a particular group of teachers teaching a particular group of learners pursuing a particular set of goals within a particular institutional context embedded in a particular sociocultural milieu” (2001, p. 538). Kumaravadivelu (2006) draws our attention to the fact that a centrally produced pedagogy may not fit well with the sociocultural realities of the country where the target language is taught.⁴⁴ I thus conclude that while Gao and Ma’s (2011) findings are intriguing in that they draw a connection between past experiences and present actions, their overall implications are debatable.

Weimin Zhang’s 2008 doctoral research draws a similar conclusion. Zhang does not question the existence of a research-based right way to teach either. His study of the beliefs and knowledge of seven experienced Chinese university teachers teaching vocabulary in reading

⁴² Gao and Ma presented the preliminary findings of their questionnaire to their interview participants and asked them about their general impressions. They then used these responses to identify their analysis categories and to explain how teachers had reached those propositions. I find this procedure problematic because the researchers’ intention to elicit narratives of past learning experiences is too directive. I prefer a procedure where narratives emerge out of teacher-initiated reflection and are not generated based on researcher prompting. This view is explained in more detail in my arguments for my methodological choices in Chapter 4.

⁴³ My objection does not mean that I personally favour memorization techniques, but that there may be a particular time, place, and/or context where these are called for.

⁴⁴ He refers to ideological barriers and a process of marginalization that have been part of English language education where standards of pedagogy were almost always oriented around Western conceptualizations of knowledge (see Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 218ff and Pennycook, 1998). Also, there is meanwhile a growing body of reports from teachers working abroad that address how these cultural differences impact teachers’ beliefs and practices.

and translation courses compares how these instructors, divided into a group of “excellent” and “very good” teachers, integrate research findings on vocabulary acquisition and pedagogy into their practices. He concludes that these teachers’ understanding of what to teach about a word (subject matter knowledge) was consistent with Decarrico (2001) and Nation’s (1990, 2001, and 2005b) principal research findings. He also notes that these teachers’ belief systems about how to learn and teach vocabulary were well established, and that they “not only hold the general principles of *effective* [emphasis added] EFL teaching (e.g., being interactive and having a good rapport with students) but also accept the principles of communicative language teaching” (Zhang, 2008, p. 225). In this respect, Zhang assumes not only that there is indeed a body of pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) that is considered the right strategy to teach vocabulary, but also that the degree to which it is mastered separates “good teachers” from “excellent” ones. In his opinion, the choice of strategy should be research driven, and he concludes that a lack of relevant theoretical contemplation explains this divide between successful and less successful teachers: “Chinese EFL university teachers ... have not realized the importance of research and are lacking in motivation to do research except that they do it mainly for professional promotions” (2008, p. 228). His arguments echo Nation’s (2001) contention that there is a wrong way to teach vocabulary. (Nation refers to them as “misconceptions.”) Reprimanding teachers and course designers, Nation did indeed claim that those “who follow these [misconceived] principles should read the relevant research and reconsider their position” (2001, p. 384). Nation follows up on this critique by providing a comprehensive table of “*well justified principles*” that excellent teachers ostensibly adhere to:

Content and sequencing

- Use frequency and range of occurrence as ways of deciding what vocabulary to learn and the order in which to learn it.
- Give adequate training in essential vocabulary learning strategies.
- Give attention to each vocabulary item according to the learning burden of that item.
- Provide opportunities to learn the various aspects of what is involved in knowing a word.
- Avoid interference by presenting vocabulary in normal use rather than in groupings of synonyms, opposites, free associates, or lexical sets.
- Deal with high-frequency vocabulary by focusing on the words themselves, and deal with low-frequency vocabulary by focusing on the control of strategies.

Format and presentation

- Make sure that high-frequency target vocabulary occurs in all the four strands of meaning-focused input, language-focused learning, meaning-focused output, and fluency development.
- Provide opportunity for spaced, repeated, generative retrieval of words to ensure cumulative growth.
- Use depth-of-processing activities.

Monitoring and assessment

- Test learners to see what vocabulary they need to focus on.
- Use monitoring and assessment to keep learners motivated.
- Encourage and help learners to reflect on their learning (p. 385).

On the face of it, there seems to be little reason to feel uneasy about Nation's compilation of principles. Why should we not feel comfortable knowing how to do the right thing? Why is the divide into "good" teachers and "excellent" teachers so problematic? To address these concerns, we can approach the issue from three angles.

First, the very fact that these principles attempt to be all-inclusive renders them too generic.

Yes, practice will most likely yield higher retention rates. But some researchers argue that what this practice entails and what it takes to learn words successfully is—in accord with the recent complex systems approach in applied linguistics—highly individualized; indeed, it might even be governed largely by chance (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008). Human language changes in dynamic and unpredictable ways and seemingly insignificant changes occurring upon first-time usage in another context may well take on associations and meanings these words could not have had before; further, they may not be the same for another speaker in a very similar situation. These dynamics of change have not often been accounted for in the vocabulary pedagogy of the past, which limited the concept of vocabulary acquisition to an appropriation of stable units. This failure to recognize change has restrained words' wealth, fluidity, complexity, and other dynamic qualities by limiting vocabulary learning to rote memorization tasks of core L1 to L2 translations.

Secondly, the implementation of Nation's principles may be ineffective because they depend on received knowledge and do not foster the reflection and development of student teachers' own construction of knowledge, one of the paradigms of postmethod pedagogy (Freeman, 1991).

Kumaravadivelu argues that "a method-based package put together by researchers, containing a generous menu of theories of language, language learning, and language teaching" served by

the teacher educator “on a platter, with easily digestible bits and pieces of discrete items of knowledge leave[s] very little food for critical thought” (2006, pp. 216–217).

Finally, seen from a sociocultural perspective, Nation does not acknowledge that these principles were constructed within a Western research framework and therefore project Western value systems regarding knowledge. They fail to recognize that classroom procedures (or *microstrategies*, as Kumaravadivelu calls them) are designed, “conditioned, and constrained by the national, regional, or local language policy and planning, curricular objectives, institutional resources ... that shape the learning and teaching enterprise in a given context”

(Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 209). Kumaravadivelu and other researchers working within a sociocultural theoretical framework caution that the paradigms of teacher education must take into account the social context of the educational setting to avoid casting an ideological shadow over language teaching (Freeman, 2004; Johnson, 2009; Kumaravadivelu, 1999b, Skehan, 1998). Principles that may resonate with learners in one context may not be helpful in a different educational setting. For example, suggesting how to spell a word according to how it sounds will not be helpful for a learner whose L1 is partly based on pictorial characters. The search for the right method that suits every learner in every situation is now mostly believed to be an impossible quest. Educational theorists like Kumaravadivelu (2003) and Littlewood (1999, 2010, and 2014) refer to this condition as the postmethod stage⁴⁵ in language pedagogy.

In sum, then, this section addressed the problems generated by fuzzy conceptualizations of beliefs, assumptions, and knowledge; using the example of the Audio-lingual method, I explained how propositions were intertwined notions that play out across theoretical

⁴⁵ This aspect will be discussed in more detail in my argument for a *subjective perspective* approach to depict teachers’ cognition of vocabulary learning and pedagogy later in this chapter.

assumptions and are then set up as organizational patterns and carried into effect as classroom procedures. I also portrayed these propositions as notions that are mediated by lived experiences and argued for the use of Woods' BAK system as a principal concept because it is grounded in a poststructural constructivism paradigm that views these elements of cognition variously as being situated on a spectrum, negotiated within social interaction, and subject to change. I then introduced Barcelo's categorizations of *normative*, *metacognitive*, and *contextual* approaches to distinguish between studies of a product-oriented perspective of vocabulary acquisition versus a process-oriented one. I also delineated the growing field of teacher cognition research. Even though studies that focus specifically on vocabulary are sparse, others address issues that are more broadly relevant to vocabulary: (1) the apprenticeship of observation, (2) the influence of teacher education, and (3) the relationship between teacher cognition and teacher practice. Finally, I discussed teacher cognition studies that focus on vocabulary learning and pedagogy, identifying these as normative studies that aim to establish measures where teachers are requested to abide by the rules of best practices. I critiqued the very notion that there is such a thing as a "right way". In this, I drew on Kumaravadivelu's (2001, 2006) reasoning that the *particularity* of individuals, content, and context must be respected. I therefore argued for a research approach that acknowledges the constructedness of vocabulary teaching paradigms by individuals.

The following section examines vocabulary learning and teaching which, owing to its particular relevance to my research on teacher cognition and practices, serves as a key point of reference for my study.

3.6 What to know about vocabulary learning and teaching

This brief overview of subject matter vocabulary and key concepts in vocabulary pedagogy is included in the literature review because such a plethora of studies addressing vocabulary learning and teaching has emerged in recent years (e.g., Aitchison, 2003; Baddeley, 2007; Folse, 2004; Horst & Cobb, 2006; Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001; McCarthy, 1990; Nation, 1990, 2001, 2008; Schmidt, 2001; Schmitt, 2000, 2008; Singleton, 1999), some of which might very well be part of the knowledge base teachers encounter in their professional development and thus may, in turn, inform their subjective perspective construction. The participants of my study may have been part of this discourse about vocabulary in their day-to-day lives as both learners and speakers, as learners in teacher education, and as teachers of vocabulary, thus a brief historical overview of prevalent issues in this field has some utility here. I also provide an account of vocabulary pedagogy to demonstrate that language itself is constantly in flux. Furthermore, I delineate various theories of processing and retention of vocabulary as key concepts to show how theories on how we learn and retain new words in another language have changed.

Research in vocabulary acquisition, formerly a neglected area in SLA, has gained momentum in recent decades (Carter & McCarthy, 1988; Huckin & Coady, 1999; Meara, 1982; Nation, 1990, 2001, 2011; Schmitt, 2000, 2008; Schmitt & McCarthy, 1997). The online bibliography of vocabulary studies that Nation produced in the year 2000 reached close to 2,000 entries.⁴⁶ As Zimmermann (1997) and Schmitt (2000) note, most SLA researchers had previously prioritized grammar acquisition as the prime object of research. This increased interest in vocabulary

⁴⁶ <http://www.victoria.ac.nz/lals/resources/vocrefs/bibliography>

learning indicates how closely vocabulary acquisition theories are related to the governing language and to the learning theories and paradigms of their time. Shifts in these paradigms have almost always led to changes in the assumptions and beliefs we hold about vocabulary learning and then to changes in teaching methodologies.

3.6.1 Historic perspectives on vocabulary learning and teaching paradigms

A historic perspective contributes to our understanding of how vocabulary pedagogy paradigms have been informed by different learning theories. The following brief overview of some key concepts that guided the discourse on vocabulary knowledge draws on Schmitt's (2000), Zimmerman's (1997), and Larsen- Freeman and Anderson's (2011) comprehensive overviews of the history of the different approaches to vocabulary acquisition.

Schmitt claims that “most approaches did not really know how to handle vocabulary; with most relying on bilingual word lists or hoping it would just be absorbed naturally” (2000, p. 15). The 18th century *Grammar Translation* approach used selected vocabulary merely to provide input. Vocabulary was instrumentalized to illustrate and analyze grammar rules and to provide the foundation for subsequent translation practice. Therefore, bilingual word lists were compiled for memorization. Learning the language was viewed as a mental exercise and not intended for communication, so vocabulary proficiency was required primarily to develop reading and writing skills. The Direct Method of the 19th century relied on oral language, hoping L2 acquisition would imitate the pattern of L1 acquisition and that language would be absorbed through extensive exposure (Schmitt, 2000). This method is still used in Berlitz language schools, which typically introduce simple vocabulary with realia, charts, and pictures.

The Audio-lingual approach, influenced by learning principles from structural linguistics and Skinners' behavioural psychology, targeted speech patterns and drills for immediate application. Again, it was assumed that the limited vocabulary would "fill up" when speakers were exposed to further input. According to this model, vocabulary acquisition was regarded as a process of habit formation, and grammatical structures within sentence patterns were considered more important than vocabulary. The practice of acquiring too much vocabulary at an early stage was even believed to hinder the learning process by luring students into a false sense of security (Zimmerman, 1997). Schmitt concludes that the Situational Approach and the Communicative Competence task-based acquisition unfortunately assumed that L2 vocabulary acquisition "would take care of itself" (Schmitt, 2000, p. 14). Attention was focused on the appropriate use of language within a communicative situation, and mastery of vocabulary was thought to be the result of considerable exposure to the language.

Present day vocabulary acquisition is oriented according to the guidelines established by the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEFRL), and most new German textbooks reference their curriculum design⁴⁷ on those recommendations. Vocabulary learning is not seen in isolation from other skills but as part of the overall objective to develop plurilingual competence.⁴⁸ However, the notion that exposure to language leads to acquisition still exerts significant influence today and is by no means historical past. For example, Laufer's 2006 research states that the "default hypothesis" in vocabulary learning—absorbing through

⁴⁷ This is also the case for the *Berliner Platz NEU* textbook that my participants used.

⁴⁸ The CEFRL sees the plurilingual approach as one that "emphasizes the fact that as an individual person's experience of language in its cultural contexts expands, from the language of the home to that of society at large and then to the languages of other peoples ..., he or she does not keep these languages and cultures in strictly separated mental compartments, but rather builds up a communicative competence to which all knowledge and experience of language contributes and in which languages interrelate and interact" (p. 13). Retrieved 20 October 2014 from http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/source/framework_en.pdf

exposure—remains the predominant practice. Her study of the effectiveness of FonFs activities indicates that explicit practice elicits significantly higher retention rates when compared to exposure to input. She argues that some vocabulary learning may occur partially from exposure to input, but that, with regard to the target corpora size, this cannot suffice, and additional practice is necessary in “any learning context that cannot recreate the input conditions of first language acquisition” (Laufer, 2006, p. 162). At the core of this controversy is the question regarding which form of instruction will lead to a better SLVA⁴⁹—FonF or FonFs (Coady & Huckin, 1997; Schmitt & McCarthy, 1997).

Schmitt recommends the inclusion of both implicit and explicit engagement when he propagates a vocabulary pedagogy based on increased engagement (Schmitt, 2008).⁵⁰ This engagement builds on the key elements of spacing, repetition, attention, need, motivation, and time, and all of these aspects have been the focus of vocabulary related research. Issues of spacing and repetition as they relate to frequency patterns, distributed practices, and cyclical learning have also been extensively researched (Balota et al., 2007; Carpenter & DeLosch, 2005; Karpicke & Roediger, 2007a; Landauer & Bjork, 1978; Pimsleur, 1967; Schuetze & Weimer-Stuckmann, 2010, 2011). With respect to ways to enhance retention, Schmidt (1994, 1995) contends that drawing attention to a linguistic feature will contribute to students’ ability to learn it. Building upon this line of inquiry, other researchers (e.g., Coady & Huckins, 1997;

⁴⁹ This question has been the centre of controversy for decades. In 1988, Long coined the phrase *Focus on Form* (FonF) and used it to describe instruction that addresses a troublesome linguistic phenomenon that had arisen in otherwise meaningful communication; this conceptualization implies that (1) there is a problem at hand; (2) it has arisen incidentally; (3) teachers choose to draw attention to it; and (4) this instruction remains a brief interlude of the overall communicative interaction. Long contrasts this to decontextualized, teacher-centred instruction at the metalinguistic level of “talking about language” that he refers to as a Focus on Forms (FonFs). The slightly different usage of these terms by other researchers in a plethora of contexts and interpretations led to generalized confusion and rendered them difficult to communicate with/about (Williams, 2010). For more on these concepts, see Williams (2010) and Ellis (2012).

⁵⁰ I agree with Schmitt’s (2000) preference for the term *engagement* rather than *attention*, because engagement emphasizes the multiple ways learners can mediate between self, the task, and sociocultural context.

Laufer & Rozovski-Roitblat, 2011; Rott, Williams, & Cameron, 2002; Schmitt & McCarthy, 1997) explore whether techniques such as highlighting or glossing in structured input can aid in identifying and learning new words. They believe these techniques can enhance noticing by modifying the input in ways that draw attention to the target words. Another way of helping to retain and access words is by contextualizing the input. Contextualization has become a buzz word in SLVA and I therefore explicate its various aspects by drawing on Nation and Webb's (2011) taxonomy of different contextualization categories for the purpose of lexical engagement⁵¹. I expand this taxonomy to include gestures as verbal context/non-verbal cues. This is shown in my diagram below.⁵²

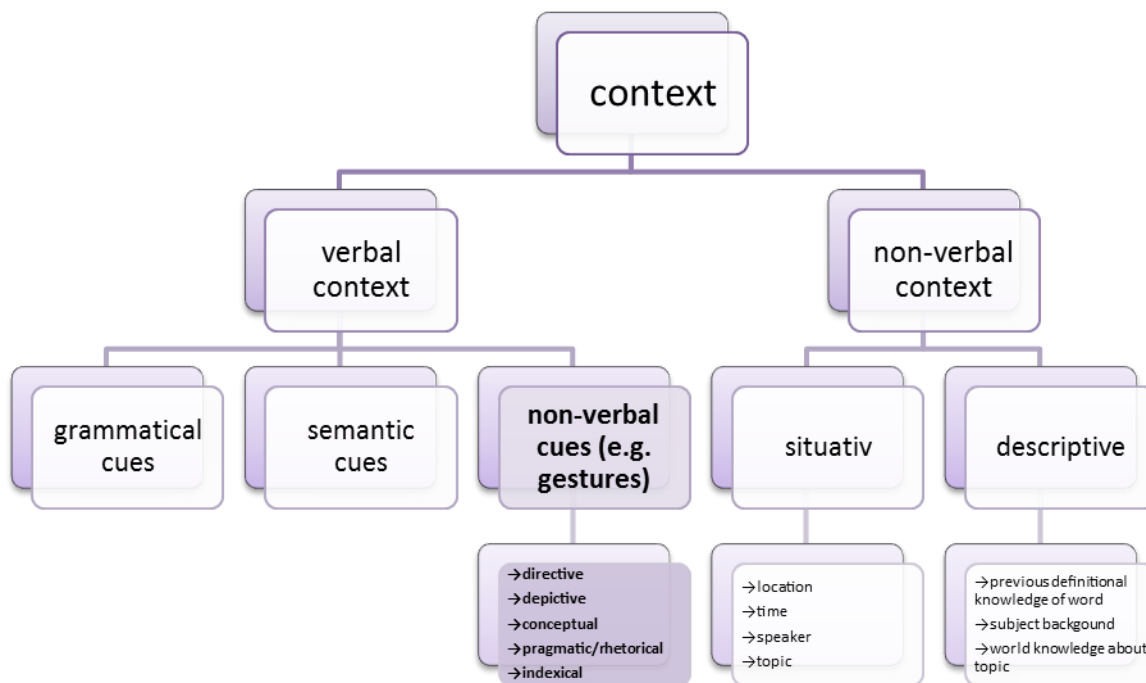


Figure 2 Contextualization in the foreign language class

⁵¹ Nation and Webb's graph is based on Engelbart and Theuerkauf's (1999) categories.

⁵² The aspects I have added are bolded in the graph. I include gestures as verbal context because they can substitute a lexical form. See Streeck's taxonomy of gestures in the glossary.

(based on P. Nation and S. Webb, 2011, p. 88)

According to Nation and Webb context can be either verbal or non-verbal. For example, contextualizing meaning on a verbal level allows learners to use grammatical cues (e.g., typical word endings signaling gender) or semantic cues (e.g., affixes signaling a negative) to relate word form and meaning. Non-verbal context can refer to the linguistic environment in which an interaction takes place (e.g., a study-abroad context). Furthermore, learners can use knowledge of the subject background or their world knowledge to make sense of the input. They not only access word meaning by making connections to previous knowledge, they also process lexical forms across different modes to better retain words⁵³. This notion is in line with Schmidt's concept of depth of processing hypothesis (Schmidt, 2003), which claims that vocabulary stimuli presented in more than one mode are retained more easily because they require more elaborate thought or manipulation. With regard to this conceptualization of context, research poses a controversial distinction between modified versus non-modified input (sometimes referred to as *authentic input*⁵⁴). Finally, Doughty (2003) named *noticing*, *processing*, and *encoding* as the three fundamentals of vocabulary learning.

The next related debate is concerned with models of how vocabulary is represented in our mental lexicon. Research addresses how we retain, access, and reproduce words. Studies subsequently explored lexical coding, storage and retrieval. Models of how words were

⁵³ Often instructors' use of these of contextualization means overlap. For example, they may make meaning by pointing out the parts of a compound noun and use a gesture to separate the parts and by relating to non-verbal context at the same time.

⁵⁴ In this context, *authentic* is defined by language forms that L1 speakers would produce in a similar communicative interaction and in target language media.

represented and processed were developed.⁵⁵ These models of the mental lexicon have been related to two strongly debated theoretical schools of research: the functional approach, where retention differences are viewed as differences in the depth of processing (Craik & Lockhardt, 1972), versus the structuralist approach, wherein mental procedures are thought of as processing by different components (e.g., multi-store models; see Atkinson & Shiffrin, 1968; Baddeley & Hitch, 1974).⁵⁶ These models promote our ability to understand not only how we process vocabulary, but also how we retrieve and retain it. The concept of language acquisition as a procedure reinforces what memory research has identified as procedural processes of encoding, retention, and retrieval (Baddeley, 1986; Kandel, 2006). Furthermore, our long-term memory is not simply an accumulation of everything we have been exposed to—we forget. Fighting the forgetting curve,⁵⁷ we aim to better understand retention procedures (Aitchison, 2003). Two principal paradigms are commonly referenced in discussions of forgetting: Do we forget because we cannot access the information, or do we forget because the information is lost? These distinct paradigms inform researchers’ and teachers’ choice of instructional theoretical frameworks and thus lead to the implementation of the “best practices” commonly correlated with them.

⁵⁵ See Jane Aitchison (2003) for a comprehensive overview of models’ merits and shortcomings.

⁵⁶ This distinction between short- and long-term memory was further reinforced by neurophysiological theories that identified structural differences between short-term and long-term memory (Başar, 2004). Kandel (2006) describes short-term memory as a functional exchange of neurotransmitters and long-term memory as an anatomical change involving the synthesis of protein structures as well as the growth of new synaptic connections.

⁵⁷ I use this term referring to Ebbinghaus’ conceptualization of forgetting that resembles a curve, with “*time*” and “*items no longer remembered*” as its variables (Ebbinghaus, 1913, p. 722). Though initially set up to research retention and not SLVA, Ebbinghaus’ findings are often cited in works on memory and spaced learning (Baddeley, 1990; Bahrick et al., 1993; Karpicke & Roediger, 2007a; Landauer & Bjork, 1978; Pimsleur, 1967; Schmitt, 2000). Spaced learning devices (e.g., flash card systems and online trainers) are designed based on his findings.

Different aspects of word knowledge have also been researched. Nation compiled an oft-cited list of various aspects related to “what it means to know a word” (1990).⁵⁸ These aspects of meaning, written form, spoken form, grammatical behaviour, collocations, register, associations, and frequency were expanded by Read’s distinction between depth of knowledge and breadth of knowledge (2004). Read claims that depth of knowledge also reflects social and cultural background. Taking this a step further and applying a sociocultural perspective, we can argue that the appropriation of these word aspects is considered to be an ongoing, highly individual process that can operate either parallel to, or in sequence with, varying degrees of proficiency at any given time—a procedural continuum.

From the perspective of *language as social practice*, Johnson concludes that “language is viewed not as a finite set of rules but as a semiotic system, from which users make certain choices depending on the particular activities and particular contexts in which they are participating” (2009, p. 45). Applying a social constructivist perspective to words takes Nation’s taxonomy a step further and acknowledges that, first and foremost, word knowledge is constructed as a reflection and an expression of “deeply embedded concepts that denote ways of feeling, seeing, and being in the world” (Johnson, 2009, p. 46). Next, because the appropriation of all word aspects must be considered an ongoing, highly individualized process and as a procedural continuum, this gives words—their use, form, and meaning—a past, present, and future. Therefore, seen through the lens of a social constructivist perspective where knowledge is constructed and reconstructed in mediation with self, others, and the environment, our traditional concept of the L2 target corpora as a body of knowledge is challenged, and the

⁵⁸ See [Appendix D](#) for Nation’s lists: *What it means to know a word* and *Activities for vocabulary learning*.

traditional conceptualization of subject matter vocabulary learning as the appropriation of words as fixed entities in a linear fashion is contested. As part of this socio-historical context, words are continuously reconstructed as entities that are subject to change, a perspective that has broad implications for vocabulary teaching. When traditional learning named word features such as form, meaning, pronunciation, grammatical attributes, register, or collocation, it was also taken for granted that, within this traditional paradigm, there were fitting activities that would teach us to acquire knowledge of these subcategories of “what-it-meant-to-know-a-word” in an accumulative and mostly linear learning process. For example, it was assumed that I, as a beginner, would acquire the basic meaning of a word first, and the more proficient I became, the more I would become attuned to its variants (Schmitt, 2000, p. 117).

From a social constructivist perspective, though, this notion of stable entities which are accumulated in a progressive, linear fashion replicated by all learners can no longer be upheld. For example, it is conceivable that individual learners acquire a very specific meaning of a word (e.g. a technical term such as *bit*) prior to learning its broader common use. Furthermore, representations of words shift constantly over time and space as the result of interrelated factors. The history of language (Stedje, 2007) provides ample evidence of historical changes in meaning, changes in oral and written representation, and changes in pragmatics. For example, we can track the historical details of a meaning shift, pragmatics, and oral/written representation from the medieval *vrouwe*⁵⁹ to today's *Frau* (Stedje, 2007, p. 38). We know that words are not frozen in time, but astonishingly few L2 textbook entries explore these changes in word meaning and pragmatics at any length. With reference to speakers' knowledge of

⁵⁹ In Middle High German, *vrouwe* referred to the lady of the realm or was used to refer to the Virgin Mary. In present day German, *Frau* either refers to a married woman or is used routinely as part of formal address.

appropriateness and temporal variation, Schmitt points out that “language is a living thing ever in flux; words are constantly falling out of use, while others are being created to take their place” (2000, p. 31).

In addition to temporal variations, our knowledge of what constitutes a word is affected by both internal and external factors. Internal factors relate to us as individual learners: our progression, the emphasis we place on certain aspects of word knowledge, the context in which we learn and in which we intend to use a word, as well as our motivation to study. External factors such as how a particular word is used and constructed in a given time and in a given context affect what the learner is requested to know. A prime example of this is research on the use of formal and informal address in German. As an example of internal factors we witness how speakers have used this knowledge to purposefully position themselves within a social context. This is evidenced, for example, in the political stance of solidarity with the 1968 student revolt some German professors in the 1970s took when encouraging their students to use an informal form of address when addressing them. Braun et al. (1986) provide similar examples of this phenomenon. As an example of external factors, we can see how the uncalled-for use of an informal term of address is considered to be either rude or inappropriate or as indicating a lack of linguistic skills. This interaction between internal and external factors is reciprocal. As much as the outside world influences and determines my choice of words, I—by appropriating them, making them my own, internalizing them, and returning them in a transformed and adapted version—have the capacity to change them and, on some level, alter the world. This dialogic acculturation is an ongoing process of mediation.

One of the most fascinating examples of this phenomenon on how words emerge within and by this acculturation is the changing conceptualization of the word meaning *Kanake*. Initially a term most likely derived from the Polynesian word for human, it was used as an insult when referring to the visible minority of Turkish immigrants in Germany. It was then appropriated by young, second-generation Turkish immigrants as an expression of ethnic pride in their mixed national identity. This example demonstrates how the workings of multiple components can be identified in the shift of word meaning. We see the self-positioning of individuals and as members of a group, and the historically grounded other-positioning within the changing communities of practice and sociocultural context. This dialogic mediation moved the term *Kanake* from a form of praise, to a form of insult, to an expression of pride in multinational identity construction.⁶⁰ So, what does *Kanake* mean now? It depends on who you ask, –where, and –when.

This extended conception of Nation’s aspects of word knowledge is now generally referred to as *transcultural dimensions of word knowledge* (Scarino, 2010; DeCosta, 2011). Scarino treats it as an intercultural component “engaging learners in developing the capability to exchange meaning in communication ... in a way that foregrounds their positioning in the language and culture they are learning” (2010, p. 325). So, if we must acknowledge that words themselves are not stable entities, then what do we make of the learning process itself? Does it follow patterns? Is it a linear accumulative process, or is it random? Which mechanisms are used in knowledge construction? Again, our conceptualization of vocabulary teaching is inextricably

⁶⁰ This is by no means an extensive analysis of this term. Also see a literary reappraisal of this process in Feridun Zaimoğlu’s 2004 work. Work on *Kanaksprak* also shows that the people considered to “own” this code are by no means Turks only, but other immigrants, mostly of southern origin.

linked to our concept of language itself and of language learning theories. The following section introduces some of the prevalent questions discussed in vocabulary pedagogy.

3.6.2 How do we learn and teach vocabulary?

Many studies of “what words are all about” implicitly assume that the results would then be relevant for their teaching. For the sake of brevity, the level of detail with which I describe these pedagogical issues is determined by how much each one impacts my teacher cognition research.⁶¹ The key themes I address are organized as questions:

1. How many words do L2 learners need to know?
2. Are some words easier to learn than others?
3. Which aspects of a word should learners acquire and how should they go about learning them?
4. Is explicit instruction preferable to implicit exposure?
5. What role does memory play in the process?
6. Can learning be improved by employing learning strategies? If so, which strategies are most effective?

These are the topics about which teachers develop *subjective perspectives*.

How many words do L2 learners need to know?

The corpora size of the target language is a daunting challenge for every L2 learner. A count of German words based on the corpora⁶² of dictionary entries reached approximately 600,000

⁶¹ For example, I do not elaborate on concordance research that expands on grammatical/syntactic collocations, semantic collocations, and levels of collocational complexity (see Schmitt, 2000, pp. 68–95, for more on this). However, I do point out how frequency issues informed the compilation of the learner corpora. *How-many-words-should-I-teach-and-which-ones?* is a concern many of my teacher informants feel strongly about.

⁶² This refers to words without their inflections (lexemes) and does not include technical terms. The most recent count estimated 5.3 million German words when technical terms were included (Klein et al., 2013).

(Stedje, 2007). But how many words are needed to provide reasonable, initial access to a wide variety of linguistic purposes? Depending on the communicative goal and the context, the required vocabulary size will vary. Tschirner (2006, 2008) concludes that 2,000 German words cover 90% of words encountered in a basic context. More advanced exposure to authentic texts, however, causes that estimate to rise rapidly above the 4,000 words that are considered necessary to comprehend basic texts (Waring & Nation, 1997), and specialized academic or technical vocabulary can peak at 20,000 words (Schmitt, 2000; Waring & Nation, 1997). These numbers correspond to Tschirner's (2008) estimate of German vocabulary.⁶³ Corpora studies also led researchers to explore whether there were particular aspects to consider when choosing which words to focus on, an aspect that has been addressed in frequency studies (Jones & Tschirner, 2006; Nation & Webb, 2011; Tschirner, 2008). As a guiding principle, Nation recommends teaching the 2,000 most frequent words in explicit vocabulary exercises, and that this process should take place as soon as possible at the beginner level (Nation, 2008). A corpora analysis of these 2,000 words established that the vast majority were content words (nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs). Similar research on the German frequency list compiled by Jones and Tschirner (2006) reached the same conclusion.⁶⁴ It was thought that the most frequent words could be acquired faster, because they would be encountered more often. Other factors that make learning easier are addressed in the next segment in the form of questions answered.

Are some words easier to learn than others?

⁶³ „Mit den häufigsten 2000 Wörtern einer Sprache erreicht man im Durchschnitt eine Textabdeckung von ca. 90% der laufenden Wörter in Alltagsgesprächen und einfacheren literarischen Werken, mit den häufigsten 4000 Wörtern erreicht man eine Textdeckung von ca. 95 Prozent“. (Tschirner, 2008, p. 3)

⁶⁴ However, note Lipinski's 2010 critique in her analysis of three widely used German textbooks in North America; the textbook corpora cover only a portion of the basic word list—*Kontakte*, 39%; *Neue Horizonte*, 62%; and *Deutsch Heute*, 64%.

In a more learner-centred teaching approach, it was assumed that, because some words were more important to learners than others, they would be memorized with greater ease. Kramersch (1979) outlines *word-watching* as a strategy to increase the cost-effectiveness of studying words, because learners themselves determine their learning task by choosing only those words that are meaningful to them. The strategy she describes therefore asks students to keep their own individualized vocabulary booklets. Motivation is also considered an important contributing factor to overcome the language learning challenge (Gardner, 2001, 2005; MacIntyre et al., 2002; Oxford & Shearin, 1994). Oxford (1994, 2011) depicts how affective and meta-affective strategies⁶⁵ are supposed to help students cope with the enormity and anxiety of the vocabulary learning task they face. Her view was based on the Piagetean notion that affect and cognition are intertwined concepts of learning.⁶⁶

Research has also focused on whether some word classes are easier to learn than others.⁶⁷ Schuetze (2014) explores whether function words or content words are easier to retain when studied in a spaced learning environment. Ellis and Beaton (1993) argue that nouns are easier to learn than verbs and adjectives. They and others also note that words that are similar to the learners' L1 (referred to as a *crosslinguistic influence*) incur a lesser learning burden (de Groot, 2006; de Groot & Keijzer, 2000; Ellis & Beaton, 1993; Hall, 2002; Nation, 1990, 2001; Ringbom, 1987). Studies examining how cognates are processed in language comprehension and language production conclude that cognates are indeed easier to learn, but that "false

⁶⁵ For example, planning ahead about what to do in case anxiety levels rise: taking deep breaths, using relaxation exercises, etc.

⁶⁶ "States of pleasure, disappointment, eagerness, as well as feelings of fatigue, effort, boredom, etc., come into play [with cognition]" (Piaget, 1981, p. 3).

⁶⁷ See Laufer's comprehensive review of research that studies factors affecting vocabulary learning (1997, p. 154).

friends” account for misrepresentations that are difficult to overcome (Carroll, 1992; Granger, 1993; Laufer, 1990; Van Patten et al., 2004).

Other vocabulary research addresses whether knowledge of word parts helps to decipher the meaning of the entire word (Vidal, 2003). Laufer, for example, (1997) concludes that only affixes whose meanings are known to learners will actually help learners grasp the meaning of the whole. If the basic word *arbeit* [work], the suffix *-er* [an indicator of a person doing this], and the suffix *-in* [a referent to a female person] were known, then the word *Arbeiterin* could be deciphered as a female worker. Bauer and Nation (1993) demonstrate the importance of knowing word parts so that meaning can be more readily gleaned as learners’ proficiency levels develop. They therefore not only encourage instructors to teach the meaning of affixes, but they also suggest that teachers should train their students to employ affix analyses as a means to attribute meaning from word parts to the whole.

Which aspects of a word should learners acquire, and how is that done?

With reference to Nation’s word knowledge list, Schmitt points out that:

The different types of word knowledge are not necessarily learned at the same time. Each of the word-knowledge types is likely to be learned in a gradual manner, but some may develop later than others and at different rates. From this perspective, vocabulary acquisition must be incremental, as it is clearly impossible to gain immediate mastery of all these word knowledges simultaneously. Thus, at any point in time, unless the word is completely unknown or fully acquired, the different word knowledges will exist at various degrees of mastery. (2000, p. 5)

How these different word knowledges work together in teaching has not really been explored in depth. A closer look at newer textbooks indicates that word features (e.g., register, collocations)

are introduced at a very early stage in beginner textbooks⁶⁸ and that activities designed to facilitate the learning of these knowledges are readily available. Nation's list of matching activities⁶⁹ includes "a range of activities for vocabulary learning"; this list complements his assessment of what-it-means-to-know-a-word⁷⁰ and provides examples for activities addressing form, meaning, and use (2001, p. 99). The degree to which they can be used depends on learners' proficiency levels.

Learning strategy research⁷¹ related to these learning and teaching options has also expanded considerably. For instance, Schmitt (1997) distinguishes between discovery strategies and strategies for consolidating word knowledge,⁷² but all such strategies are designed to engage the learner with the material and engender more elaborate mental processing, a process that then results in a higher retention rate. Schmitt does, however, caution us to consider the following aspects (2000, p. 133). First, strategies differ in their level of processing. Some engage students more than others and may therefore be more effective. Secondly, teachers must consider their learners' backgrounds and learning conditions, because not all activities are suitable for every group of students⁷³ or cater to every individual's learning preferences. Thirdly, some strategies

⁶⁸ In the unpublished prospectus of the textbook *Einfach Deutsch lernen* communicated the authors communicated their intention to promote transcultural competence: "An intercultural learner is engaged in several processes of interaction, thereby forming several identities as a speaker (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006) in an attempt to find his/her personal voice. This process takes time. In the context of learning German in a classroom for three, four, or five hours per week in North America, it takes years until the so-called intercultural competence is reached. However, we believe that it is beneficial to the learner to engage him or her in this process right from the beginning." (U. Schuetze, personal communication, August 21, 2014).

⁶⁹ See [Appendix D](#).

⁷⁰ See Nation, 2001, pp. 98–108 for a detailed description of these. Also see Nation (2008) on strategies and techniques for teaching vocabulary; Oxford (2011) on strategy training; and Ur (2012) for detailed descriptions and a wealth of vocabulary activities in the foreign language class.

⁷¹ Meanwhile, learning strategy research has a well-established body of studies exploring different aspects of strategy use. See A. Cohen and E. Macaro (2007) for a comprehensive overview of learning strategies research in the past three decades.

⁷² These include determination strategies (DET), e.g., guessing from a cognate; social strategies (SOC), e.g., asking peers about meaning; memory strategies (MEM), e.g., creating semantic word maps; cognitive strategies (COG), e.g., keeping a vocabulary booklet; and metacognitive strategies (MET), e.g., deciding to used spaced word practice.

⁷³ Schmitt (1997) studied whether learners from different cultural backgrounds had strong opinions on the utility of certain vocabulary learning strategies.

are more suitable for advanced students (e.g., contextualizing words). Another aspect to be considered is research indicating that the most successful learners use a variety of learning strategies (Ahmed, 1989; Sanaoui, 1995; Takač, 2008). Finally, as was noted above, the size of the target corpora suggests that neither in-class instruction nor exposure to extensive reading is sufficient to acquire the necessary basic corpora. Schmitt therefore concludes that even though instruction into these strategies must be used with caution, “students need to take some responsibility for their own vocabulary learning, making it necessary to introduce them to vocabulary learning strategies so that they can do this more effectively” (2000, p. 138). Some interesting research focuses on the four language skills of reading, writing, listening, and understanding and compares how they relate to each other, which skills are easier to learn, and which should be learned first. For example, Vidal compares the intake of vocabulary in listening activities to those in reading activities. Her findings suggest that the frequency of word occurrence in reading text aids in word retention, but that this does not hold true for listening. Unless speakers can segment speech and thus identify word boundaries, the effect on vocabulary acquisition is negligible (Vidal, 2011, p. 247). Her research expands upon Ellis’s 1995 finding that reading was more beneficial for vocabulary acquisition, because it gives learners more time to process the information.⁷⁴ Vidal’s findings, however, seem to contradict Baddeley’s 2007 conclusion that a plausible explanation for the higher retention of vocabulary presented in listening could be attributed to phonological memory processing (described in more detail below). In weighing the pros and cons of these aspects, Nation draws attention to the fact that balanced vocabulary teaching in a well-designed course should not view these

⁷⁴ Much of this research can be referred back to the question discussed later of how much input should be made available and in what ways it should be presented to maximize intake.

modes of input/output in opposition, but rather, as complementary components (2001, p. 2). He names four strands that should be part of every syllabus: (1) meaning-focused input in either listening or reading; (2) language-focused learning, sometimes also referred to as form-focused instruction;⁷⁵ (3) meaning-focused output in speaking and writing activities; and (4) fluency development where acquired knowledge is consolidated. The issue of whether words are best learned incidentally through implicit exposure or whether explicit instruction is necessary has been discussed, and I agree with the position taken by Nation (1990, 2001, 2008) and Schmitt (2000, 2008), who have repeatedly maintained that there should be ample opportunities for both in a language class.

In conclusion, the first part of this chapter introduced teacher cognition research. It then focused on vocabulary learning and teaching cognition. The second part provided an overview of the role vocabulary knowledge plays in some of the most prominent learning theories and language theories of the 20th and 21st century. More specifically, the overview focused on what was and is taught about vocabulary and on what has been researched, as well as the most important results of this research.

To reiterate, the section on vocabulary learning and teaching in this chapter serves solely as a point of reference for my study, as it may be relevant for my research on teacher cognition and practices—teachers in current language classrooms may refer to some of the theoretical and empirical knowledge that they may have encountered at some stage in their university or teaching career in their own construction of vocabulary teaching knowledge. This section also illustrated the very constructedness of vocabulary as fluid and subject to change in all its

⁷⁵ See more on FFI (focus on form instruction); FonF (focus on form) and FonFs (focus on forms in Jessica Williams's (2005) comprehensive overview of studies. She describes these terms in more detail.

aspects of meaning, pragmatics, and written/oral representations. In sum, I have presented some of the discourses with regard to vocabulary pedagogy and acquisition. However, I have no way of knowing exactly what the participants have been taught, aside from a general knowledge of what constitutes teacher education and the educational discourse they were part of and shared with me in their narratives. Further, the mere fact that some of the concepts and methodological approaches might have been encountered does not necessarily imply that they were processed in the construction of subjective perspectives, because input does not equal intake. My data is confined solely to the narratives the participants' shared with me. Chapter 4 outlines how these narratives were constructed and how I approached them from the perspective of the methodological framework of narrative inquiry.

Chapter 4

Methodology

In this chapter, I present my arguments for choosing a narrative approach as the methodological framework for my study and describe the data collection procedures I employed in my multi-case study of three instructors teaching beginner-level German classes. The description of its design is followed by a presentation of my data analysis tools, transcription conventions, and coding choices.

4.1 The methodological framework

A social constructivist view that sees subjective perspectives as socially constructed, fluid, and dynamic informs my choice of a theoretical framework. Such a view regards identity construction and the construction of subjective perspectives as being intrinsically interconnected with my study participants' past learning and teaching experiences, ongoing professional development, and the social reality of the world they are part of. Teachers act on beliefs, they act on reflected classroom experience, and they act on principles of how to teach vocabulary that are based on research in the field. At the same time, they share discourses involving vocabulary learning and teaching at a global level. Research on teachers' subjective perspective(s) under these premises requires a methodological framework that can illuminate the idiosyncrasies and complexity of how these factors come together in teachers' construction of cognition. Using the stories they tell as narrative data that has been collated to "make sense" allows me to identify recurring themes and to relate them to their subjective perspectives. Barkhuizen points out that stories bring coherence to our experiences, quoting Kramp's explication of this feature at one juncture: "[Stories] assist humans to make life experiences

meaningful. Stories preserve our memories, prompt our reflections, connect us with our past and present, and assist us to envision our future” (as cited in Barkhuizen, 2013, p. 4). On the strength of how well stories function in these respects, I felt it best to use a narrative approach to examine my data. The following section details narrative approaches and how they have been used to research teacher cognition.

Narrative approaches were the method of choice for much qualitative cognition research in the past, and they have been employed in increasing numbers in more recent studies of teacher cognition. What drives this methodological choice? Most previous SLVA studies used both quantitative and qualitative research methods designed to identify and distinguish between universal truths and best practices of vocabulary teaching. Now, many begin to question the very existence of the “best” in best practices. Johnson states that “positivism, also referred to as the scientific method, is rooted in the belief that reality exists apart from the knower and can be captured through careful, systematic processes of data collection, analysis and interpretation” (2009, p. 7). With the emergence of a theoretical approach based on the social constructivist paradigm of how knowledge is constructed, it follows that our understanding of best practices must shift from a product-oriented view to one that is process-oriented. This shift, in turn, allows us to examine the concept of practice from a more holistic view that values differences and diversity. What teachers do in class and how they came to do it can then be assessed, not in terms of right or wrong practice, but as they are related to their lives, their experiences, and their education within their own specific sociocultural context. In this sense, my research aims to understand the underlying contributing factors that determine the choices teachers make in class. I agree with Cotterall’s statement about understanding the experiences of individuals and

adapt his quote to include teachers: “The ultimate goal of such research is not to produce generalisations about learners [teachers], factors and outcomes but to understand the experiences of the individuals” (Cotterall, 2008, p. 126). Bell refers to narratives as a “window into people’s beliefs and experiences” (2002, p. 209). I contemplate this metaphor with caution because I acknowledge that my view is an interpretation of what I identify and not a reflection of reality. However, I believe that a narrative approach allows me to trace the dynamic aspects of experiences in order to gain access to each individual teacher’s account of how they came to be the teachers they are and how they perceive themselves and their practices. I find Borg’s (2006) diagram for studying language teacher cognition a helpful tool to outline this mediated space of how teachers narrate their lived experience in schooling, professional coursework, and classroom practice, as it effectively encompasses these interrelated forces. It exemplifies what our beliefs, knowledge, theories, and assumptions can be about (e.g., teaching, colleagues, subject matter, self, and context). But most importantly, as indicated by the arrow flow, the dynamics of change work both ways (e.g., teachers make choices on behalf of their classroom practices, and their reflection on classroom practices, in turn, informs their cognition). By positioning teachers in the center of inquiry in this diagram, we can clearly see what constitutes their narratives and how these constructs are interrelated.

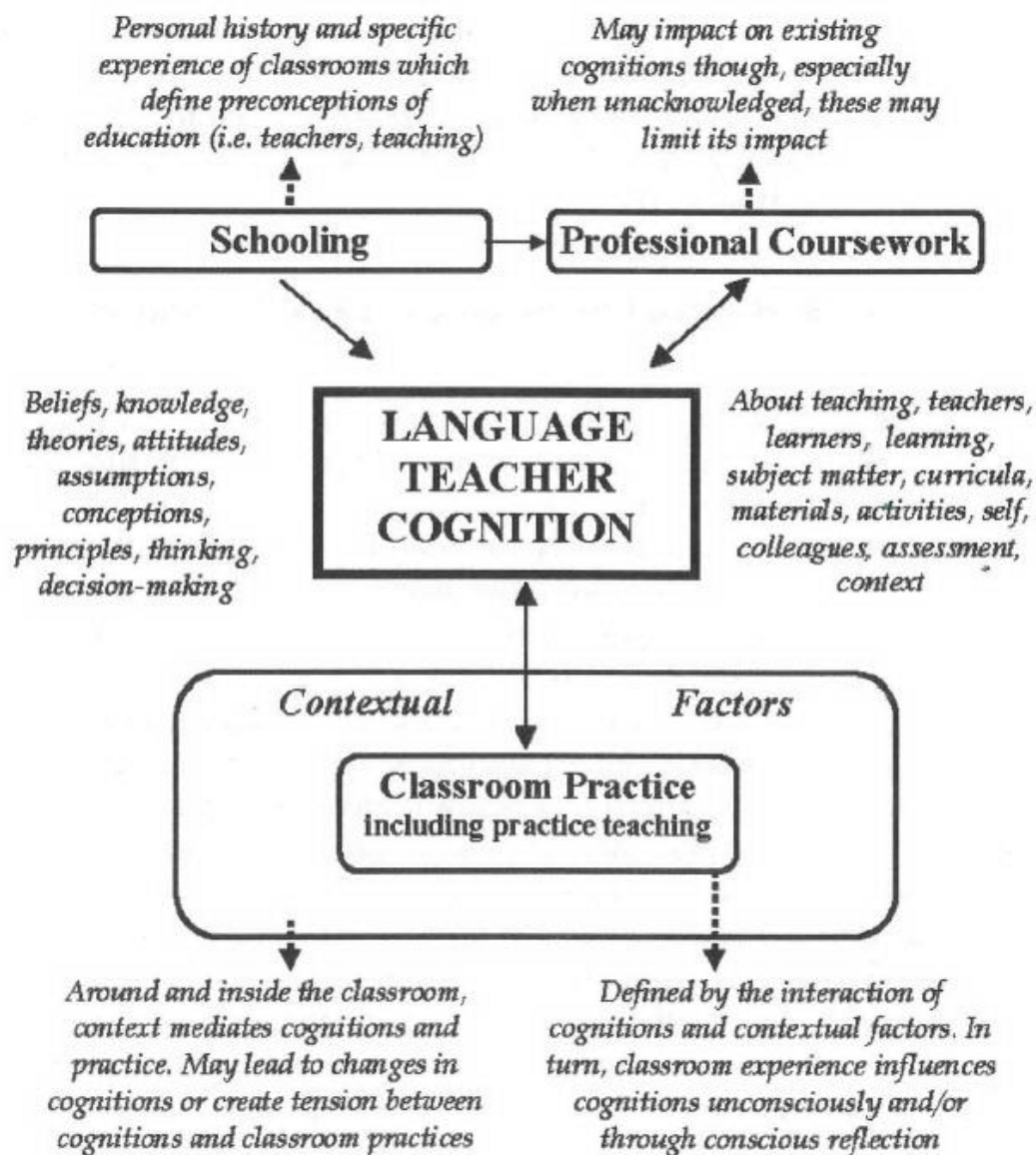


Figure 3 Elements and processes in language teacher cognition

From *Teacher Cognition and Language Education*, by S. Borg, 2006, p. 283. Copyright by Continuum Publishing, an imprint of Bloomsbury Publishing Plc. Reprinted with permission.

This approach shifts the research focus toward an observational stance that describes teachers' experiences: what teachers do and why. This focus aims to understand and identify the forces that shape teachers' experience, cognition, and practices. The philosophical underpinning for

this narrative analysis is based on a Deweyan understanding of human experience as humans' interaction with their personal, social, and material environments (Barcelos, 2000; Clandinin, 2007; Clandinin & Caine, 2008; Clandinin & Connelly, 2000; Clandinin & Huber, 2010; Clandinin, Pushor, & Orr, 2007; Golombek, 1998; Johnson & Golombek, 2002, 2004; Mattos, 2009). Narrative approaches thus seem well suited to gain access to teachers' individual accounts of their experience and of their belief, assumption, and knowledge systems (Lieblich, Tuval-Mashiach, & Zilber, 1998). This imagery of experienced reality as the unfolding of life stories is shared by many researchers (Bruner, 2004; Freeman, 2007). Connelly and Clandinin (2006) state that, though definitions of narratives vary between the fields of literature studies, social sciences, and applied linguistics, most would agree on the following:

People shape their daily lives by stories of who they and others are and they interpret their past in terms of these stories. Story, in the current idiom, is a portal through which a person enters the world and by which their experience of the world is interpreted and made personally meaningful. (2006, p. 375)

Furthermore, we must also account for the fact that the concept of “experienced reality” is more than the telling of a story. It must also be seen as the shaping, re-shaping, interpreting, and positioning of oneself and others through narrative. These narratives are thus seen as being positioned on a continuum that is determined and mediated within and by time, within and by interaction, and within and by place.

4.1.1 The mediation of narratives

Mediated by time. When this experience was lived will influence its narration. At the same time, stories change. The memory of the past is reshaped to match the present because the becoming of the person I am now influences how I see my past. The memory of the past is also

reshaped to match how I would like to position myself in the future. Therefore, retold from the vantage point of the now present, (or looking back to our past or forward to our future), this temporality will reshape our lived reality as another narrative—a different one.

Mediated by place. It also matters where this “experienced reality” occurred. For example, we can expect the teaching of German as a foreign language in Canada to differ considerably from teaching it in Turkey.⁷⁶ Experience is shaped by the physical place as its *locus*, but it is also shaped by the abstract place as *context*. Place(s) therefore also determine how much, and what, I subconsciously and consciously choose to disclose in my narrative, and how I disclose it. For example, I may not be comfortable offering details regarding my personal teaching challenges either to an audience at a conference (*locus*) or talking with colleagues in a perceived restrictive environment where, for example, my views might conflict with the institution’s educational policies (*context*).

Mediated by interaction. Positioning oneself and others is a dialogic process of mediation. I am who I am because of others. And because meaning making is negotiated, it follows that the circumstances of who and what I encounter in my interaction with the material and spiritual world shape my narrative. At the same time, who I disclose myself to be in these narratives will influence who I am, who I was, and who I will become. Carr emphasizes the fact that “we are composing and constantly revising our autobiographies as we go along” (1986, p. 76). This view of identity construction is similar to Norton’s reference to a poststructuralist view that reminds us of “the contingent, shifting and context-dependent nature of identities, and

⁷⁶ Indeed, some teacher narratives explicitly address this change of loci as crucial to their positioning of self—and other—as teachers (Golombek & Johnson, 2007; Mendieta, 2011; Mitton-Kükner, Nelson, & Desrochers, 2010; Tsui, 2007; Verity, 2000; Xu & Connelly, 2009; Xu & Liu, 2009; Zhao & Poulson, 2006).

emphasize[s] that identities are not merely given by social structures or ascribed by others, but are also negotiated by agents who wish to position themselves” (2013, p. 5).

4.1.2 Different perspectives of how to do narrative research

I now examine different perspectives of how to do narrative research. In the past, narratives were frequently used to explore a person’s notions, thoughts, beliefs, and knowledge.

Polkingthorne (1995) points out that studies of these narratives generally adhere to one of two different suppositions, and he distinguishes between (a) the analysis of narratives, and (b) narrative analysis. He explains that an analysis of narratives uses the compilation of data (narratives) to produce taxonomies and categories that are then used to identify explanatory stories with a common underlying thread. He describes this exploration of narratives as paradigmatic, because the aim is to generalize its findings. But narrative analysis also offers the option of specifically focusing on the diversity, incongruence, and complexity within the data and then using narrative analytic procedures to make sense of its particularity. In this sense, its purpose is to understand and to bear witness to the data’s diversity, incongruity, and complexity. Polkingthorne maintains that:

the researcher’s task is to configure the data elements into a story that unites and gives meaning to the data as contributors to a goal or purpose. The analytic task requires the researcher to develop or discover a plot that displays the linkage among the data elements as parts of an unfolding temporal development. (1995, p. 5)

It then logically follows that each story must be viewed in its individuality. Indeed, Clandinin and Murphy (2007) suggest that researchers should not look for commonalities between different participants’ narratives, but rather, they should focus on their individuality.

Barkhuizen (2013) contends that these two research design approaches often overlap, that a

coherent story can be retold even as separate themes are analyzed. With regard to theorizing about narratives, Connelly and Clandinin (1990, 2006) preferred the term *narrative inquiry* to describe how narratives are used. They differentiate between narrative inquiry as (a) a process of thinking about experience and (b) narrative inquiry as methodology:

Narrative inquiry, the study of experiences as story, then, is first and foremost a way of thinking about experience. Narrative methodology entails a view of the phenomenon. To use narrative inquiry methodology is to adopt a particular view of experience as phenomenon under study. (Clandinin and Connelly, 2006, p. 375)

It is clear that narratives have been used in many varied ways to explore peoples' lived experiences. Barkhuizen (2013) provides an overview of the scope of narrative research dimensions in applied linguistics by positioning them in a way that highlights their interrelatedness. He developed a framework (reproduced in Figure 2) for theoretical stances and empirical practices that addresses eight dimensions positioned along a continuum:

epistemology, methods, content, form, practice, co-construction, categorization, and storying (Barkhuizen, 2013, pp. 5–12).⁷⁷ This continuum extends from an *epistemological* stance, where inquirers' beliefs about the world are evident in their project, to the far end of the spectrum, where *storying* uses textual examples woven together and coded according to themes which are then retold as a story when findings are presented and discussed.

⁷⁷ Barkhuizen explicitly does not want to provide a typology of narrative analysis owing to his belief that a typology would simplify the description of narrative research foci (2013, p. 5). Nevertheless, I find that the process helps grasp the multi-facetedness of interrelated dynamics and aspects when doing narrative research.

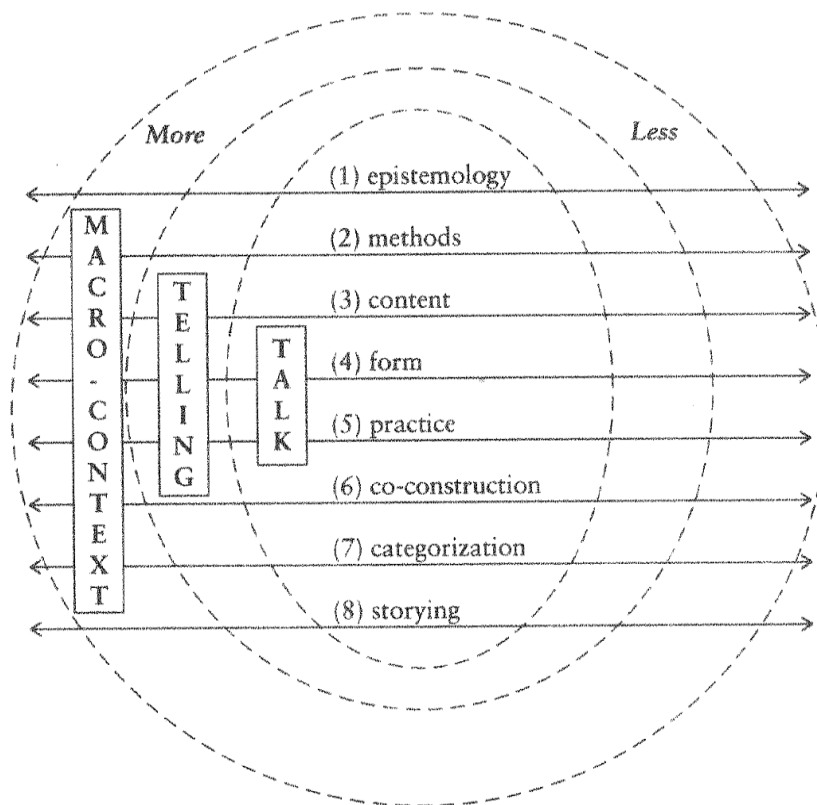


Figure 4 Dimensions of narrative analysis

Adapted from "Introduction: Narrative research in applied linguistics," by G. Barkhuizen (Ed.), *Narrative Research in Applied Linguistics*, 2013, p.5. Cambridge: University Press.

Barkhuizen’s three dimensions—“talk”, “telling”, and “macro context”—refer to how context can be defined in narrative studies. For example, talk refers to the context of talk in interaction, where data coding follows a conversation analysis tradition (e.g., identifying turn-takes). Telling includes the general context where this particular narrative is situated (e.g., A research design examining how teachers implement a particular pedagogical principle would also include the educational setting where the narrative takes place.). While Barkhuizen’s dimensions help to position narrative research studies within the larger field of inquiries, he also points out that many of the dimensions he mentions are interrelated and may overlap.

Nonetheless, I caution that the two-dimensional conceptualization depicted by a diagram could lead us to assume that the dimensions Barkhuizen lists fall along a continuum, thus giving the illusion of a logical sequence. I see more diversity in the way these dimensions can be interrelated and combined.

The examples of teacher cognition research using a narrative approach that I introduce next exemplify the scope of possible narrative approaches.

4.1.3 Teacher cognition research with a narrative approach

Linda Quinn Allen's (2013) study of 273 handwritten diary pages from 30 North American secondary school teachers of French is an example of how effectively a study can make use of narratives as a data pool. Thirty experienced language instructors were invited to take part in a three-week, summer seminar at an institute in France. They were asked to report "faithfully, reflectively, and descriptively" on their impressions of how they were perfecting their proficiency in French. In a first coding, the researcher highlighted phrases that signalled beliefs (e.g., I think, I suppose). In a second step, these text passages were transferred to index cards which allowed Allen to sort them by themes. These themes were then analyzed to identify circumstances these instructors relate to as common aspects promoting their learning in a study-abroad context.

David Hayes' (2013) study of narratives of ESL teachers in Sri Lanka and Thailand is designed to understand local social practices of language teaching and the role that ESL plays for his teacher participants in this particular sociocultural setting. In extended, unstructured interviews with several teachers over a period of many years, Hayes compiled narratives for each of his participants that approach the level of life histories. The intensive biographical background

information he gathers concerning their lives, social status, and family connections also allow him to track developments and changes in their perspectives over the years. He transcribes his audiotaped interviews and then conducts a first preliminary content analysis to note patterns and clustering; he then attributes these to larger categories. In many ways, Hayes' telling of his informants' stories gives voice to their social, political, and professional experience. He regards "narrative inquiry as transformative research contributing to social justice within local communities of practice as well as the wider TESOL profession" (2013, p. 62).

Brian Rugen (2013) uses conversational data as *small story narratives* to track how a Japanese teacher negotiates his language learner and language teacher identity. To this end, Rugen collects conversational data (e.g., audiotaped interactions over lunch) over a ten-month period. He then transcribes his data following Jefferson's (2004)⁷⁸ transcription conventions. Rugen proceeds to identify themes and cross-reference several coding cycles. His analysis of the data is based on *narrative positioning analysis*, which considers all utterances to be means to position oneself in interaction. He points out that "people not only establish positions for themselves in making an utterance, but also offer others positions for themselves from which to respond" (2013, p. 206). By looking closely at the organization of these interactions (e.g., how turn-takes are introduced and how certain information is foregrounded), he then analyzes the data on three levels: (1) what content is told, (2) how the speakers are related to each other, and (3) what means are used to portray a sense of themselves (meaning to position oneself as a

⁷⁸ Jefferson uses basic transcription symbols for pauses, latching, overlapping speech, elongation of syllables, intonation, emphasis, accelerated talk, drawn-out talk, and code switches.

competent speaker by using certain linguistic features)⁷⁹ when the previous two levels are combined.

These examples demonstrate some of the ways narrative approaches can be used, but all share the characteristic that they make use of participants' narrated stories or creative expressions⁸⁰ of their lived realities.

My research design uses narratives as data (e.g., interview transcripts, concept map assignments, and transcripts of stimulated recall sessions) and analyzes data by tracking emerging key themes. I do not propose to generalize findings by identifying common underlying dynamics in the participants' data. In this sense, this study is set up as narrative analysis that focuses on participants' particularity as it is expressed in their subjective perspectives. Similar to Rugen's use of conversational data, I also examine the participants' transcribed narratives closely by looking at how information is foregrounded in the data (e.g., by stress patterns, emphasizing gestures, agency shifts, and repairs). This close analysis allows me to identify incidences of subjective perspective construction⁸¹ in participants' narratives. The following section describes the procedures I used to compile these narratives.

⁷⁹ For example, in one of my classes with Turkish university students at a German university, they overproduced subjunctive forms, believing this would signal their proficiency level. In this example, (1) content is represented in their speech acts themselves; (2) context is realized in the way speakers see themselves in relation to their peers and their instructor in a university setting; and (3) how these students positioned themselves was realized in the way they used a particular linguistic feature.

⁸⁰ Kalaja, Dufva, and Alanen (2013) experiment with visual narratives. In my own research, I regard the participants' concept map drawing as a narrative.

⁸¹ See also the following section on coding principles.

4.2 The data collection process

This research project was set up as a multi-case study intended to elicit key themes that thread through the participants' accounts that I could then analyze.⁸² Dörnyei describes case studies as qualitative research that is “not a specific technique but rather a method of collecting and organizing data so as to maximize our understanding of the unitary character of the social beings or object studied. In many ways, it is the ultimate qualitative method focusing on the ‘Particular One’” (2007, p. 152). Thus, the purpose is to generate data in an explorative, empirical inquiry that will help decipher singular and multiple perspectives through in-depth study of the individual (Duff, 2008).

In keeping with this conceptualization, I collected data from three participants employing a methodological triangulation procedure by using various types of data sources: classroom observations, stimulated recall sessions based on the recorded observations, questionnaires, a concept map drawing followed by a semi-structured discussion and interview, and validation of biographical data. Other data compiled included lesson plans, teaching materials, textbook excerpts, vocabulary tests, field notes, a researcher journal, and researcher memos. To prepare for the task of developing my research design, I conducted a pilot study that was completed in the fall of 2011 and started designing my doctoral data collection procedures the following spring and summer (2012). Data collection was completed in the fall of 2012.⁸³

The timeline below provides an overview of these sequential steps.

⁸² Full ethics clearance was received for this research (ORE # 18312).

⁸³ With the exception of the validation of bibliographic data which was done in January 2013, the data collection was completed by the end of the fall term in 2012.

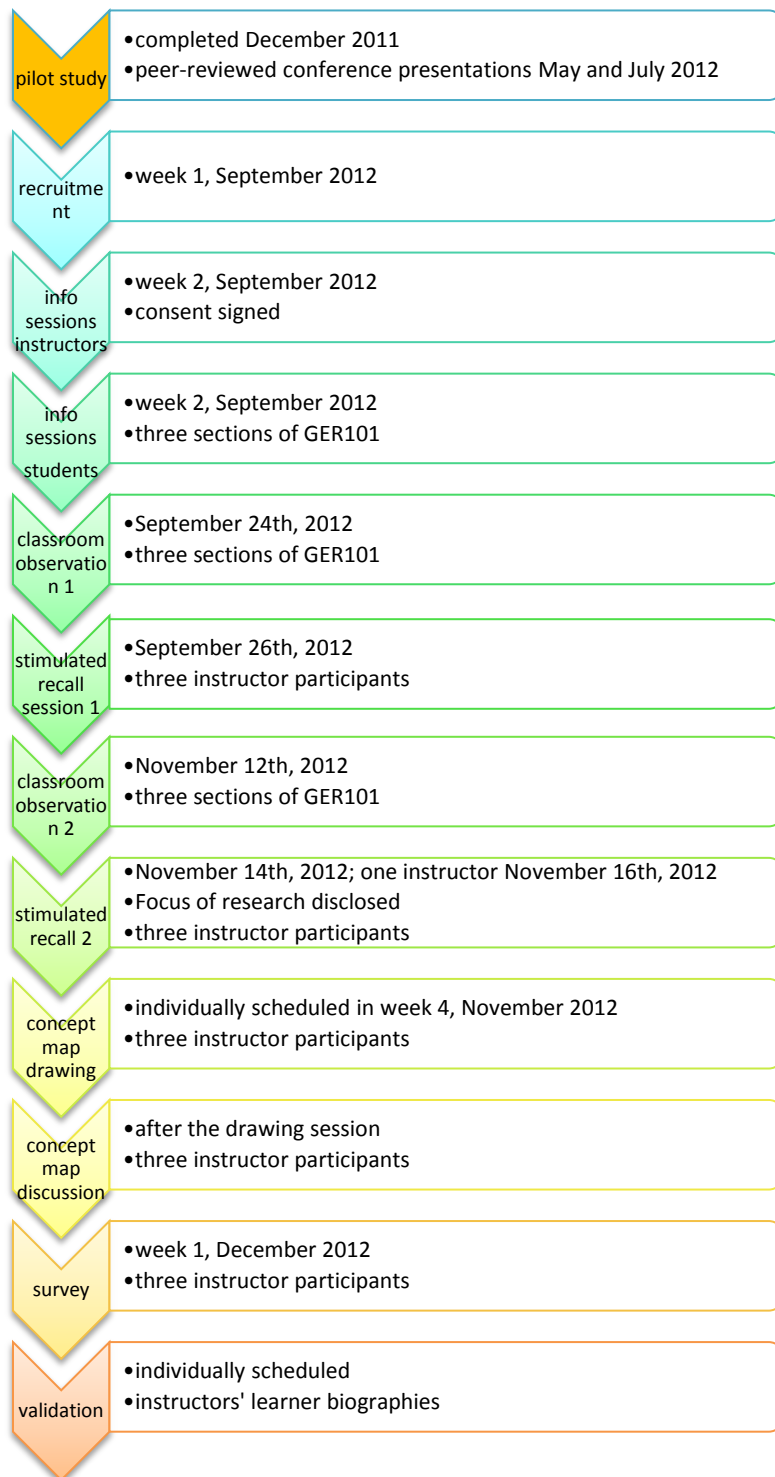


Figure 5 Data collection time line

I describe the pilot study, the doctoral research design, and the objectives for the implementation of the core procedures in more detail in the same sequence that they were implemented below.

4.2.1 The context of the case studies and the participants

This research was conducted at a Canadian university. The subjects (students, $n = 55$; instructors, $n = 3$) were students and instructors in an entry-level German language class (GER101). The German language department at this university offers a variety of degree-granting programs at the undergraduate and graduate level. The German program usually has seven to eight sections of beginner German classes, with a maximum enrollment of 25 in each section.

TA workshops and joint lesson planning. The lesson plans and the necessary materials are prepared jointly and then discussed in weekly TA meetings. Faculty instructors, teaching assistants, and PAD⁸⁴ instructors take turns sharing their prepared lesson plans, but at the beginning of a term, faculty instructors provide the first lesson plans. Later, everyone becomes involved in the planning and preparation process. The same process also applies to tests and vocabulary quizzes. Chapter quizzes and finals are graded together in grading sessions, but every instructor grades his/her own homework assignments and vocabulary quizzes. This procedure not only shortens preparation time, but it also ensures a high degree of homogeneity in all classes and uniform grading schemes. The instructors are permitted to change the lesson plan according to the needs of their students, but the institution clearly favours a consistent approach in all sections. GER101 classes meet four times a week for 50-minute-long lessons, one of which is a computer

⁸⁴ This pedagogical exchange program (PAD) invites young professionals to teach as foreign language instructors at secondary and tertiary institutions for one year. At the university where I conducted my research, the PAD instructors come from Germany.

language lab session. My participants taught their classes on the same day every week but at different times of the day. All classes were based on the same lesson plans.

Professional development program for language instructors. Aside from designing weekly lesson plans and preparing additional shared material, all new instructors and teaching assistants were enrolled in a professional development program, the Certificate of University Language Teaching (CULT). They attended workshops on language pedagogy, language learning, and general topics related to teaching in tertiary education. The program was developed in cooperation with the Learning and Teaching Centre. It was open to all language departments on campus and offered workshops as well as a practice teaching component, complete with classroom observation and mentor feedback. Participants who wished to receive certification presented a paper at the Colloquium for Language Learning and Teaching and prepared a model teaching portfolio. These activities were spread out over more than one academic year. There was no workshop offered that explicitly addressed vocabulary acquisition in the fall term when I collected my data.

Recruiting the participants. The data collection procedures were conducted over a period of one term. At the beginning of the term, I contacted three of the seven instructors teaching this class. My choice regarding which teachers to work with was based on a number of factors.

First, at the beginning of the data collection process, I did not want to disclose the focus of my study on vocabulary acquisition (see below for more on this). These three instructors were new to the department and thus did not know my research interest. Other fellow graduates and faculty in the department, on the other hand, were familiar with it because they had been present at various conferences where I had reported on my pilot project results. When I recruited these three

participants, I described the nature of my study in general terms as research on student/teacher interaction.

Secondly, these instructors shared a number of important similarities. They were all the same approximate age (25–30), all had been enrolled in a teacher education program abroad prior to their sojourn in Canada, and all were just beginning the Certificate of University Language Teaching (CULT) program. As newcomers to the university, they faced similar experiences as they familiarized themselves with the university, fellow graduates and department members, the German textbook and all the additional resources, the course management site and its online resources, the language lab, and the department's German language program in general. German was their first language, and teaching in Canada was therefore an immersion context for all three.

Teachers/students' introduction processes. In individual meetings with my prospective participants, I explained the general nature of my study. I also described the means of my data collection, its timeline, their contribution and time commitment, and possible concerns arising from the data collection procedures. Furthermore, I introduced and explained the university's research ethics consent forms. I then asked them for some time in their classes in order to introduce my study to their students. Once my participants had signed the consent forms, we arranged the times and dates for the information sessions in class and the first classroom observations. At the student information session, I introduced my study as research on teacher cognition and let them know that two of their GER101 classes would be video-recorded, one at the beginning of the term and the other toward the end. This allowed me to note whether there were any changes in practice or beliefs between the first session and the one observed after the instructors had taught for three months. The experience acquired in doing my pilot study helped

me organize the stages of my different data collection means in this structured way. This pilot study is described below.

4.2.2 The pilot study

My study,⁸⁵ *Teacher gestures in foreign language vocabulary acquisition: A close look at interpersonal and intrapersonal use*, was completed two full terms before I started collecting data for my dissertation research. It addressed one aspect of vocabulary pedagogy, namely the use of gestures in vocabulary teaching. I studied teachers' beliefs about the desirability of contextualizing gestures in vocabulary acquisition as well as their self-perceptions while they were using them.

Recent research provides compelling neural evidence beyond anecdotal testimony that the use of gestures contributes significantly to vocabulary retention and retrieval (Macedonia, Müller, & Friederici, 2011; Macedonia & Knösche, 2011). However, while instructors may be aware of the benefits of enactment, there seems to be a gap between what teachers know, what they believe, and what they do in class—a state Phipps and Borg (2009) term “the tension between beliefs and practices.” For example, one of the participants expresses surprise that she is using gestures frequently to stimulate a *sign-referent* meaning-making process in the following comment:

Ich seh das jetzt zum ersten Mal, dass ich das beobachte
sozusagen, hmm (..) diese Gesten (..) krieg ich nicht so ganz mit
was ich mach. (Anne, 2012)

I explored the interpersonal and intrapersonal use of teacher gestures with regard to lexical processing collected and analyzed data from two participants. This data consisted of a teacher observation session, a concept mind map assignment, an interview session, and a stimulated recall session with each of my participants. This pilot study explored the interpersonal and intrapersonal

⁸⁵ Full ethics clearance was received for this research (ORE # 17622).

use of teacher gestures with regard to lexical processing. Its findings suggest that while teachers did indeed use gestures extensively in class, close examination based on Streeck's (2010) gesture taxonomy reveals that teachers employ gestures significantly more often when talking in a language that is foreign language to them, whereas when talking in the language class' target language (their native language), they use gestures less frequently. This indicates that their use of intrapersonal gestures to structure their own communicative acts dominates; using gestures to aid recipients' comprehension and acquisition of the target language is not their primary impetus. This finding expands on past research that views instructor gestures per se as aids to contextualization in the context of foreign language classes. My pilot study's principal finding was that gestures and enactments should be encouraged via a process of self-reflection such that they become consciously planned interactions in foreign language classes in order to counterbalance their intuitive intrapersonal use. Only then can they serve as an interpersonal teaching tool to contextualize word meanings.

The preparatory purpose of this pilot study with respect to this dissertation research was to:

- adapt Horwitz'1988 questionnaire on *Beliefs About Language Learning (BALLI)* for use with beliefs specifically about vocabulary learning and teaching,
- prepare the design of the stimulated recall sessions,
- estimate whether I needed more or different means to collect data,
- establish an appropriate timeline for the different means of data collection,
- familiarize myself with various software products designed for use in qualitative research (e.g., transcription software and coding software),

- devise coding principles that matched my methodological framework, and
- gain experience dealing with complex data from different sources.

Many of the insights and much of the experience garnered from doing the study found its way into the design of my dissertation research. I adapted the data collection techniques to match my research questions and based decisions for changes on my experience with the pilot study. For example, I decided to use two cameras for classroom observations; I kept an audit trail by writing journal entries and memos; I chose to both video record and transcribe the drawing process of the concept map; and I selected NVivo as my transcription and coding software. My data tool preferences, my choice of procedures, and my model for analysis were informed in part by readings (e.g., Dörnyei, 2007; Duff, 2008; Morse & Richards, 2002; Richards, 2013), in part by peer-review feedback, and in part by my own reflections about this pilot study.

4.2.3 Data collection procedures

The following section outlines the means of data collection in sequence and discusses the ways I adapted them for use in my doctoral research. This is followed by a brief description of other data I accessed (e.g., lesson plans, vocabulary quizzes, class handouts). Finally, I present my audit trail and reflect on my role as researcher in this process.

4.2.3.1 Video-recorded classroom observations

This section briefly introduces how classroom observations elicit data reflecting teacher practice in second language acquisition research. I discuss the merits, limitations, and issues involved with taping lessons and then explain how I used the video recordings in this research. This is followed by a detailed description of how the study's equipment was set up.

Observations used in past classroom discourse studies. Classroom observations are considered a primary source to understand the interactions occurring in foreign language classrooms. Past research in second language acquisition has made extensive use of video-recorded classroom observations to address a variety of topics (Duff, 2008). They have been used in classroom discourse studies to examine the interaction between students and instructors, instructor actions, and peer-to-peer interactions. In this study, they form an integral part of the data collection, providing insight into the way teachers act on their beliefs about vocabulary learning and teaching in their classroom practice. They are also the stimulus for reflection on actions and beliefs in the corresponding stimulated recall sessions. What happens in the language class makes an important contribution to describing teachers' beliefs, assumptions, and knowledge because, as was noted in Chapter 3, teachers act on their beliefs and on their reflections of past classroom teaching experience. The following section discusses the benefits and possible negative side effects of the classroom observation arrangements made for this study.

Set-up and objectives for video-recorded classroom observations. As soon as I received my participants' consent, I scheduled recording times with the university's audiovisual department. They provided a professional video camera and someone to operate it, as well as a lapel microphone for the instructor. I asked their camera operators to focus on the instructor's actions. The video recording allowed me to document contextual information about the setting of my participant's interactions. For example, I could document how speaking and writing on the board alternated in a speech act. I could also map non-verbal cues and connect them to spoken discourse. In my pilot study, I found that these played an important role in the

construction of word meaning and ritualized classroom management. I could also identify turn-taking segments in the video recordings and include posture in my analysis. Furthermore, I could identify multiple speakers more easily, thus facilitating the transcription process. As a result of reflection about my pilot study, I also positioned a second Sony camcorder at the front to focus on the students.⁸⁶ All classroom observations were timed consecutively so that I could set up this camera at the beginning of the first observation and then leave. Using this second camera enabled me to correlate the students' actions with those of the instructor.⁸⁷ I watched both films simultaneously on dual screens as I analyzed my data. This allowed me to identify the interactants involved in turn-takes more precisely and follow the interaction from both perspectives.⁸⁸

Concerns associated with classroom observations. Having delineated an effective procedure that allowed me to gather data in a way that helps identify key moments of classroom discourse in detail, I turn now to concerns associated with recording classroom discourse. Many researchers (e.g., Dörnyei, 2007; Duff, 2008; and Zuengler et al., 1998) note the fact that any changes made to customary classroom proceedings that students and teachers are used to can lead to disruptions and change what happens in class. These disruptions can be caused by, for example, setting up the recording devices, the presence of another person, and/or participants' self-consciousness about being observed. I attempted to minimize the first type of disruption by recording classes that were scheduled back-to-back, so only one set up was necessary.

⁸⁶ See a graph of the classroom arrangement in the [Appendix E](#).

⁸⁷ In the stimulated recall sessions, only the professional recording that focused on the instructor was shown to the participants.

⁸⁸ For example, I could identify situations when the teacher changed gears and used a different approach in reaction to seeing her students' puzzled faces.

The two latter factors are referred to in studies of research methods design as *researcher effect* (e.g., Dörnyei, 2007; Duff, 2008; Zuengler et al., 1998). The concern is that the observed and recorded person will change their behaviour because of the video recording. However, Zuengler et al. (1998) argue that most people cannot alter their behaviour significantly for a long period of time and will therefore soon revert to their usual activities. Unfortunately, there is little guidance regarding exactly what constitutes behaviour change “for a long period of time,” and we do not really know how soon “soon” is. I therefore addressed this aspect with the participants at the beginning of the first stimulated recall session. All three told me that this was the first time any of their lessons had been recorded. For them, it was a novelty.

Understandably, this created some tension—and the wish to “perform” well. They expressed this in statements where they apologized for their students’ lack of preparedness or referred to another class where they felt a specific activity had worked out better than the one that was actually recorded. Since I had had a similar experience with participants in my pilot study, I was prepared to address their concern, and I explicitly pointed out to participants in their information sessions that their actions would be described but not evaluated. Furthermore, I was not present during the classroom recordings. This is significantly different from classroom observations the participants were used to, where a mentor or teacher educator evaluates their performance in class.⁸⁹

Nevertheless, despite careful and considerate preparation, these video-recorded classes are unable to capture usual classroom procedures completely. Duff (2008) notes that even after

⁸⁹ In their recall sessions, all three participants reported that they soon forgot about the camera operator. The students, too, appeared to be relatively unconcerned by the presence of a camera. This is supported by the recordings themselves, because students rarely, if ever, glanced at the camera.

numerous recording episodes in her classroom observation research, a camera in class still creates a “different” atmosphere.

Despite these reservations, I agree with researchers who believe the benefits of recording classroom actions outweigh these potentially negative side effects (Dörnyei, 2007; Duff, 2008; Zuengler et al., 1998). These recordings allowed me to identify divergences between what teachers told me about their subjective theories and what they actually practiced in their classrooms. Furthermore, video-recorded classroom observations were a necessary step for the stimulated recall sessions which facilitated a much richer description of teachers’ subjective perspectives by providing a perspective of the action from the instructors’ vantage point.

4.2.3.2 Stimulated recall sessions

Stimulated recall sessions fall under the heading of introspective methods which aim to form a connection between action and thinking processes. Participants are provided with some stimulus of an action they had performed (e.g., audio recording, video recording, or artefact) with the intention of aiding in the recollection of the event where the stimulus was created.

Stimulated recall used in past research and this research. Some researchers use this technique to access what teachers were thinking at a particular moment by asking them to rationalize their actions in think-aloud protocols. The intention of using the stimulus of the video-recorded classroom interaction is to elicit verbal commentaries on cognitions—the thoughts and objectives that led to teacher decisions. A range from more controlled responses to less controlled is predetermined by the manner in which such comments are prompted by an interviewer. My approach was informed by Meijer’s (1999) description of the interviewee-centered approach which keeps prompts to a minimum and seeks clarification only when

necessary. Borg (2006) highlights the following key elements of Meijer's interview instructions: (a) the interviewer watches teachers' reaction to the replay of their recorded classroom actions and listens to their comments (b) the interviewee is only interrupted or questioned if he/she has not commented for a long period of time, (c) the interviewees are advised that this is not about good teaching or bad teaching and that their actions will not be judged, (d) the interviewer intends to listen and uses short questions for clarification purposes only, and (e) everything said is confidential (as cited in Borg, 2006, p. 215). The technique of stimulated recall has been criticized for its claim to accurately document teachers' interactive thinking. Concerns have also been voiced regarding whether their explanatory comments reflect what they actually believed in the instances they describe or if their descriptions are an after-the-act construction of beliefs (Borg, 2006). These concerns are largely grounded in the belief that it is necessary to document what teachers were thinking at the very moment they are watching. However, my objective for the use of recall sessions is based on the supposition that any construction of insight through reflection—no matter at what point in the data collection—constitutes a narrative of subjective perspective(s). In accord with Borg (2006), I highly doubt that stimulated recall would be able to recollect what the instructor was thinking at that particular moment she is watching on the screen. If this were the goal, there would be a strong likelihood that the events' recollections were fashioned after the fact and not recalled as a mapping of reality of that moment. Therefore, in accord with my conceptualization of the emergence of subjective perspectives, I consider the verbalizations prompted by these sessions to be a construction of reality in that very moment. Therefore, it does not really matter whether or not what the participant says in her recall session is actually what she thought at the moment

witnessed on the screen. Instead, her subjective perspectives are constructed in the moment of her viewing by her verbalization of her thoughts. My data source consists of her narratives making sense of the screen actions and of other information she volunteers. This also implies that the stimulated recall need not be restricted to comments about classroom actions. I thus used the stimulated recall sessions in a more open-ended approach where the viewing triggered a train of thought about vocabulary acquisition topics but was still open to more general questions of language learning and teacher practice.

Stimulated recall procedure. I scheduled the stimulated recall sessions no later than two days after the recorded observation⁹⁰ to ensure that beliefs stated at particular times in the term could be associated with classroom practices of that time period and arranged to meet in an unused office so we would not be disturbed. I set up a laptop monitor and positioned a camcorder at an angle that allowed me to record a frontal view of the participants while they were watching the classroom recordings on the monitor. I then briefly explained the procedure, telling the instructors that they could stop the classroom recording at any time if they wished to share their thoughts on anything they considered noteworthy. The first stimulated recall sessions started with more general comments about student/teacher interaction. At some point during each class, students wrote a seven-minute vocabulary quiz, which offered a convenient opportunity to steer the conversation toward issues of vocabulary learning and teaching. At this point, I still kept explicit questions about vocabulary to a minimum, but participants sometimes volunteered information that I could relate to vocabulary learning or teaching, and I then followed up on

⁹⁰ This scheduling was not possible in Sofia's last session because she felt ill. Her last stimulated recall was therefore scheduled for five days later.

their comment(s) by asking a question.⁹¹ By allowing participants to voice their thoughts, reflections, associations, and memories at their own discretion, I could elicit information I would not have been able to access in a more rigidly structured session.

However, not being able to ask straightforward questions about my area of interest was the down-side of this open-ended procedure in the first stimulated recall session. After the second observation, I disclosed the focus of my research and was then able to explicitly ask participants to reflect on vocabulary teaching or learning conveyed by incidences they were witnessing on the screen. I had decided to disclose the focus of my research as late as possible to ensure that participants would not unduly favour vocabulary teaching in their classroom practice. It also helped minimize desirability bias during the interviews; participants might try to meet expectations by over-reporting beliefs they felt to be more in accord with their institution's curriculum (e.g., the position on monolingual instruction that was discussed in their TA workshops). I assumed, based on my experience in my pilot study research, that vocabulary learning and teaching would be addressed voluntarily by my participants without any prompting from me. The likelihood of this happening was high because I recorded lessons that took place as new chapters were being taught, and these classes typically focus more on the chapter's new words and phrases. I could predict that the lesson plan of these classes would cover material in this usual way because (a) I had experience teaching this class level at this university, (b) I was familiar with the TA lesson planning sessions, and (c) I was familiar with the textbook design and chapter layout that suggested reviewing and introducing new words in this particular way at the beginning of each chapter. My intention to learn more about teachers' beliefs about

⁹¹ For example, one participant watching a scene from her classroom teaching where she had cupped her ear and asked her students to listen to the recording expressed surprise over her use of contextualizing gestures in class. I followed up by questioning whether she had ever considered incorporating the deliberate use of gestures into her lesson plans.

vocabulary acquisition and pedagogy became more and more apparent in the later data collection procedures.

The third procedure—a concept map assignment—focuses even more explicitly on vocabulary acquisition and pedagogical beliefs. The two parts of this procedure, the drawing process and the adjunct discussion/interview, are discussed in the next segment.

4.2.3.3 Concept mapping

This data collection technique has participants organizing their understanding of a concept in a graphic form.

Concept maps in past research. Some studies (Kallenbach, 1996; Lim, 2011) use concept mapping and its variations in a more structured way by providing the written elements beforehand or by rewording participants' contributions (e.g., autobiographical entries, interview transcripts). In her research on the subjective theories⁹² of students of foreign language instruction, Kallenbach uses concept mapping as a validation procedure designed to reach consensus between what the researcher understands and what the participant intended to say. She adapted a research technique developed by Groeben et al. in 1988 (known as the *Heidelberger Struktur-Lege-Technik*⁹³) which follows these sequential steps:

- the researcher identifies key concepts in the interview scripts and writes them out on cards,

⁹² Kallenbach uses the term subjective theories.

⁹³ See Groeben et al., 1988, for a detailed description of the complex card system documenting relations between concepts and the use of this technique in foreign language research.

- the researcher arranges these cards as a concept map in a way that reflects her understanding of the relationships between these key concepts but does not show this map yet,
- the researcher discusses what is written on the cards with the interviewee and makes changes on the cards when/if necessary,
- the interviewee places these cards in a concept map that conveys her understanding of the relations between the key concepts, and
- the researcher and the interviewee compare their concept maps and reach a consensus by jointly creating a layout.

In past teacher cognition research, a number of studies use concept mapping to elicit differences between experienced and less experienced teachers (Mergendoller & Sachs, 1994) or to elicit conceptual changes over the course of teacher education programs (Lim, 2011; Morine-Dershimer, 1993), but researchers such as Kagan (1990) and Borg (2006) caution that perceived changes may reflect increased knowledge about the subject matter rather than cognitive changes. Based partly on these concerns, Meijer (1999) suggests that concept mapping as a research technique cannot stand on its own and that explanatory procedures such as follow-up interviews should be done in conjunction with them. Furthermore, it is difficult to compare data across subjects because the concept map drawing itself is a highly individual process and product. Quantitative analysis poses particular problems because results are

idiosyncratic and cannot therefore be easily compared (Borg, 2006).⁹⁴ The objective for using concept mapping in my qualitative research is that it examines the concept map creation as the site where the construction of ideas unfolds. Even though I find Kallenbach's use of this technique intriguing for the purpose of reaching a consensus between the researcher's understanding and the interviewee's intention, I focused more on the process of its creation by allowing participants to explain their product in their own words without my first having provided an interpretation. In this study, concept mapping is therefore used as part of the data collection and not as a validation procedure. However, another aspect Kallenbach highlights is crucial to the understanding of concept mapping as data collection with respect to subjective perspectives. As I noted in Chapter 2, her view of verbalization as a site of subjective theory construction is important, and I see evidence of this intermental dialogue in the writing down of ideas. The following paragraph describes the use of concept mapping and the follow-up explanatory procedure in my doctoral research in more detail. This concept mapping has two parts: the drawing and the follow-up discussion/ interview.

Concept map drawing in the present study. A week after the last stimulated recall session, I invited my participants to a twenty-minute-long video-recorded concept map drawing session in a more private setting. The artistic component of these sessions approaches the construction of knowledge in a non-linear creative way. Participants could highlight concepts, link them, and

⁹⁴ Lim (2011) uses concept maps as part of his quantitative research but the process of their creation is largely ignored in his work. Instead, his analysis is more concerned with the final product (e.g., by statistically analyzing multiple subjects' placement of entries and their proximity to other subjects' placements). Lim (2011) thus utilizes a concept map method to explore how the autobiographical reflections of 90 Korean pre-service English language teachers impacts their professional identity formation. Using a multidimensional scaling and hierarchical cluster analysis, Lim identifies six thematic clusters in his subjects' autobiographies. He then filters statements from pre-service teacher autobiographies and rewords the prevalent statements. After writing them on cards, he then asks participants to arrange them as a concept map and then analyzes the cluster formation of these arrangements.

erase their entries to rewrite or reword them, thus engaging in an inner dialogue of sense-making *before* they had to communicate their thoughts coherently to a second party. Concept mapping is typically described as three sequential stages: (1) generating ideas, (2) sorting and organization idea as an internal dialogue, and (3) representing ideas on the map (Novak & Gowin, 1997; Novak, 1998). However, in my pilot study concept map drawing sessions, I observed that these steps did not necessarily occur sequentially. This observation led to the insight that the process of drawing was itself a site of knowledge construction and not merely a site of knowledge documentation. I therefore video recorded,⁹⁵ transcribed, and analyzed the twenty-minute drawing sessions, too. My objectives for using this technique focused on the participants' drawing and map creation as the site where subjective perspectives were expressed by weaving narratives infused with their conceptualizations of their past experiences, their views on vocabulary learning and pedagogy, how they positioned themselves as language instructors, and their classroom practices. This research technique approached the issue at hand holistically by considering the fact that, although the resulting product was structured and coherent, its creation was multi-faceted and complex. This creative process and what it produced were then discussed in the follow-up discussion and interview.

Semi-structured concept map discussion and interview. As mentioned before, neither the content (*product*) of the concept map drawing nor its creation (*process*) indicate everything teachers believe or know about vocabulary acquisition and pedagogy. Teachers may simply forget to include some portion of their related thoughts. Therefore, explanatory concept map discussions and follow-up interviews are a crucial part of this research technique because the

⁹⁵ The video camera was positioned on a tripod to the left in front of the poster board so that it captured the drawing and the participants' upper torso.

concept map as a reflective action may give teachers freedom in choosing what to disclose and how, but it may not provide sufficient data with regard to the research question. The following paragraph explains how I dealt with these challenges.

The one-hour-long follow-up sessions had two parts. First, the concept map provided a framework for participants to present their thoughts at their own pace; it gave them the lead to disclose what they wanted to in the manner and sequence of their own choice. Second, I had prepared a rough draft of topics I wished to address. Since I did not want to split up the time into two noticeable parts and possibly repeat questions, I used a note-taking method⁹⁶ that allowed me to unobtrusively track which topics my participants had addressed. The points of a pentagram represented the topics I was interested in exploring. These included:

- own language learning experiences,
- own teaching experiences,
- teacher education experiences,
- knowledge about vocabulary, and
- knowledge about vocabulary pedagogy.

Every time my subjects spoke about one of these topics, I placed a small mark in the appropriate corner of the pentagram. If one of these themes was under-represented, I then introduced this topic with a structuring interview question. Thus, the interrelated open-ended sequences and more structured parts comprised a semi-structured interview. I, as the researcher, was now more actively involved and asked more questions. Whereas I had used silence and pauses in the stimulated recall sessions to invite further explorations, I now asked questions

⁹⁶ I designed this note-taking grid in a star shape. Every point represented an aspect I wished to address. Whenever the participants mentioned a theme I marked it down as a little cross. Closeness to the star points represented how closely their narrative could be related to the theme.

more explicitly. Kvale (1996) describes these types of questions as (a) follow-up questions [Can you explain this in more detail?/*Kannst du das bitte genauer erklären?*⁹⁷], (b) specifying questions [How did you react?/*Wie hast du denn darauf reagiert?*], (c) probing questions [What do you mean?/*Wie meinst du das?*], and (d) structuring questions [I have a question about.../*Ich habe noch eine Frage zu...*]. Occasionally, I also rephrased what the participants had said in a questioning tone of voice and then expanded on that by asking a question in my next turn. The concept mapping technique is described above as one that explicitly addressed my research interests, but I found my survey to be the most straightforward way to elicit detailed data.

4.2.3.4 Survey

The survey included both open-ended questions and a questionnaire. I begin this segment by describing the use and design of questionnaires in teacher cognition research, particularly variations of Horwitz' 1988 *Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory* (BALLI). I then delineate how I adapted the questionnaire for use in my doctoral research and how I organized and implemented this procedure.

Horwitz' BALLI survey. The BALLI is widely used in learner and teacher cognition research. From the time Elaine Horwitz devised her first questionnaire in 1984, several variations have been used, and she has adapted the first version for use with ESL students (1987), for L2 teachers (1985),⁹⁸ and for L2 language learners (1988). Her 1987 survey includes a Likert scale where she presents 34 statements about language learning. She groups them as *foreign language aptitude, difficulty in language learning, nature of language learning,*

⁹⁷ These are examples taken from the concept map transcripts.

⁹⁸ Kuntz (1996) provides a reprint of Horwitz' 1985 original BALLI survey. My version with a focus on vocabulary is in the [Appendix F](#).

communication strategies, and *motivation*. Kuntz (1996), and Borg (2006) provide comprehensive overviews of this questionnaire's adaptations and use in other studies on learner and teacher beliefs about language learning. For example, Peacock (1998, 2001) uses a variation of the BALLI to determine changes in teacher beliefs over the course of a three-year teacher education program. Kern (1995) uses a version of the BALLI to compare university instructors' beliefs to those of their 288 students.

The adaptation of the BALLI survey for use in the present study. My adaptation of the BALLI presented 34 statements related to vocabulary learning and teaching that can be categorized as (1) vocabulary learning aptitude; (2) the nature of vocabulary learning; and (3) the nature of best practices teaching vocabulary. After the concept mapping, I asked participants to complete the survey and to rate the 34 statements on a 5-point Likert scale from strongly agree to strongly disagree. These statements were followed by three open-ended questions that asked teachers to describe their best practices when introducing a new word and when aiding students with their vocabulary retention. The second part of the survey asked participants to report on learning strategies that they, as teachers, recommend to their students. The objective for these statements is based on discourse in present-day teacher education wherein students are encouraged to take responsibility for their learning effort and teachers are asked to help students identify ways of learning vocabulary that work best for them (CEFRL⁹⁹; Nation, 2001; Nation & Webb, 2011; Schmitt, 2000). The compilation of these strategies was

⁹⁹ Updated version of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment (CEFRL), http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/source/framework_en.pdf

based on Schmitt's (1997) strategy taxonomy. Again, the statements are scaled on a five-point Likert scale ranging from "I never tell students" to "I always tell students".¹⁰⁰

Apart from the primary data sources described above, I included data sources on the periphery of these scheduled procedures. These are described next as *other data sources*.

4.2.3.5 Other data sources

The wealth of my data was compiled in the scheduled procedures, but I also included data sources that provide an overall comprehensive understanding of the processes involved in the data collection and, later, in the data analysis. Thus, I included my audit trail and the teaching materials and comments related to my researcher persona, considering both to be elements in this research that have an impact on the process of data collection and the subsequent data analysis.

Audit trail: Field notes, memos, and my research journal. Patricia Duff suggests that it is useful to establish a "chain of evidence" in the form of an audit trail for case-study-based research (2008, p. 109). She believes this necessary step links the inner logic of decision making with the data in a comprehensive way that creates a chain of evidence allowing us to speak about an issue with authority (Bachman, 2004; Duff, 2008; Gall et al., 2005). My audit trail includes field notes, mind maps, memos, and a research journal.

Apart from the note-taking grid I described previously, I did not take field notes during the one-on-one sessions with my participants or during the classroom observations. First, I had chosen to leave the classrooms and to video record the classroom observations instead. Secondly, I simply found it too challenging in the interview sessions to follow my participants' train of

¹⁰⁰ See the survey in the [Appendix F](#).

thought and to anticipate where it might be heading, to mentally prepare follow-up questions, and to document their responses at the same time. Instead, I again used pentagram grids to structure my questions in preparation for the interview. With regard to data documentation, the video recordings provided an accurate account of what had been said, by whom, and when. As discussed above, they also allowed me to revisit these narratives repeatedly. My field notes therefore refer less to the content of what was being said and more to the setting and any special circumstances that arose (e.g., technical glitches). However, I wrote memos whenever I noticed something I wished to explore further. These memos included facts (e.g., I noted a day when one instructor felt particularly tired) as well as my impressions and feelings about the data collection process. I was aware of the fact that I had asked my subjects to commit classroom time and considerable personal time to meet with me for the interview sessions. I also used these memos for first coding drafts. These, in particular, were written and stored on the NVivo qualitative research site so that I could easily access and retrieve them via word searches. Memoing in NVivo also allowed me to tag an incident in the video recording to particular background information, thus allowing me to code nonverbal elements as well.

I also kept a research journal. I used it largely for keeping a log of events, structuring my timeline, keeping track of my transcription progress, and organizing my data collection. I also used it to jot down ideas or references to relevant literature, to draft my questionnaire, to structure ideas as mind maps, and to document feedback. Most importantly, I used it to reflect on my position as a researcher in this study. Asking participants to reflect on their beliefs, assumptions, and knowledge about vocabulary learning and teaching invariably triggers one's

own reflections and memories. The journal thus became the site for my internal dialogue and my own narratives.

Teaching materials. To facilitate greater understanding of my participants' teaching setting, I also compiled teaching material relevant for their classroom teaching. As mentioned above, I had taught GER101 classes myself and was therefore familiar with the textbook design, the classroom material, the course management site, the grading schemes, the vocabulary tests, and the TA meetings. In order to relate to the specific material used in the classes I observed, I also asked for copies of the TA lesson plans and the handouts used in these particular classes. These helped me recognize what instructors were referring to when they mentioned, for example, that they did a particular activity in a different way than in the proposed lesson plan. How my participants' textbook dealt with vocabulary learning and teaching provided insight into what these participants had access to and what they characterized as activities they favoured in their interviews. These additional data sources enriched my ability to describe what my participants encountered within their institutional setting.

The Researcher Persona. At some point in the discussion of quality criteria in case studies and narrative inquiry, the question arises what impact the researcher persona has on the collection and analysis of the data. It seems to be an incompatible construct to balance the criteria of research objectivity and the subjectivity of the researcher persona. However, in my discussion on quality criteria for narrative inquiries and my description of subjective theories in chapter 2, I presented Riessman's (1993, 2003) notion that the common research demand to present "the truth" needs to be replaced by "truths" which are constructed by the different

stakeholders in this research endeavour (the participants, the researcher, and readers). As Duff points out:

Most qualitative researchers, especially poststructuralists, do not see subjectivity as a major issue, as something that can or should be eliminated. Rather, they see it as an inevitable engagement with the world in which meanings and realities are constructed (not just discovered) and in which a researcher is very much present. (2008, p. 56)

With this in mind, I recognize that research methods and findings are inevitably influenced by my perspectives and values. My own subjectivity is determined by who I am and by how and why I became the person I am. In the context of my doctoral research, the following is thus important to note: My research interest in vocabulary pedagogy is the result of my own bilingual upbringing; my interest in teacher education is based on teaching foreign, second, and first languages in the context of various institutional settings to various age groups over many years; my own immersion context has shaped my understanding of learning languages; and my current position as a mature graduate student has led me to reflect on how I position myself as a researcher, scholar, teacher, and student. It is therefore not so much a question of whether my research persona has had an impact on data collection and analysis, but more a matter of being vigilant that the co-construction of knowledge between my person and my research subjects remains clearly balanced in favour of giving my participants a voice. With this in mind, I adhered to the following interviewer guidelines:

- being aware how much I talk,¹⁰¹
- avoiding leading questions, and
- prompting by silence rather than questions.

¹⁰¹ I did a word count on my input compared to that of my participants and calculated the ratio as 1:8.

I also offered my participants the option to conduct our interviews in either German or English.¹⁰² I developed a working rapport with them by maintaining a friendly atmosphere during our interviews, but I did not socialize with them during the data collection term. With respect to the data analysis, I made note of how my researcher persona may have influenced my analysis whenever this circumstance seemed relevant. However, despite any precautions one might take, it remains a challenge (and in essence impossible) for the researcher to distance herself from the participants' subjectivity in their reconstructive narratives.

4.2.4 Methods of data organization and coding principles

This section addresses how I stored and transcribed data and made it accessible to coding. The general principle underlying this qualitative research's characterization as an explorative inquiry is that I did not start my coding by investigating a phenomenon discovered beforehand; instead, my intent was to identify recurring key themes.¹⁰³ To do so, the data had to be accessible in a way that would allow for repeated reading and processing.

Preparing data for coding. My coding principles were informed by Richards and Morse's (2002) description of analytic coding. I compare the individual steps I took to a spiral approach where data is read and viewed repeatedly before themes gradually emerge and can be identified. This process was made easier by the NVivo software that I used to create transcripts with time stamps, to store the large video files and to write the first memos.¹⁰⁴ During the next coding step, I printed the transcripts now colour-coding the instances I had identified as belonging to distinct categories (e.g., mention of past learner experience). Using colour-coded tags allowed

¹⁰² All three instructors felt more comfortable speaking German.

¹⁰³ Some researchers refer to this process as "finding the chunks in the chicken noodle soup." I personally prefer the image of forces underlying wave formation or that of a tapestry where the pattern slowly becomes apparent.

¹⁰⁴ NVivo calls the coding steps nodes.

me to identify correlations between phenomena more easily because they were visually displayed as coloured tags on the outside of my transcript binders. In the third coding cycle, I returned to the video recordings on NVivo and tracked the sequences I had colour-coded. I could now watch these sequences again and focus on other details (e.g., gesture usage, classroom interactions, and students' reactions). I also reviewed the transcripts of sequences that were of particular interest to gather even more details. I then grouped instances of a certain phenomenon on mind maps, jotting down key quotes and arranging them in a way that prepared them for analysis.

Transcripts. I transcribed my data in the language spoken. With the exception of code switches and a few short spoken interludes, this was German. I then solicited the services of an English translator to translate those transcript parts I used as examples in this dissertation. The translation is as close as possible to the German text and follows the same format and design of the original German transcript (see [Appendix G](#)).

The data transcription was completed in several steps, with each step adding more and more detail. My first draft transcript followed an adapted version of GAT¹⁰⁵ conventions for minimal transcripts. But, since I used the NVivo software for the transcription, the units of speech were determined by content in this first draft, and the software added the time automatically. When I reworked these transcripts, I added nonverbal information in square brackets, created screenshots of instances where the visual information helped understand the context, and prepared passages I intended to quote by rearranging the main lines if necessary (see below). These transcripts are included as tables in the dissertation. They are identified by source,

¹⁰⁵ Gesprächsanalytisches Transkriptionssystem (GAT) by Selting et al. (2009).

speaker, and start time. For example, in the header [stim_1_Jana_13:05], *stim _1* refers to the first stimulated recall recording. This is followed by the name of the participant (e.g., *Jana*). The time refers to the starting minute of this sequence on the video-recording (e.g., *13:05*). The table below provides further information on the symbols I used.

Table 2 Descriptions of symbols used in transcriptions

Time	Text spoken and symbols used	Speaker ID
<p>The precise time was automatically inserted by the NVivo software. This enabled me to track these sequences easily for screenshots.</p> <p>The numbers refer to speech units. These are set arbitrarily based on themes in the conversation or turn takes</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ words are not capitalized ▪ all transcribed words follow the German/English orthography ▪ (.) short pause ▪ (..) medium pause ▪ (...) long pause ▪ (10s) duration of pause indicated in seconds ▪ [] nonverbal information (e.g., [gesture: pointing movement with right index finger]; [instructor walks up to student M.]) ▪ all utterances are transcribed as they were spoken in standard German/English spelling (e.g., re(.)return) ▪ deviations from standard German/English are transcribed as they are (e.g., <i>weil das will ich nicht</i>) ▪ segments, for example filled pauses, are added as they sound in German (e.g., <i>hmm</i>) ▪ segments are translated as they would sound in English (e.g., <i>eh</i>) ▪ no punctuation marks are added ▪ usually stress is not marked, but exceptional stress patterns are indicated by the two first letters of the stressed word in capital letters (e.g., <i>Nicht</i>) ▪ code switches English/German and German/English are in italics 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ speakers' ID only indicated at a turn take ▪ student speakers identified by the first letter of their name when addressed (e.g., student M.) ▪ student speakers not identified by name are identified by gender (e.g., female student)

Utterances or lengthy pauses are entered on a main line. Each main line is either a turn, a short segment (e.g., *aha*), or has one sentence stress (e.g., *dafür habe ich keine zeit*). Screenshots of video-recordings used in the dissertation are anonymized using non-reversible digital software.

Chapter 5

Case Studies: Klara, Jana, and Sofia

Having argued for an explorative approach in a multi-case study and then describing the data collection procedures and my reasons for compiling my data as narratives, I now present the three case studies of Klara, Sofia, and Jana¹⁰⁶ in sequence. I highlight their individual recurring themes and discuss and analyze their prevalent subjective perspective constructions. In the conclusion and discussion of my results, I then compare and discuss key themes as they appear across all three participants' cases.

Every case study is itself a narrative and projects its own dynamic in the telling of the story. That noted, I follow the same basic pattern in each explication. I first introduce the participants' narratives of their language learning and teaching background, then I provide a brief summary of their beliefs about vocabulary learning and teaching, and finally, I delineate the recurring themes and subthemes that thread through the participants' narratives discussing them in detail as participants most salient subjective perspectives. Each detailed account includes quotations from their narratives that describe how participants' subjective perspectives emerge in recounting their personal experiences. These subjective perspectives are then illustrated with reference to examples from their classroom teaching. Every case study's *leitmotif* is introduced by a quote which captures the essence of that informant's subjective perspectives. Presenting the case studies in this way is in itself a metanarrative weaving patterns of what was told, what was remembered, what was assigned by participants' voices with my analysis. Whenever

¹⁰⁶ All names are pseudonyms.

possible, narrator perspectives are distinguished by an opening phrase or by my choice of the present form.

Klara

*Sprachen lernen fällt mir einfach verhältnismäßig leicht.
Also in Mathe war ich superschlecht.
Aber Sprachen, das war einfach schon immer mein Ding.
Klara*

5.1 Klara – Da hab ich einfach mal den Begriff erfunden *systematische Variation*

In Klara's subjective perspectives about vocabulary learning and teaching we can identify a recurring principal theme that can be characterized as *systematische Variation* [systematic variation] threaded through the narratives of her own language learning experience, her teacher education, and her reflection-on-action. It captures the essence of how Klara wants to teach vocabulary. I track Klara's subjective perspectives with the underlying leitmotif of *systematische Variation* in Klara's case study data by retelling and analyzing Klara's story in the following. I first outline Klara's language learning background and her pre-service teacher education. Next, I briefly summarize what Klara has to say about vocabulary learning and teaching. By drawing on examples from her narratives, I demonstrate how her own experiences as a learner, a teacher in training, and as a teacher informed the construction of her subjective perspectives. I conclude by analyzing a segment of film capturing a classroom interaction which exemplifies how Klara's leitmotif is reflected in her classroom practices.

5.1.1 Klara's secondary and post-secondary language learning background

Klara is a plurilingual speaker. German is her first language, and she reports that she is also a highly proficient speaker of English and French. At the time of data collection, Klara was a twenty-five-year-old PAD teaching assistant at a Canadian university. She came from a German-speaking family background and had lived in Germany for most of her life, attending a

German kindergarten and elementary school and then graduating from a German high school [*Gymnasium*] that offers the type of degree [*Hochschulreife*] required to go on to tertiary education. At the age of eleven, Klara began learning her first foreign language, English, from Grade 5 through Grade 12. French classes were introduced in Grade 7 and continued until Grade 12 in her high school. Taking part in an English student exchange program in Grade 11, Klara went to Australia for one year, where she lived with a host family and attended an Australian high school. Upon her return, Klara completed high school in Germany and then enrolled in a five-year teacher training program at a German university majoring in French and English. Half way through her university studies, she participated in a six-month student exchange program in France.

At the time of data collection, Klara had just begun her teaching assistant position in Canada. She viewed this second English immersion experience as an enjoyable break from her studies. While residing in Canada, she shared an apartment with Canadian university students in an effort to further improve her English language skills. Following her eight-month stay in Canada, Klara planned to return to Germany for the second part of her teacher education program, a two-year teacher internship.

Klara stated that language learning had always been one of her academic strengths. She achieved good grades and liked learning languages. Her positive attitude toward language learning combined with the inspiration provided by a particular teacher who acted as a role model encouraged her to choose language teaching as her own career goal.

5.1.2 Klara's teacher education and teaching experience

Klara had recently completed the first part of her teacher training [*I. Staatsexamen*], majoring in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) and Teaching French as a Foreign Language (TFFL). In her concept map discussion, she recalls that only a few of her university classes dealt with foreign language pedagogy, and none of them targeted vocabulary learning and teaching. She states that most of her university classes were literary studies aimed at improving her own language skills and content competency in the target languages of French and English. However, she remembers being introduced to concepts of the mental lexicon in one of her classes on language processing. She found these particularly interesting and later refers to them repeatedly in her narratives about vocabulary learning beliefs. Klara notes that *authenticity, constructivism, learner-centred teaching, and task-oriented learning* were recurring key terms in her teacher training, but she does not explain these in detail in her narratives. Prior to her move to Canada, she had had little experience teaching on her own, having taught only a few classes during a four-week practicum that comprised part of her teacher training.¹⁰⁷

At the Canadian university where she is enrolled in the Certificate of University Language Teaching program, she participates in weekly tutorials, team-teaching, lesson planning, and language pedagogy workshops. At the beginning of my data collection, Klara had just begun teaching two beginner German classes. In her first interview, she states that she is looking forward to this experience because she believes it will provide valuable preparation for her

¹⁰⁷ In these short internships, pre-service teachers are usually paired with experienced teachers (mentors) and they help them with activities in class.

teacher training internship [*Referendariat*¹⁰⁸] upon her return to Germany. In her second interview toward the end of the term, she admits to feeling exhausted yet content at having done a good job. She expresses that contentment by describing the relaxed atmosphere she creates in class, her easygoing classroom management, her increasing ability to evaluate her students' progress, and her adeptness at assessing their learning preferences. She thinks the vocabulary workload is heavy yet fair, and assumes that her students think so, too.

5.1.3 Klara's subjective perspectives on vocabulary teaching and learning

Klara verbalizes her cognitions of vocabulary in her narratives. The following section briefly summarizes these and then goes into more detail relating them to her *systematische Variation* leitmotif.

- Words are represented in our mental lexicon in ways that connect them semantically, grammatically, and morphologically, a process which then helps learners retain and retrieve words.
- Vocabulary learning and teaching should have elements of systematicity (e.g., modified input, scaffolded activities, and regular testing).
- The most effective way to learn vocabulary in a foreign language is in a study-abroad context.
- New vocabulary should be introduced by contextualizing word meaning with gestures, images, and references to word fields. Activities should be engaging and varied.

Translations into L1 should be avoided whenever possible.

¹⁰⁸ *Referendariat* is usually a two-year internship that ends with a final comprehensive exam and thesis [*Zweites Staatsexamen*].

- Teachers are responsible for their students' learning progress and should develop teaching techniques in structured ways which then guide their students' vocabulary learning (e.g., test students' progress regularly, correct errors, advise them on learning strategies, and assign activities which help students retain vocabulary better).
- Teachers should promote a learner-centred teaching approach.
- Students should take more and more responsibility for their vocabulary learning once they reach a threshold proficiency level.

Systematische Variation. Klara suggests the term *systematic variation* to describe her vocabulary teaching principles. In the following sections, I demonstrate that the source of this conceptualization can be seen in her lived experiences during her formal teacher education, her own language learning experience (*apprenticeship of observation*), and her reflections on classroom action.

Klara's term is made up of two components: the *systematic* and the *varied*. These can be seen as two sides of the same coin, as complementary qualities with the adjective *systematic* being the modus operandi of variation, thus suggesting that diversity, or variation, should be systematic. Klara's narratives are infused with references to the systematic and the varied. For example, when she suggests vocabulary input in her classroom, she prefers to have it modified in a systematic way, yet presented in a variety of activities. In her own learner experience, she encountered both systematic, structured input in the context of a foreign language classroom but also unlimited access to target language input in an immersion context. She values both. Therefore, explicit vocabulary practice can be seen as one side of the coin—as systematic

foreign language instruction, while implicit, unstructured, and varied input can be seen as the other side—unpredictable variation in immersion.

Using quotations from her narratives, I now explore these aspects in more detail. Since Klara voices many of her thoughts regarding her subjective perspectives in her concept map discussion, I tell her story by presenting and analyzing these perspectives in a way that echoes the sequential order of her concept map drawing:¹⁰⁹ (1) her teacher education, (2) her language learning biography, and (3) her classroom actions.

Klara starts her concept map discussion by mentioning the mental lexicon as the conceptualization of vocabulary learning that she found most intriguing in her teacher education at university. Then she addresses how teachers contribute to the learning progress of their students by applying the principles of systematic and varied. Finally, she refers to her own language learning experience dividing it into her years of formal instruction and her immersion experiences. My analysis therefore first addresses Klara's perceptions of theoretical concepts that were honed during her formative years at university. I then outline their relationship to her *apprenticeship of observation* in her own language learning experience, and finally, I demonstrate how Klara's principle of systematic variation is currently manifested in her reflection-on-action.¹¹⁰

5.1.3.1 Teacher education

Klara's narratives often begin with issues of pedagogy and teacher formation: How should she best teach vocabulary as an educated instructor? Klara's concern is highlighted by her first

¹⁰⁹ See the sequential stages of Klara's concept map in [Appendix H](#)

¹¹⁰ This term is borrowed from Schön (1987), who distinguishes between reflection-in-action as a teachers' decision making while teaching, and reflection-on-action as either part of a review after class or, in a broader sense, as engagement with theoretical discourse. See Bailey's (2012) comprehensive overview of key issues regarding different dimensions of reflection.

concept map entry,¹¹¹ “during studies and as a teacher” [*im Studium und als Lehrerin*]. Klara is obviously mindful of the importance of teachers’ actions in class. By making the teacher and teacher education the first entry on her concept map, Klara prioritizes these as the most important aspects of her beliefs on learning vocabulary. In fact, her sequencing draws attention to two things.

First, she addresses vocabulary acquisition principally from the perspective of the instructor: What is the instructor’s contribution to the learning process? What does she need to know? This emphasis of the instructor’s role in the learning process does, in fact, correspond neatly with the beliefs she later highlights in her survey responses.¹¹² Secondly, she values her teacher education highly and immediately draws upon it to explain her beliefs using concepts she had heard about in her teacher training (e.g., the mental lexicon as a network graph with nodes and interconnecting lines). This positions her as a trained educator and lends credibility to what she has to say about vocabulary learning and teaching.

The mental lexicon “im Gehirn irgendwie so verknüpft”. My analysis of Klara’s mental lexicon network drawing and her concept map discussion illustrates how she sees components of the systematic and the varied in her conceptualization of the mental lexicon model and how she uses this cognition as a guideline when she prepares her classroom activities.

In her concept map discussion, Klara points to a drawing on the left side of her concept map that depicts a network of nodes and interconnecting lines and states that she found this network model of how humans process language very intriguing [*super interessant*, 2:46].

¹¹¹ See Klara’s concept map drawing recreated as a 6-slide storyboard in the [Appendix H](#).

¹¹² See [Appendix F](#) for the survey.

Table 3 Concept map Klara: [Mental lexicon](#)

26	2:46.6 - 2:54.1	und (...) das fand ich halt super interessant die vorstellung dass also dass so die wörter im gehirn irgendwie so verknüpft sind	Klara
27	2:54.1 - 2:59.2	und nicht in einer liste (.) von a bis z (.) oder (.) weiß ich nicht in welcher form auch immer	
28	3:10.9 - 3:15.8	[k. refers to drawing in the top left corner and taps on her network drawing] also die punkte sind alle wörter die verbindungen laufen (..) kreuz und quer	
29	3:15.8 - 3:19.7	(.) und schräg und geradeaus und in alle richtungen	
30	3:19.7 - 3:24.3	und diese (..) assoziationen	
31	3:24.3 - 3:30.1	also die grünen linien sollen assoziationen sein und die sind dann auch noch einmal auf verschiedenen ebenen	
32	3:30.0 - 3:34.0	also auf phonologischer morphologischer semantischer grammatischer und so weiter	
[CM_K_2:46]			

Her reference to an alphabetical word list contrasts this network model of the mental lexicon with a storage model¹¹³ that often uses the metaphor of a dictionary to describe how words are compiled and organized in a linear way. The detail with which Klara describes this network model and her choice of words expressing her enthusiasm [*super interessant*, 2:47] indicate that she is recalling what she learned in university. Her attempt to put her understanding of this model into her own words shows how she strives to align her past experience in teacher education with her present teaching. At the same time, her interjections – “somehow” [*irgendwie,*] and “I do not know, whatever” [*weiß ich nicht in welcher Form auch immer*, 2:55] – signal some hesitancy. By recalling what she learned about the mental lexicon she is in the

¹¹³ See Chapter 3 on mental lexicon models.

process of making sense of it (and communicating this to the interviewer). The mental lexicon network model resonates with her, and she describes how it supports notions of the systematic and the varied. On one hand, she communicates the dialectic concept of randomness as *kreuz und quer* while, on the other hand, she expresses structuredness as a linking of associations in the brain [*im Gehirn irgendwie so verknüpft*]. She then details this conceptualization further by naming levels of word associations such as *phonological, morphological, semantic, and pragmatic*.¹¹⁴

Klara subsequently moves from theoretical considerations to the practical domain by providing examples of the phonological, morphological, semantic, and pragmatic in her classroom practice. After listing these levels on her map and marking the next entry with a bold red arrow, Klara pauses for a long time (72s). The video recording shows her deep in thought, with her head propped on her hand. She changes pens repeatedly before she finally chooses a bold turquoise colour for her entry of “*systematische Variation.*” She then picks up the same coloured pen she used for the mental lexicon and rapidly writes down examples for these levels of word associations. This spatial change marks her move from theoretical conceptualizations represented in her top left entries on the mental lexicon to the practical applications of vocabulary pedagogy evidenced in her entries on the bottom left-hand side. She starts with the semantic level by drawing a circle and then placing thematically related words in the middle of it.¹¹⁵ Then she addresses the morphological level by providing examples of endings that

¹¹⁴ What participants choose to tell is determined by what they know but also by how they wish to position themselves. Klara may have felt the need to appear competent and wished to impress the interviewer with her use of these linguistic terms.

¹¹⁵ house, apartment, rent, room, kitchen, utility costs, landlord, bedroom

typically indicate professions (*er*) and their female forms (*erin*).¹¹⁶ Finally, she writes down “at the phonological level” and highlights “word forms that sound similar yet have different meanings”, noting that these are examples from her classes. In her explanation of the concept map, Klara starts with the theoretical model and then explains its relevance for teaching.

Table 4 Concept map Klara: Systematische Variation

31	3:24.3 - 3:30.1	also die grünen linien sollen assoziationen sein und die sind dann auch noch einmal auf verschiedenen ebenen	Klara
(…)			
35	3:43.0 - 3:57.4	und davon ausgehend (..) uhm (.) finde ich muss man dann beim lernen wenn man sich vorstellt dass die muttersprache	Klara
36	3:57.3 - 3:58.9	also in den wörtern der muttersprache so verknüpft sind [gesture: makes little spiral movements on network drawing]	
37	3:58.9 - 4:07.9	und wenn wir eine neue sprache lernen die wörter sich (.) also diese verbindung aufgebaut werden sollen (.) muss man diese verschiedenen ebenen ansprechen	
38	4:08.0 - 4:15.0	und das ist(.) also hab ich einfach mal den begriff äh (.) erfunden(.) keine ahnung (.)	
39	4:15.0 - 4:18.3	dass man eine systematische variation macht	
40	4:18.3 - 4:20.5	also vari also dass man diese ebenen variiert	
41	4:20.5 - 4:27.4	aber (.) nicht irgendwie wie es einem gerade durch zufall einfällt sondern ein bisschen systematischer	
			[CM_K_3:24]

This transition to pedagogy is marked by her introduction of the learning task at hand [*und wenn wir eine Sprache neu lernen, 3:58*]. Her statement that we need to address the interactive

¹¹⁶ *Informatiker, Informatikerin; Elektriker, Elektrikerin*

associations between different levels [*muss man diese verschiedenen Ebenen ansprechen, 4:07*] is followed by her creation of what she believes to be the guiding principle for this process: systematic variation [*also hab ich einfach mal den Begriff äh (.) erfunden (.) keine Ahnung, dass man eine systematische Variation macht, 4:18*]. A closer analysis of her self-repairs, her pauses, and interjections such as “no clue” [*keine Ahnung, 4:14*] reveals how she strives to communicate her concept. Again she places emphasis on the systematic aspect and illustrates this with an example of semantic associations where thematically related words trigger knowledge of others in the same field.

Table 5 Concept map Klara: [Word networks](#)

42	4:27.4 - 4:32.3	ah (.) also dass man zum beispiel semantisch (.) äh in wortfeldern lernt	Klara
43	4:32.3 - 4:36.7	also (.) hier ein beispiel	
44	4:36.6 - 4:39.4	alles zu haus (.) wohnen miete nebenkosten zimmer	
45	4:39.4 - 4:58.8	so dass (...) wenn ich ein wort davon höre oder gebrauche dass dann im gehirn dass also dass ich die wörter im block zusammen lerne damit (.) ich ein wort davon höre oder benutzen will dass die anderen dann auch schon ein bisschen aktiviert werden	
46	4:58.8 - 5:02.0	uhumm sozusagen angestubst werden	interviewer
47	5:02.0 - 5:02.9	genau	Klara
48	5:02.9 - 5:18.4	(..) uhm oder wenn ich dann nen text lese in dem es irgendwie um mieten geht oder (.) uhm um ne wohnung dass ich fast schon auf dieses wortfeld eingestellt bin [gesture: clawlike hand gesture moved up and down over page. The tip of her fingers touch the graph and the circles]	
49	5:18.3 - 5:26.0	also dass (.) dass ich diese wörter fast erwarte und dadurch das verständnis erleichtert wird	
50	5:25.9 - 5:38.4	und deswegen denke ich	

		dass es sinnvoll ist in wortfeldern zu lernen also sich auch als lernende als lehrender sich so an der art solche krei solche bilder zu malen	
51	5:38.4 - 5:43.9	wo man alle wörter in einem wortfeld zusammen in ein feld packt	
			[CM_K_4:27]

But this short passage illustrates more than just the fact that she thinks the systematic is helpful in learning words; it also reveals how Klara relates this notion to her own learner experience because, interestingly, she changes the agent in her description. By moving the narrator perspective from the instructor's view to the first-person view of a student, she intertwines how she teaches with how she was taught and with how she would want to teach, thus mingling present, past, and future by her choice of agency in her subjective perspective. This move is described in more detail below.¹¹⁷

Klara switches from the use of the generic one [*man*] and somebody [*einem*], to the possible interpretation of teacher or learner [*dass man diese Ebenen variiert*, 4:20], [*wie es einem gerade durch Zufall einfällt*, 4:24], and [*also dass man zum Beispiel semantisch (.) äh in Wortfeldern lernt*, 4:27], to the learner perspective represented by the use of the first person singular pronoun *ich* [*so dass (..) wenn ich ein Wort davon höre oder gebrauche*, 4:40], [*dass ich die Wörter im Block zusammen lerne*, 4:58], [*dass ich fast schon auf dieses Wortfeld eingestellt bin*, 5:18], and [*dass ich diese Wörter fast erwarte*, 5:20]. Klara then reverts to the teacher perspective initiated by her change from the person being instructed [*Lernende*] to the person instructing [*Lehrende*]. Finally, this transition remains in limbo because she is using the

¹¹⁷ The relevant German pronouns are bolded.

generic *one* [*man*] which can refer to both a person being instructed and the instructor [*wo man alle Wörter in einem Wortfeld zusammen in ein Feld packt*, 5:38].

A similar process occurs during Klara's description of morphological associations. In her explanation of the morphological associative level, Klara clearly identifies with her task as being like that of an informant who should point out ways to analyze language in a systematic way to her students.

Table 6 Concept map Klara: [Morphological principles](#)

52	5:43.9 - 5:55.6	ja (.) und auf morphologischer ebene dass man (.) typische wortendungen zum beispiel erkennen kann	Klara
53	5:55.5 - 6:01.6	oder ja die die die lernenden darauf aufmerksam macht zum beispiel bei berufen	
(...)			
63	6:44.5 - 6:53.9	oder (..) ja (.) ich weiß grad kein anderes beispiel mehr aber dass er wenn er den begriff hat wie zum beispiel informatik	
64	6:53.8 - 6:59.0	dass er weiß, (.) wenn er e r [spelled out] daran hängt dass dann ist die wahrscheinlichkeit ziemlich groß ist dass das der beruf dazu ist	
65	6:59.0 - 7:05.4	und schließlich also das ist jetzt das waren jetzt beispiele uhm sind beispiele aus meinen kursen	
[CM_K_5:43]			

In her concrete examples, Klara positions herself as the instructor again [*das waren jetzt Beispiele uhm () sind Beispiele aus meinen Kursen*, 7:04]. I argue that the way Klara's

statements deliberately position her as agent—whether learner or instructor—indicates how she relates her own learning experience to her teaching practice. When we look at her narrative about her language learner experience, we are reminded of how Klara sees her female teacher as a role model who is both knowledgeable of these concepts (mental lexicon network models) and who, according to her own judgment, knows how to implement teaching principles based on them. This leads to another strong influence on Klara’s subjective perspectives: her lived experience as a language learner.

5.1.3.2 Klara’s apprenticeship of observation

I turn now to relating how Klara’s *apprenticeship of observation*¹¹⁸ plays a pivotal role in her cognition where, again, the systematic, the varied, and the systematic variation can be seen to thread through her narratives.

Klara’s vocabulary learning experience. Klara’s vocabulary acquisition in foreign languages is characterized by a formal educational setting where vocabulary is introduced systematically. In this school setting, she experiences a variety of teaching methods depending on her instructors’ individual preferences regarding how to structure their classroom discourse. Her elderly, middle-school English teacher, for example, favours an IRE interaction (initiation, response, evaluation). He is very strict and follows an explicit, structured lesson plan with teacher-driven input and few interactive classroom activities. Even though Klara now distances herself from such a teaching approach, she affirms that, much to her surprise, she learned a lot. She reports that later teachers focus more on the type of interactive vocabulary learning activities she now favours herself. For example, they contextualize words by embedding them

¹¹⁸ This term is borrowed from Lortie (1975).

in sentences or by providing visuals. They initiate role-play activities and introduce a variety of different listening comprehension tasks into their classes. Klara mentions that these teaching techniques are supported by the teaching philosophy specified in her high school textbook,¹¹⁹ where vocabulary activities vary yet are treated in a very systematic way. In *Skyline Advanced*, vocabulary activities are scaffolded and organized thematically by chapter. Words and phrases are presented in word lists that consist of an English word or phrase followed by a second column consisting of a drawing, a definition, or a sample sentence. In the third column, the German translation is provided. This design supports vocabulary acquisition as a systematic, incremental accumulation of words and phrases where these are conceptualized as “building blocks” of the target language.

Next, Klara describes her teachers’ methodological choices as very systematic. In her first foreign language class in Grade 5, Klara’s teachers ask their students to copy new words into a vocabulary booklet and to practice them daily. They supervise the completion of homework and administer weekly vocabulary tests. Students in her Grade 7 French class are were given a choice between continuing to write in their booklets or beginning to use their *Phase 6*¹²⁰ online vocabulary trainer. The teachers instruct students who are using *Phase 6* to print the access logs as proof of their completed homework. Klara describes the implementation of this software and her ambiguity regarding its merits in her concept map discussion. The following passages from her concept map, where she explains her use of the vocabulary trainer *Phase 6* and her systematic use of dictionaries, exemplify her systematic learner experience. This is then

¹¹⁹ Skyline Advanced Level; Password to Skyline Plus; Klett Verlag.

¹²⁰ *Phase 6* is a vocabulary-learning software based on the principles of spaced learning. Its authors base their scaffolded practice on Ebbinghaus’ learning curve of spaced practice. See the glossary for Ebbinghaus’ forgetting curve.

contrasted to her immersion experience as the open-ended, varied aspect of her learner experience.

Klara starts using the *Phase 6* software in her Grade 7 French class. She reports that she initially appreciates the focus on accuracy, as the software disciplines every small spelling mistake such as a missing accent [*und was ich dann gut fand war das genaue Lernen*, 36:13] by forcing student to start from the beginning again. So, after using the trainer for a while, she reports that she feels bored with the repetitive L1 to L2 translation exercises and stops using it [*irgendwann war mir das zu blöd mit dem Programm*, 36:46].¹²¹

In her upper-level classes, Klara's teachers no longer supervise her vocabulary practice. Students are expected to either glean meaning from context or look up words in dictionaries. Klara recalls that her teacher provides some guidance on the use of dictionaries but that otherwise, students are expected to organize their own vocabulary learning [*sehr viel Selbständigkeit wurde erwartet*, CM_K_44:28] and [*weiß man halt ein Wort nicht guckt man halt im Wörterbuch nach*, CM_K_44:36]. Besides, Klara perceives her course content in classes at the upper-level more as literary studies and less as language acquisition classes, a fact she repeats with a certain pride as being indicative of having attended classes at a very high level¹²² – [*also ich fand unser Englischunterricht in der Oberstufe war schon halt auf sehr hohem Niveau*, CM_K_43:45] and [*das war schon ein recht hohes Niveau und sehr viel Selbständigkeit wurde erwartet*, CM_K_44:29].¹²³

In conclusion, we see that Klara's own learner experience in a formal educational environment is characterized by a strong sense of organization played out in structured and

¹²¹ See [Appendix I](#) for the transcript of this passage.

¹²² These phrases are bolded in the concept map transcript. Klara is a student in an advanced class [*Leistungskurs*].

¹²³ See the transcript referring to this exchange [CM_K_43:41] in the [Appendix J](#).

scaffolded vocabulary learning tasks at the beginner level followed by increasing guidance designed to encourage self-sufficient, systematic learning at higher levels. This systematicity permeates her teachers' perspectives, the textbook design, the curriculum design, and the classroom activities she participates in. On the other hand, Klara's teachers try to make the vocabulary learning engaging by incorporating activities that foster peer-to-peer interaction and by contextualizing the material. Still, the overall impression Klara conveys is that of a very structured learning experience in her educational setting. In contrast to her past learning at school, her study-abroad immersion experiences reflect a very different setting.

In Grade 11 English and in her fourth year of French instruction at university, Klara travels to Australia and France, respectively. Vocabulary learning in these contexts is unlike the structured approach of a foreign language class. Having already achieved a high proficiency language competence in her formal education, Klara reports that she valued her immersion experience almost as "the icing on the cake" that provides the final touches on an otherwise very thorough language program. Not only is she able to improve her oral fluency, but she recalls a key moment at a French supermarket when she realizes that the words she studied are actually written on the labels of goods in the grocery department and that she feels competent using them in a communicative context. No longer in a structured scaffolded language learning environment, the immersion language input encompasses an indefinite number of speech acts by target language speakers. I point out Klara's immersion experience as "the icing on the cake" because she comes to this experience well prepared by the high level of competence she achieved in her past structured learning, as is indicated by Klara's description of how comfortable she feels communicating in an immersion setting and how she continues to add

new words to her personal corpora by asking friends and roommates. Unlike her experience during the educational setting, the need to ask for target language words arises out of specific, meaningful situations (e.g., learning the words for ingredients and utensils while cooking with her friends). In these scenarios, Klara is driven by meaning-making speech acts to continuously incorporate new words into her existing knowledge system, and she values this experience highly [(..) *und wenn man das vergleicht mit jeder* [stress on *jeder*] *anderen Methode, es ist einfach* (..) *zehnmal besser*, CM_K_37:35].

Despite her successful foreign language acquisition at school and later at university, Klara claims that an immersion context is the best way to learn a foreign language. However, I argue that we cannot ascribe the same value and impact immersion learning has on its participants without taking context into consideration. Klara's immersion experience is the final stage of a middle/upper-class language education where a year abroad is the (expensive) part of a high-standard education. Given the high proficiency level Klara started with, her target language deficiencies are not marginalized.¹²⁴ Learning new words is enjoyable and paired with socializing. Klara's positive, fond memories are not simply the result of being immersed in the target language and learning new words quickly and with relative ease; they are, in part, due to the fact that she experiences a privileged level of language learning. I return to this aspect later in my discussion of all three participants' immersion experiences.

In conclusion, and with regard to Klara's leitmotif *systematische Variation*, we see that both the systematic and the varied (variation) form part of Klara's apprenticeship of observation. I note that most of Klara's foreign language learning takes place within the boundaries and

¹²⁴ By way of contrast, we might consider the immersion context experienced by a refugee.

opportunities offered by the German educational system; these are guided by an explicit scaffolded curriculum set up by the provincial Ministry of Education, interpreted by the school's syllabus, supported by the school's textbook choice, and finally, realized in the individual teacher's detailed lesson plan. Even though teachers are given methodological choices for various interactive tasks, these have been designed to allow for a systematic, incremental accumulation of the target language vocabulary. It should also be noted that formal foreign language instruction plays a pivotal role in Klara's narratives, both as a learner and as a pre-service teacher. She reports on the structured way she has been introduced to vocabulary learning in her German high school and university studies. Yet at the same time, she values her immersion experience as a learning environment where she is able to hone her vocabulary skills even further. She claims that encountering, using, and learning new words in various contexts enrich the breadth and depth of her vocabulary knowledge in the foreign language. Thus, both immersion and formal instruction are part of a learning background that Klara benefits from and values highly; they support her subjective perspective construction. Klara feels confident and competent as a speaker of the target languages English and French she acquired in this learning environment. It is therefore not surprising that her learning background influences the methodological principles she tries to incorporate in her own teaching. The next segment outlines that process.

5.1.3.3 Klara's beliefs about vocabulary pedagogy and her teaching experience

In Klara's cognition, the teacher plays a pivotal role by providing diverse learning opportunities and modified language input in a systematic way. In her narratives, Klara clearly favours a structured language learning and teaching approach. It is also apparent that she sees

herself as an important stakeholder in the classroom proceedings, one who has a large impact on students' processing, production, and retention of vocabulary. Given the importance she ascribes to the teacher persona, it follows that she sees the qualification of teachers as a necessary condition for teacher excellence. She therefore maintains that teacher education classes should adhere to the latest well-established, scientific research findings because “a student will learn better when taught by a well-educated teacher.” The following passage chosen from her concept map discussion exemplifies how she considers the teacher who was her role model as a good example of a well-educated teacher.

Table 7 Concept map Klara: [Teacher role model](#)

438	42:11.7 - 42:24.6	meine englischlehrerin im lk hat hat (.) also doch (.) die war auf jeden fall (.) vielleicht sogar also die war (.) äh schon so vorbild	Klara
439	42:24.6 - 42:26.9	und hatte eine vorbildfunktion	
440	42:26.9 - 42:38.7	weil die (.) noch sehr jung war auch glaube ich in ihrer lehramts ausbildung all die neuen lernmethoden lehmethoden und konstruktivismus und so weiter mitbekommen hat	[CM_K _42:11]

Klara introduces her high school language teacher as the role model who, as she mentions later in her interview, encouraged her to study languages. She holds this teacher's knowledge in high esteem as “the latest learning and teaching methods” [*all die neuen Lernmethoden Lehrmethoden und Konstruktivismus und so weiter*, 42:34] and believes the theoretical framework of *constructivism* exemplifies a well-educated instructor. We also note that she equates the latest—in this case represented by the fact that this teacher had just completed her teacher training—with the best. Her statements about the role a teacher plays in her students'

learning process takes a prominent position in her other narratives, and I conclude from those statements that vocabulary pedagogy is central to Klara's beliefs about vocabulary acquisition. This becomes even more apparent in Klara's survey answers, where she agrees most strongly to the statements in the group of teacher-action items.¹²⁵ For example, she believes that teachers contribute highly to their students' vocabulary learning achievements by guiding their students' learning. They should do this by sharing their own successful learning strategies and guiding their students to the most efficient ones. Teachers should remind their students to learn vocabulary regularly, and they should always introduce new words in context. By activating students' prior knowledge, they should create associations between the known and the new.

Klara's subjective perspectives clearly place the instructor at the centre of the vocabulary learning process. Here, Klara favours a very structured learning and teaching approach. She recommends explicit practice with reading and writing words down as the most important strategies, but she also acknowledges that students must find their own systematic way to organize their learning. Some of the learning strategies she recommends are to:

- practice a new word in a sentence;
- use colour-coding for specific features (e.g., gender of nouns);
- write flashcards, draw pictures, or label objects;
- analyze parts and components of a word; and
- organize words according to similarities (e.g. thematically or grammatically).

For Klara, learning vocabulary is thus a matter of working diligently; accuracy is desirable and leads to academic achievement. This perspective becomes even more apparent when she talks

¹²⁵ See chapter 4.2 for the design of this survey.

about why one of her students struggles academically. She worries about him falling behind because he has not learned his vocabulary [*der ist so ein bisschen mein Sorgenkind gerade, der lernt überhaupt keine Vokabeln*, stim_1_K_19:45]. When she talks about how her top students score above 90% on their tests, she notes that they always do their homework and that, because intelligence is paired with diligence in their cases, this allows them to succeed [*also die machen immer ihre Hausaufgaben. Die sind immer kreativ dabei uhm (.) ja (.) lernen die Vokabeln (.) also das ist, glaube ich, bei denen (.) ja Teil Intelligenz und Fleiß der zusammenkommt*, stim_2_K_1:02:32]. This remark and similar ones she offers in her stimulated recall sessions highlight how important Klara thinks vocabulary is in language learning compared to grammar.¹²⁶ Since success is equated with good marks, this also implies that there are procedures in place that can effectively test vocabulary gains. Klara considers testing, correcting, and in-class evaluation to be valid means of measuring learning progress and of encouraging students to put effort into learning vocabulary. Consequently, she assumes that her students want her to correct their mistakes and that testing, as well as repeated practice with a focus on accuracy, are efficient ways to promote vocabulary acquisition. In order to achieve this high standard, Klara expects students to come prepared to class by learning the vocabulary for the next chapter at home.

Table 8 Stimulated recall 1 Klara: [Expectations](#)

156	20:42.0 - 20:58.5	also grundsätzlich erwarte ich von denen dass (.) auch in den (.)course requirements dass die (.) schon vor der stunde oder vor neuen kapitel sich das schon mal durchlesen also eigentlich die vokabeln schonmal vorbereiten	Klara
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¹²⁶ [*Die größte Hürde für Studenten ... einfach nur Vokabeln. Also die lernen zu wenig Vokabeln im Schnitt. Beispiel Dativ Präpositionen wo scheinbar die Grammatik nicht verstanden wird ... aber in Wirklichkeit sind die Vokabelkenntnisse das Problem*, stim_2_K_3:46].

157	20:58.5 - 21:06.9	aber (.) ich such mir die wichtigsten raus von denen ich will dass sie wirklich jeder hundertprozentig kann	
			[stim_1_K_20:42]

At the same time, we see her taking control of the learning task by supervising students' work and by selecting the most important words for them to learn. She thinks it is the instructor's responsibility to oversee students' learning progress, and she initially blames herself when her students do not succeed [*Also ich denk dann oft, wenn manche das überhaupt nicht können, oder übers Wochenende ist dann wieder alles weg (.) ich such dann immer erst bei mir den Fehler. Was habe ich falsch gemacht? Was habe ich (.) habe ichs nicht gut genug erklärt?* stim_2_K_1:05:21]. Because Klara takes this responsibility upon herself, she makes every effort to organize her teaching in ways that will facilitate her students' progress. Aside from creating a caring learning environment, she prepares what she will say in class by writing it down verbatim (e.g., by modelling how to introduce a friend). She devotes much thought to crafting these sentences to ensure that they are not too complex [*und wenn ich frage (.) was ist das, uhm (.) wer sind sie dann habe ich mir das vorher genau so überlegt, also einfache fragen (.) also einfache sachen ich schreib mir das manchmal im lesson plan genau auf,* stim_1_K_28:12]. She makes extensive use of cognates whenever possible [*das habe ich mir glaube ich echt bei (name) abgeguckt, Wörter zu benutzen, die vielleicht im Deutschen nicht immer die passendsten Wörter sind, aber die die verstehen,* stim_1_K_36:36]. Klara also ensures that the input is modified in ways that consider her students' learner corpora and proficiency levels. Her reflection-on-action in her first stimulated recall session shows that she is aware of adjustments she makes when speaking [*was mir aufgefallen ist mit dem Sprechen,*

stim_1_K_58:46], and she notices that she uses more complex expressions in those situations where she has not been able to prepare in advance [*ungeplante Sachen kommen dann schneller und undeutlicher und (.) mit schwierigerem Vokabular*, 59:03].

Table 9 Stimulated recall 1 Klara: [Modified input](#)

448	58:43.4 - 58:50.2	also (.) hmm wie ich ja eben schon meinte was mir aufgefallen ist mit dem sprechen	Klara
449	58:50.2 - 58:59.3	(..) hmm arbeitsanweisungen oder auch die sätzen zu überlegen ich mir hauptsächlich vorher	
450	58:59.2 - 59:03.5	ich glaub dann (.) das sieht man auch weil dann ich langsam spreche und deutlich	
451	59:03.4 - 59:09.2	und ungeplante sachen kommen dann schneller und undeutlicher und (.) mit schwierigerem vokabular	

Another way Klara works to improve her effectiveness in the classroom is by implementing the lesson reflection form their TA meeting developed. She thinks it is a very helpful systematic tool to reflect on classroom discourse in order to prepare the next class and to make necessary adjustments to her lesson plans.

In summary, it is clearly evident that Klara's teaching principles and her subjective perspectives reflect the systematic and the varied. She believes in doing well-organized, scaffolded input modifications. She prepares her lessons accordingly and also expects students to come to class prepared. She assigns new vocabulary as homework and wants to use class-time for review and production. Therefore, she concludes that guiding students in the development of appropriate learning strategies is an important teacher task. At the same time, Klara maintains that she wants to provide a rich learning environment with stimulating, interesting activities where students engage in communicative tasks. Thus we see how her

leitmotif infuses Klara's subjective perspectives on teaching. I go on now to explore how these subjective perspectives are implemented in Klara's classroom practices by analyzing a passage from one of the classroom observation transcripts that exemplifies how Klara's leitmotif of systematic variation permeates her classroom interaction.

5.1.3.4 Klara's teaching practice – *Was haben Sie am Wochenende gemacht?*

Examining a transcript of an episode of Klara's classroom discourse illustrates the complementary notions of the systematic and the varied in this particular exercise. Analyzing this transcript affirms that Klara's subjective *systematische Variation* theory construction determines her pedagogical choices in this class.

The episode presented in the transcript took place at the beginning of her second classroom observation which was recorded toward the end of the term. In the previous lesson, Klara had introduced regular past participle forms.¹²⁷ In this Monday morning class, Klara asks her students what they did on the weekend¹²⁸ [*Was haben Sie am Wochenende gemacht?*]. This activity is based on a shared lesson plan and intended as a warm-up exercise. Students had been asked to learn the past participle forms as vocabulary homework. As was established earlier, Klara usually prefers to prepare her lesson in such a detailed way that she memorizes key phrases of her teacher input. The question "What did you do on the weekend?" [*Was haben Sie am Wochenende gemacht?*] exemplifies an opening sentence she might use to initiate a teacher-student interaction. At the same time, she varies her responses to her students' answers, thereby starting longer, more genuine speech acts. I examine these in more detail below.

¹²⁷ In her second stimulated recall, Klara declares that she considered learning past participle forms to be a vocabulary task [*Also das find, das sehe ich eher als Vokabelarbeit. Die sollen das als chunks lernen..arbeiten..gearbeitet. Habe ich denen auch gesagt. Ab jetzt wird kein Verb einfach nur im Infinitiv gelernt , stim_2_K_19:55*].

¹²⁸ In German, this question usually triggers a response in present perfect [*Perfekt*].

Table 10 Observation 2 Klara: Past participle or the past weekend?

1-8	0:00,4 - 1:15,8	[the instructor returns graded homework, students take their seats]	
9	1:15,8 - 1:25,5	ok guten tag zusammen guten tag	Klara
10	1:25,5 - 1:36,0	(10s) [students murmur welcome, instructor sets up overhead projector and projects page]	students murmuring
11	1:35,9 - 1:41,3	sagen sie mir was haben sie am wochenende gemacht	Klara
12	1:41,2 - 1:43,3	letztes wochenende	
13	1:43,3 - 1:47,9	samstag und sonntag was haben sie gemacht	
14	1:47,9 - 1:50,6	schlafen	male student
15	1:50,6 - 1:53,6	und es war am es ist nicht jetzt	Klara
16	1:53,5 - 1:58,2	sie schlafen nicht jetzt aber	
17	1:58,2 - 2:02,4	sie haben geschlafen ja sie haben geschlafen	
18	2:02,4 - 2:10,9	ich habe geschlafen [instructor writes sentence on the board]	
19	2:10,8 - 2:14,3	zwei elemente eine form von haben	
20	2:14,2 - 2:16,9	und das partizip ich habe geschlafen	
21	2:16,8 - 2:19,5	aber sie haben nicht das ganze wochenende geschlafen [gesture: arms spread wide]	
22	2:19,5 - 2:24,0	sie haben auch andere dinge getan	
23	2:24,0 - 2:30,9	haben sie nur geschlafen samstag sonntag	
24	2:30,8 - 2:33,4	ich habe eingekauft	another male student A.
25	2:33,3 - 2:35,0	eingekauft uhm ich habe eingekauft	Klara
26	2:34,9 - 2:37,3	was haben sie eingekauft A.	
27	2:37,3 - 2:43,7	uhmm (.) die gemüs	student A.
28	2:43,7 - 2:47,2	das gemüse uhmm	Klara

		im (.) ähh supermarket	
29	2:47,1 - 2:53,2	ja (.) ok ich habe eingekauft [writes sentence on the board]	
30	2:53,2 - 2:55,7	einkaufen eingekauft	
31	2:55,6 - 2:57,9	gut was haben sie noch gemacht	
32	2:57,8 - 3:02,8	(...) S. was haben sie am wochenende gemacht	
33	3:02,8 - 3:05,9	ich habe gelernen	student S.
34	3:05,9 - 3:06,9	gelernt uhhh	Klara
35	3:06,9 - 3:09,1	ich habe gelernt [instructor writes sentence on the board]	
36	3:09,1 - 3:17,4	ja sehr gut und J. was haben sie am wochenende gemacht	
37	3:17,3 - 3:20,7	work	student J.
38	3:20,7 - 3:27,1	oh arbeiten und gearbeitet [writes word on the board below the other forms]	Klara
39	3:27,1 - 3:28,9	ich habe gearbeitet	
40	3:28,9 - 3:31,7	gearbeitet uhm ge arbeit und et [points to the different word parts]	Klara
41	3:31,7 - 3:35,2	gearbeitet wo arbeiten sie was arbeiten sie	
42	3:35,1 - 3:38,6	fairview mall	student J.
43	3:38,5 - 3:40,3	in welchem geschäft	Klara
44	3:40,2 - 3:41,9	uhm body shop	student J.
45	3:41,9 - 3:43,3	body shop (.) ok sehr gut	Klara
46	3:43,3 - 3:45,2	sehr gut sie haben gearbeitet	
47	3:45,1 - 3:48,9	schön (.) und P. was haben sie am wochenende gemacht	
48	3:48,9 - 3:52,5	ich habe gelernt	student P.
49	3:52,5 - 3:56,3	gelernt (.) ja für deutsch (.) nur für deutsch	Klara
50	3:56,2 - 3:59,2	nein	

		ja das ist ok [laughs]	
51	3:59,2 - 4:01,5	ok (.) D. was haben sie am wochenende gemacht	
52	4:01,5 - 4:07,8	(...) nichts	student D.
53	4:07,7 - 4:11,5	das glaube ich nicht i don't believe you	Klara
54	4:11,5 - 4:13,4	was haben sie am wochenende gemacht	
55	4:13,3 - 4:15,5	sport	
56	4:15,5 - 4:16,3	sure	student D.
57	4:16,2 - 4:17,9	ja	Klara
58	4:17,9 - 4:19,0	ja	student D.
59	4:19,0 - 4:20,5	was welche sportart	Klara
60	4:20,4 - 4:22,6	oh (.) ah basketball	student D.
61	4:22,5 - 4:23,3	ok	Klara
62	4:23,3 - 4:25,5	sie haben basketball gespielt ok	
63	4:25,4 - 4:27,3	gespielt	D.
64	4:27,2 - 4:29,0	ja ich habe basketball gespielt [writes participle on the board below the others]	Klara
65	4:28,9 - 4:31,5	gespielt	
66	4:31,4 - 4:34,6	Z. no D. hat basketball gespielt	
67	4:34,5 - 4:36,9	uh R. was haben sie am wochenende gemacht	
68	4:36,8 - 4:40,3	ich habe gegessen	student R.
69	4:40,3 - 4:41,3	uhumm gegessen was haben sie gegessen	Klara
70	4:41,2 - 4:44,6	obst	student R.
71	4:44,6 - 4:45,9	obst ok das ist sehr gesund	Klara
72	4:45,8 - 4:47,4	healthy gut	

73	4:47,3 - 4:50,3	H. was haben sie am wochenende gemacht	
74	4:50,3 - 4:52,6	ich habe meine hausaufgabe gemacht	student H.
75	4:52,5 - 4:55,6	hmm sehr gut sie sind ein guter student	Klara
76	4:55,6 - 5:00,9	ok sehr schön ok bevor wir weitermachen	
77	5:00,8 - 5:04,2	ein kleines vokabelquiz	
[Klara_OBS_2_1:15]			

In this sequence, Klara initially reviews and introduces the past participle forms as vocabulary but she then varies the content, changing it to an intertwined arrangement of explicit grammar explanations and different procedures of modified input. For example, she explains grammar features [*zwei Elemente, eine Form von haben und das Partizip*, 2:10], provides the written forms [*ich habe geschlafen*, 2:02; *ich habe eingekauft*, 2:50; *ich habe gelernt*, 3:06; *gearbeitet*, 3:27; *gespielt*, 4:29], and uses stress patterns and gestures to signal phonological specifics [*ge arbeit et*, 3:31]. A closer look at this discourse reveals a pattern. She amends the students' answers using corrective feedback as necessary [e.g., *ich habe eingekauft* (student A.), *eingekauft* (Klara), 2:30]. She then repeats the participle as one word followed by a phrase. Initially, she produces this phrase as a statement¹²⁹ [*Sie haben geschlafen*, 1:58] but then, when students make mistakes, name only the participle, or answer in English, she changes the agent of her recast to model a sentence that might be produced from the perspective of a student [e.g., *ich habe geschlafen*, 2:02; *ich habe eingekauft*, 2:35; *ich habe gelernt*, 3:06; *ich habe*

¹²⁹ With a raised voice, she also uses this form as a question.

gearbeitet, 3:27]. She does not change agency when a student answers with a grammatically correct phrase [e.g., *ich habe gelernt* (student P.), *gelernt, ja, für deutsch* (Klara), 3:48; *ich habe gegessen* (student R.), *uhmm, gegessen, was haben Sie gegessen* (Klara), 4:36; *ich habe meine Hausaufgabe gemacht* (student H.), *hmm, sehr gut, Sie sind ein guter Student* (Klara), 4:50]. In these cases, Klara continues the interaction immediately with a personal question or comment, thus conveying the characteristics of a more genuine interaction. Overall, Klara's initiated teacher-student interaction gives the impression that it is very systematic. She seems to have an objective in mind regarding when and how to use corrective feedback. Her lesson plan also outlines her blackboard layout for the written representations she wants to use later in her teaching.

The above are all very systematic procedures but Klara also expands and varies her input in ways that she cannot have foreseen. For example, she asks students what they have eaten and then makes a few comments about healthy nutrition; she praises a student, tongue-in-cheek, for his efforts expended on learning only German over the weekend and wittily challenges students who claim they had done nothing at all. I argue that this example illustrates Klara's teaching principle of systematic variation [*systematische Variation*]. Klara may have prepared some questions beforehand based on the list of verbs she intended to introduce. She may well have thought of ways to elicit student answers and to be prepared for how to systematically deal with repairable "trouble" or incomplete answers, but she also seems to have chosen to expand her speech act out of genuine interest in her students' activities. Her interaction with student J. provides an example of how Klara starts off by eliciting a grammatically correct form, is then drawn into an authentic exchange of information, and finally returns to a focus on form.

Klara addresses student J. by asking what she did on the weekend [*und J. was haben Sie am Wochenende gemacht*, 3:10]. Student J. understands this as an authentic inquiry about her weekend actions and obviously intends to respond accordingly. Since she does not seem to know the word in German, she responds in English [*work*, 3:17]. Klara then transfers her student's answer in stages from the translation of the infinite form [*oh arbeiten*, 3:20] to its grammatical representation as a past participle and then emphasizes that form by writing it on the board. She continues by pointing out a phonologically specific characteristic,¹³⁰ highlighting it by staggering her pronunciation and by using a deictic gesture [*ge arbeit et* (gesture points to the different word parts), 3:28]. Next, Klara repeats the participle again and follows up by asking where student J. works and what kind of work she does. It is noteworthy that Klara, at this point, abandons the grammatical aspects of the new tense and asks her question in the present tense instead [*Wo arbeiten Sie? Was arbeiten Sie?*, 3:32]. This suggests the immediacy of Klara's interest. When student J. tells her where she works, Klara follows up with a structure that is grammatically well beyond the student's proficiency level [*in welchem Geschäft?*, 3:38] and once again departs from her vocabulary focus on participles. Klara is counting on her student's ability to guess the meaning of her latest question from its context. Indeed, after a slight hesitation, student J. correctly provides the name of the store where she is employed [*body shop*, 3:40]. Klara then signals that her student has correctly guessed the gist of her question by repeating the student's answer. She adds an affirmative "ok, very well" [*ok sehr gut*, 3:41] to acknowledge that she has understood the message in the turn-take and to signal her student that she did a good job responding appropriately. I argue that in Klara's next turn in this

¹³⁰ Students are usually told that the syllable "arbeit" ends with a "t". Therefore, an "e" is added to ease pronunciation.

speech act, she again reverts to the grammatical aspect of this interaction because she repeats the phrase which translates to “Very good, well done. You worked” [*sehr gut, Sie haben gearbeitet*, 3:43]. The semantic combination of these two phrases as being praised and having worked does not make sense in a genuine interaction because Klara is in no position to judge whether or not it is a good thing that the student has worked. One possible, appropriate-content-oriented answer in the context of an equal power relationship would have been something along the lines of, for example, “That is interesting,” or “I did not know that.” The aforementioned appraisal should thus be seen as appropriate from the perspective of a language instructor remarking on her student’s linguistic competence. I conclude that Klara’s response is designed to return her to her role as the language instructor in this speech act.

To summarize this analysis, it is evident that Klara initiates speech acts that interweave teaching the language in a structured way with genuine exchanges of information. Teaching language in a structured way first clearly represents her subjective perspective on the systematic, while the following exchange of information opens these speech acts up to unlimited variation. Klara’s return to her first structured approach reaffirms the systematic as the guiding principle of her actions and the *modus operandi* of variation; I therefore conclude that Klara’s subjective perspectives on vocabulary pedagogy with the leitmotif systematic variation is very much in accord with her teaching practices in this episode.

5.1.3.5 *Systematische Variation* as leitmotif in Klara’s subjective perspectives

This chapter demonstrates how the theme of *systematische Variation* is threaded through Klara’s lived experiences, both in the theoretical framework she favoured most in her teacher education and in her narratives on her own foreign language learning. Klara’s theme can also be

tracked as a constant concept in her reflections on her teaching and her musings on how a good teacher should teach vocabulary.

Theoretical concepts such as the network model appeal to Klara because she believes in the organized principles of word learning; meaning making follows rules and patterns, and organized input that accords with these rules helps students acquire words. Klara believes this leads to a knowledge of vocabulary that will increasingly expand in depth and breadth. Within this paradigm, source language and target language have a one-on-one relationship wherein, by contrasting and comparing, the learner gradually accommodates the target language words into the existing first language knowledge system. This also implies that the L1 is seen as the meaning-establishing source language to which the target language translations are linked. The content of Klara's transcripts confirms that her theoretical paradigm of vocabulary acquisition is governed by her conceptualization of language as a system. This structural perspective views lexical items as commodities that can be accumulated, and language pedagogues are seen to be the facilitators of this accrument. Language-centred pedagogues thus treat language as a system of building blocks (e.g., phonemes, morphemes, and lexemes) which are connected in a systematic, rule-governed way. For Klara, understanding the governing principles of lexemes (e.g., which endings do what, how certain phonemes sound in German, and which ones can be thematically grouped) means that these word forms can be analyzed and learned in a discrete way through exposure, practice, and application. Klara also favours language-centred methods where the vocabulary learning tasks are carefully crafted. This approach asks teachers to select and scaffold corpora input (e.g., by moving from the easy to the difficult and from the regular to the irregular). As Klara's narratives indicate, she not only chooses material based on these

principles, she also surveys her students' progress carefully and makes evaluating their proficiency level a priority whenever possible. Furthermore, she plans her teacher discourse verbatim in advance, carefully crafting it based on a corpus she assumes her students will know. Therefore, Klara's ideal input is a form-based modification where vocabulary is presented in a linear and incremental way that relies on methodological principles of habit-formation via practice and repetition. She adheres to interactional activities that strongly resemble the three P's format: presentation–practice–production. In particular, her production activities consist of transferring pre-selected topics within a controlled context. Klara's strong sense of taking responsibility for classroom proceedings is very evident. Her approach is heavily weighted toward being teacher-centred, which raises the issue of how well her claim to hold a learner-centred approach matches her perspectives and her actions. I conclude that Klara interprets her subjective perspective on a learner-centred approach to mean that she should “keep her students' interests in mind.” This is indicated in her repeated comments on how she cares about her students learning. By that reasoning, her teacher-centred interaction patterns and teacher-controlled turn-takes do not contradict her perspective on learner-centred teaching. The systematic nature of language-centred methods, which places the teacher at the centre of classroom actions, adheres to Klara's conceptions of “good teaching principles”. Interestingly, however, Klara's “*Was haben Sie am Wochenende gemacht?*” activity did not completely follow a strict drill pattern. Even though this activity was predominantly language-centred and targeted the acquisition of German past participles, the teacher-student interaction was infused with moments of genuine interest in what her students did over the weekend. These moments of “interaction as interpersonal activity” allude to the second component of Klara's subjective

perspective, variation. They are also instances where Klara moves away from her choreographed teaching and uses pragmatically appropriate linguistic structures (that sometimes go beyond her students' proficiency level).

Klara feels this tension between the teaching paradigms of interaction as a means to practice language and those where interaction is an interpersonal activity. This is apparent in her final creed in favour of an immersion context over classroom-instructed foreign language learning; where we see her recall a key moment in her own language learning experience when knowing the written forms of French words made sense in the French supermarket because, by then, she could read, understand, and pronounce the labels in French. Still, I conclude, the systematic is dominant at this moment in her life and within her teaching practices at the time of data collection. Overall, Klara's subjective perspective construction accords with her classroom actions as systematic variation, but the concept of variation as an integral part of her subjective perspectives appears to be—to a significant extent—a matter of methodological choices.

Jana

*Ich habe gemerkt,
dass man mit Sprachen sehr viel Spaß haben kann
Jana*

5.2 Jana: “ *Der Sinn einer Sprache ist Kommunikation*”

I open Jana’s case study by summarizing her cognition of vocabulary learning and teaching. I then document her language learning background and information regarding her teacher training before I track and analyze the recurring theme of *Der Sinn einer Sprache ist Kommunikation* and of related subthemes that thread through the narratives of her experience as a language learner, her teacher education, and her reflection-on-action. By tracking and analyzing these in detail, I match these motifs with Jana’s most salient subjective perspectives about the benefits of immersion learning, monolingual instruction, and contextualization as a methodological procedure. These segments are introduced with citations from Jana’s narratives that capture the essence of her perspectives. Detailed descriptions of classroom scenes exemplify how Jana’s emerging subjective perspectives on vocabulary learning and teaching play out in her classroom practices. Her thoughts, reflections, and actions draw attention to the tension between Jana’s ideals regarding best practices and the challenges she faces in her foreign language teaching context.

5.2.1 Jana's subjective perspectives

Jana's subjective perspectives of vocabulary acquisition revolve around five partially overlapping aspects: (1) general assumptions about language and vocabulary, (2) vocabulary pedagogy, (3) learning strategies, (4) the vocabulary learner, and (5) the teacher persona.

General assumptions about language and vocabulary. For Jana, learning another language means being able to communicate with target language speakers, and learning vocabulary facilitates this communication. Based on her own language learning experience, she advocates an implicit vocabulary learning process. She does not see the task of learning vocabulary itself as a challenge, though she does acknowledge that this might not be the case for all classroom learners and is prepared to accommodate their needs in class.¹³¹ She perceives learning to speak another language as a generally enjoyable experience and counts on students' intrinsic motivation to learn their vocabulary because they feel the need to improve their ability to communicate. Her teaching methods try to convey this message by choosing activities she thinks students will enjoy and by fostering a classroom atmosphere that is conducive to learner-centred learning. She sees immersion learning as the best way to learn to communicate and practice new vocabulary. For her, this also implies that she favours listening and speaking over writing and reading. I discuss this and the immersion aspect together with the subthemes of monolingual instruction, authentic input, and contextualization in more detail below.

Vocabulary pedagogy. Jana's second set of beliefs concerns vocabulary pedagogy: How should vocabulary be taught? Because Jana's focus is on communication, she uses corrective feedback regarding errors in pronunciation and word use sparingly.¹³² She also describes how

¹³¹ See [Appendix K](#) [stim1_J_24:03].

¹³² See [Appendix L](#) [CM_J_20:29]; [stim1_J_38:48].

she developed a scaffolded approach for her own teaching in order to deal with errors or comprehension problems. Repetition and monolingual input in class are central to this approach. She uses contextualizing gestures, visual material, and slowed speech to help establish a monolingual learning environment and considers translating into the source language a measure of last resort. Jana thinks using the source language could be avoided altogether if students came to class prepared. However, she finds that this proactive vocabulary learning is rarely done, and she regrets that this keeps her from engaging with the material in ways she would otherwise prefer. She feels that it is unfortunate that her tertiary-level students cram for weekly vocabulary tests but neglect to study for the long-term goal of nurturing their communicative repertoire. She attributes this partly to her students' learning preferences and partly to the constraints of the educational setting that impact her teaching options negatively, particularly the fact that she does not always feel she has enough time to implement all her preferred teaching activities. Therefore, even though she sees the necessity of practicing in order to memorize new words, she prefers not to use classroom time for this task; instead expecting students to organize their vocabulary learning on their own time. How they go about this is left to their discretion, and even though Jana mentions some learning strategies in class, these are only conveyed as occasional learning tips (e.g., colour-coding nouns according to gender, writing words on post-it notes). She does not address students' individual learning preferences, nor does she voluntarily allot time to discuss them in class. Still, Jana believes that teachers make an important contribution to their students' attitudes about vocabulary learning.

The teacher persona. Ideally, she sees the teacher's role as a facilitator of learning who provides a backdrop that includes engaging input and fun activities, one who fosters a positive

attitude toward the target language and encourages students to overcome learning challenges. Many of these subjective perspectives were formed during Jana's own language learning experience; she imitates the teaching role models she held in esteem as a learner, and a principal node of belief construction originates from her immersion experience. I present a brief summary of Jana's language learning narrative and her educational background to explicate the relationship between personal experience and subjective perspective construction. This is followed by an in-depth analysis of the aspect of immersion in her narratives.

5.2.1.1 Jana's language learning background

At the time of data collection, Jana was a twenty-five-year-old student from Germany. She had completed three years of her German university teacher education program, majoring in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) and Biology. She had recently accepted a TA¹³³ position at a Canadian university and was now teaching two beginner classes of German as a Foreign Language to university students. The following paragraphs describe Jana's language learning background as a plurilingual speaker with extensive immersion experience in English and Finnish and her foreign language learning experience in French and Spanish.

Jana's first language was German but she reports that she was introduced to English as a foreign language in her early childhood. Her father was a translator and her mother was a German and English language teacher at a secondary school. Jana mentions that she used to listen in on her mother's tutoring classes, thus picking up the language playfully; she later even assisted her mother in these tutoring sessions. In grades 5 through 7, she learned English (FL) at her German secondary school. French as a foreign language was introduced in Grade 7. When

¹³³ This pedagogical exchange program (PAD) invites young professionals to teach as foreign language instructors at secondary and tertiary institutions for one year.

her mother accepted a position at the German School Helsinki,¹³⁴ Jana's family moved to Finland. Jana was now immersed in a Finnish-speaking environment where English and German were taught as foreign languages. Jana, then fourteen years old, recalls that at the beginning of her seven-year stay in Finland, she had to learn Finnish quickly if she wanted to interact with peers. As the only German in class, knowing Finnish was required if she wanted to make friends.

In Grade 10, Jana transferred to the International School of Helsinki¹³⁵ to complete an International Baccalaureate (English/German). At this school, all subjects were taught in English. Jana claims that this immersion program led to her *native-speaker* proficiency in English “*das hieß ich habe Englisch auf Mutterspracheniveau*”¹³⁶ [CM_Jana_12:54]. In this setting, Jana is in a double immersion situation. She lives in a Finnish-speaking environment and at the same time, she attends an English school immersion program where she learns Finnish as a second language and opts to take German literature and French (FL) as extracurricular credit courses. Upon completing her degree, Jana travelled extensively before beginning her university teacher training program majoring in ESL and Biology. Out of personal interest, she chose to devote two terms each to elective French and Spanish language classes.

5.2.1.2 Jana's language teaching background

Prior to arriving in Canada, Jana completed her teacher training, majoring in Biology and ESL at the German university. She planned to travel and then return to Germany for her

¹³⁴ This is a German school abroad operated under the jurisdiction of the Central Agency for Schools Abroad (ZfA).

¹³⁵ The International School of Helsinki (ISH) is an IB World School authorized to offer International Baccalaureate programmes to students aged 4 and up in grades K1 through 12.

¹³⁶ *Muttersprache* (mother tongue) is the term Jana uses.

program's internship module in the fall following her eight-month stay in Canada. At the time of data collection, Jana has no previous classroom experience as a language instructor. Her insights into the tasks of a foreign language instructor stem from her teaching assistant position at kindergarten and elementary level for the German School in Helsinki, her occasional tutoring sessions substituting for her mother, and discussions with friends who have already started their pre-service teacher internships. Jana reports that vocabulary acquisition and pedagogy was not part of the curriculum in her teacher education program. As a PAD instructor at the Canadian university, Jana is enrolled in the university's language teacher training program and attends workshops and weekly TA meetings, a fact that she does not bring up in our interviews.

In conclusion, Jana's formal training and educational background compares to that of pre-service instructors without any internship experience. Her insights into teaching practices are based on the role models of her peers, her teachers, and her mother.

5.2.2 Jana's construction of her subjective perspectives: "*Das hab ich mir halt so überlegt*"

Jana's brief biography indicates that she has had little formal training. Her own reflections and lived experiences are therefore the major source of her cognitions. She explicitly addresses her subjectivity in comments such as "I made this up myself" [*Das hab ich mir halt so überlegt*], "I made this up because this is who I am" [*Das habe ich mir so überlegt, weil sich das aus meinem Typ ergibt, stim_1_J_12:27*], and "I teach in a way that is the most authentic way because of the type of person I am" [*Ich unterrichte so, wie es für meinen Typ auch authentisch ist, stim_1_J_10:33*]. She strives to position herself as a competent, reflective

teacher persona even though her teacher training thus far consists of a single grammar course and a translation class [CM_J_1:19]. The construction of her perspectives as a developmental process is clearly reflected in her comments about how her teaching approach relies on her own resources. In a key episode where she talks about how she prepares her lessons, she repeatedly refers to “making it somehow” [*irgendwie*] and to “herself” [*selber*] as the person who has to look things up and figure out ways to accomplish her objectives on her own [*Es sind Sachen, die ich irgendwie (...) mir selber irgendwie, mir selber angelesen hab, oder mir selber überlegt hab*, stim_1_J_39:46]. After a long pause, she quietly adds that she cannot recall exactly which factors informed her decisions [*aber wo das jetzt genau herkommt, kann ich auch nicht sagen*, stim_1_J_42:05]. Despite the fact that Jana has doubts and reconsiders her actions, her subjective perspectives are surprisingly stable. A closer analysis of her emerging subjective perspectives, as these are tracked in her own biography, provides insights into the underlying dynamics of this developmental process. I argue that her own immersion experience is central to her cognition about vocabulary learning and teaching.

5.2.2.1 Jana: “*Am effektivsten ist, wenn man die Zeit hat, total immersion*”

Immersion plays a central role in Jana’s narrative and in her belief system about vocabulary learning. As described in her language learning biography, her experience encompasses a migrant immersion perspective from the ages of 11 through 19, a two-year school immersion program as an adolescent, and most recently, the work-abroad context as a TA at a Canadian university. Jana therefore not only holds strong beliefs about the benefits of learning a target language in an immersion context, but she also attempts to include features that are usually associated with immersion in her foreign language classroom. She sees monolingual

in the exclamation [*ach*], and she restarts her argument by contrasting classroom learning with the preferable immersion context. In her second stimulated recall session, Jana explains her perspective as experiencing alienation from the true purpose of learning a language [*Durch Schulkontext wird die Sprache entkontextualisiert*, stim_2_J_14:52].

Table 12 Stimulated recall 2 Jana: „*Durch Schulkontext wird die Sprache entkontextualisiert*“

134	14:49,2 - 14:57,2	auf uhm ja (.) es wird dadurch dadurch wird es durch schulkontext wird die sprache entkontextualisiert	
135	14:57,2 - 15:09,0	weil sie nicht uhm weil es nicht gesag weil es nicht die betonung darauf liegt dass sie angewendet wird sondern dass sie (.) uhm reproduziert wird	[stim_2_J_14:49]

Jana concludes her description of the negative aspects of vocabulary learning at school by describing it as a decontextualized learning process aimed at merely reproducing structures. In her view, learning at school removes the true purpose of learning to speak a language. Her critical perspective identifies it as an alienated process that very often targets only short-term academic achievements. The motivation to learn is thus dominated by extrinsic reasons (e.g., to do well in school) [*dass man für die Schule lernt*, CM_J_14:30]. In a living-abroad experience, in contrast, the motivation to learn new words is governed by an intrinsic motivation: the wish to interact with other speakers. Words are needed to communicate things such as agreement, disagreement, desires, arguments, opinions, and requests. As Jana argues in her concept map discussion, the objective for using a language should be to apply language as a means of communication. It stands out as her key leitmotif [*der Sinn einer Sprache ist Kommunikation*

und Anwendung, CM_J_15:09]. The following passage analyzes how she verbalizes her perspective by using interactional turn construction features such as pauses, recasts, and repairs to track how she constructs her perspectives.

Table 13 Concept map Jana: „Der Sinn einer Sprache ist Kommunikation“

136	15:09,0 - 15:18,8	und das meiner meinung nach ist einfach nicht die effektivste art eine sprache zu lernen weil der sinn einer sprache ist kommunikation	Jana
137	15:18,7 - 15:26,9	und anwendung und zwar ja verständigung und nicht irgendwo	
138	15:28,8 - 15:33,4	das war halt bei mir durch dieses umziehen und dann in einem anderen land leben war das halt bei mir extrem	
139	15:33,3 - 15:42,8	und so dass die fähigkeit zu kommunizieren im vordergrund gerückt ist finnisch habe ich es zum beispiel unglaublich schnell gelernt weil ich einfach weil ich musste	
140	15:42,7 - 15:55,4	ja deshalb war meine motivation die sprache zu lernen natürlich auch ganz anders weil ich nicht gelernt hab um gute noten zu schrei also natürlich hab ich auch immer gute noten gewollt	Jana
141	15:55,4 - 16:07,3	aber es ging einfach darum dass ich von meinen altersgenossen ausgeschlossen wurde weil ich die sprache nicht konnte und deshalb musste ich sie ganz schnell lernen	
142	16:07,3 - 16:13,3	und hab sie auch sehr schnell sehr effektiv gelernt	

[CM_J_15:09]

Her pauses and repairs in Table 13 signal the effort Jana devotes to constructing and conveying her beliefs; they indicate that she not only thinks about how to phrase her beliefs, but that she also creates her arguments in the telling itself.

To further support her arguments, Jana then attempts to validate her claims by asserting her role as that of an expert with a relevant and successful immersion background [CM_J_15:28]. By breaking off her statement of beliefs in midsentence [*und nicht irgendwo*, 15:26] and then resuming her argument with a description of her own immersion experience, Jana intends to lend credibility to her previous statements. She emphasizes this change to her subjective perspectives by first explicitly marking this belief as her own opinion [*meiner Meinung nach*, 15:10] and then by referring to her personal experience [*das war halt bei mir*, 15:28] in her introductory phrase. She draws further attention to this experience and her expertise on this matter by declaring its circumstances as extreme [*war das halt bei mir extrem*, 15:33] and then by marking them as an achievement and as a challenge she succeeded in overcoming with the following statement: [*und ich habe sie (die Sprache) auch sehr schnell, sehr effektiv gelernt*, 16:07]. Having thus established her expert role which is grounded in first-hand experience as a language learner, she completes her subjective perspective [*das war halt bei mir dass die Fähigkeit zum kommunizieren im Vordergrund gerückt ist*, 15:28, 15:34] and repeats the claim that communication should be moved to the foreground of language learning. She then supports this subjective claim with her own success story of having learned Finnish incredibly fast [*Finnisch habe ich es zum Beispiel unglaublich schnell gelernt*, 15:40]. Only after she has established her expertise and credited the immersion context for her accomplishments does she allow for a more differentiated view of the immersion context she experienced, one that includes the difficult times and her struggles. Her effort to learn Finnish was governed by her motivation to be accepted by her peers who she feared would have otherwise avoided her [*aber es ging einfach darum dass ich von meinen Altersgenossen ausgeschlossen wurde, weil ich die*

Sprache nicht konnte, 16:04]. This left her little choice but to learn fast [*und deshalb musste ich sie (die Sprache) ganz schnell lernen*, 16:07]. This statement repeats a claim she made in her first stimulated recall session at the beginning of the term [*weil (...) ich die einzige Deutsche war in der Klasse und (...) uhm ich musste es einfach irgendwann lernen weil alle Pausengespräche komplett auf Finnisch waren und sich sonst einfach niemand mit mir unterhalten hat*, stim_1_J_28:00].

Recalling her own experience and her struggle within an immersion context seems to account for the empathy she feels toward the difficulties students face in a monolingual classroom.¹³⁸ She projects her own struggle, even her moments of despair [*dieses Gefühl dazusitzen und nichts zu verstehen das ist (...) nicht sehr schön*, 28:48], and reframes them as a subjective perspective on learning vocabulary as perseverance [*man muss auch wirklich so ein bisschen gucken uhm (...) welcher Schüler ist jetzt kurz vorm Nervenzusammenbruch da*, 28:30]. She states teachers must not only watch out for a student's breaking point, they must also encourage their students to accept the initial frustrations [*man muss es denen irgendwie nahebringen dass sie (...) Frustration nichts Schlechtes ist*, 28:59] for the benefit of later proficiency [*sondern dass sie die praktisch umsetzen sollen in effektiveres lernen*, 29:04].

The analysis of Jana's belief statements reveals that she presents contradictory arguments about the difficulty of immersion learning. On the one hand, she sees it as a difficult struggle ([*und das ist am Anfang sehr sehr schwer*, 28:48] and [*es ist nicht unbedingt der einfachste und entspannteste Weg*, 28:15], while on the other (during her second stimulated recall), she claims

¹³⁸ This aspect will be discussed in more detail later. Jana's immersion experience also informs her beliefs on what kind of assistance she believes a teacher should provide in the vocabulary learning process. This is, as we will see later on, in conflict with her beliefs regarding *authentic* input.

that immersion is the easiest way to learn new words and to retain them in our long-term memory.

Table 14 Stimulated recall 2 Jana: „[Sprache da lernen, wo sie gesprochen wird](#)“

136	16:04,7 - 16:17,9	und (.) uhm (.) deshalb (..) ist sehr viel einfacher eine sprache zu lernen in dem land in dem sie gesprochen wird weil man benutzt sie ständig man wiederholt ständig und es nicht so ein kurzfristiges denken	Jana
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[stim_2_J_16:04]

Jana reconciles these conflicting notions of immersion being both difficult and easy by focusing on the concept of effectiveness¹³⁹. In other words, it may be a struggle, but it is worth it and she knows it is because she has experienced it. Her mention of effectiveness usually follows sequences where she refers to difficulties and challenges related to her students' intake, their participation in class, or restrictions she experiences in her university teaching [*man lernt am effektivsten*¹⁴⁰, *wenn man muss*, stim_1_J_21:40], [*es ist effektiv eine Sprache so zu lernen, nur (..) ähm uhm (..) sehe ich das nicht hundertprozentig umsetzbar*, stim_1_J_21:55], and [*was am effektivsten ist, wenn man die Zeit hat, ist total immersion*, CM_4_:36]. Jana also repeatedly mentions how tedious she finds it to support immersion-like input [*das ist sehr anstrengend für alle, aber das ist das, was am effektivsten ist eigentlich*, CM_J_4:42], [*also (.) es wird im Endeffekt dann effektiver, aber es ist ziemlich anstrengend*, stim_1_J_27:26], and [*es ist nicht unbedingt der einfachste und entspannteste Weg, uhm(.) genau wie das da für die Schüler sehr sehr anstrengend ist, wenn sie erst denken, sie verstehen nichts, aber es ist sehr effektiv*, stim_1_J_28:15]. However, her subjective construction of the benefits of immersion-

¹³⁹ At this point, I translate *effektiv* with effectiveness instead of efficiency to maintain a sense of the German collocation.

¹⁴⁰ This dichotomy is bolded in the following references.

like learning reframes the negative concept of frustration as a learning opportunity [*und das ist am Anfang sehr sehr anstrengend und frustrierend, weil (.) äh (.) man muss denen irgendwie so nahebringen, das sie (.) Frustration nichts Schlechtes ist, sondern, dass sie die praktisch umsetzen sollen in effektiveres Lernen*, stim_1_J_28:48]. Her repeated reflective comments noting that this dichotomy is difficult yet effective demonstrate that Jana puts a lot of thought and effort into the construction of her subjective perspectives. The next paragraph illustrates this tension in the foreign language teaching context.

5.2.2.2 Immersion and foreign language teaching: “Ein natürliches Umfeld schaffen”

Jana appears to be well aware of the discrepancy between her preferred immersion context and the challenges and constraints that often accompany teaching a foreign language. Following her credo for learning a language abroad, she struggles to reconcile her present teaching situation with her conceptions of an ideal setting. She expresses this in her second stimulated recall session by advocating the “recreation of a natural setting” in class [*ein natürliches Umfeld schaffen*]. The analysis of the sequence below provides insight into how this conflict becomes apparent in her agency changes.

Table 15 Stimulated recall 2 Jana: „Man schafft ein natürliches Umfeld“

137	16:17,8 - 16:28,0	und (.) da finde ich dass man das son bisschen versuchen muss natürlich kann man das nicht schaffen in der in der so ne so ne (..) umfeld aber man sollte gucken dass die (.) worte immer angewendet werden wenn man dann genaueres hat	Jana
138	16:28,0 - 16:42,9	damit man nicht so ein ich lerne diese vokabel damit ich in diesem vokabeltest auf das blatt schreiben kann apfel ist gleich apple	
139	16:42,8 - 16:51,4	sondern (.) uhm das sie diese lernen damit sie die damit sie lernen was ein apfel ist und es zum beispiel in eine einkaufsliste einzutragen	

140	16:51,4 - 16:52,7	ich mache apfelkuchen und was brauch ich	
141	16:52,6 - 17:01,4	uhm (.) ja (...) dadurch schafft man eben auch so ein bisschen (...) ein natürlicheres umfeld	
142	17:01,3 - 17:10,7	in dem es nicht darum geht (.) uhm (.) sachen auswendig zu lernen und sie dann wieder zu vergessen sondern (...) ja	

[stim_2_J_16:17]

Her goal to recreate a “natural setting” [*ein natürliches Umfeld*, 17:01] delineates her preference for an immersion context but her struggles with this concept are also evident. Her hesitancy and her use of alternating agency signal her dilemma. With these agency switches, Jana positions herself as an instructor even as she evokes her own immersion experience. After a slight hesitation, Jana starts with a first-person introductory phrase about her subjective view [*und (.) da finde ich*, 16:17]. The agent of her sentence then changes to the generic *one*—as in *one* should try [*dass man das son bisschen versuchen muss*]. This use of *one* diffuses agency. Her argument then ends in mid-sentence [*damit man nicht so ein*], and her self-repair attempt switches to the first person perspective. However, in doing so, she is not referring to herself in her present situation as an instructor; instead, she projects either to the imaginary student or to her own past as a learner [*ich lerne diese Vokabel damit ich in diesem Vokalbeltest auf das Blatt schreiben kann Apfel ist gleich apple*, 16:28]. As she continues this sentence, she switches agency yet again, this time referring to the students in the third-person plural and thus placing herself back into the position of instructor [*sondern (.)uhm, dass sie diese lernen damit sie die, damit sie lernen, was ein Apfel ist um es zum Beispiel in eine Einkaufsliste einzutragen*, 16:51]. Another shift to the first-person agency highlights the immediacy of the natural setting in her

example. She argues that if you learn the word *apple* because you want to shop for the ingredients needed to bake an apple cake, the word *apple* is then part of a meaningful context, very much like a situation you might encounter in an actual immersion setting. Finally, after a few pauses, Jana switches back to the generic *one* and describes the pedagogical intentions behind recreating the natural setting, but she does not complete this thought, and her voice slowly trails off. She appears to experience tension¹⁴¹ between her beliefs and the possible futility of her attempt to transfer her principles to a foreign language classroom setting. This tension is expressed in her counterpoint string of statements that begin with her suggestion that she should try at least a little bit [*son bisschen versuchen*, 16:18] which is immediately followed by her disillusioned recognition that you cannot succeed in such a setting [*natürlich kann man das nicht schaffen in der in der so ne so ne (...) Umfeld*, 16:25] and then by the proposal that one should try nevertheless [*man sollte gucken*, 16:27]. Her final statement remains elusive and incomplete [*wenn man dann Genaueres hat damit man nicht so ein*, 16:28], so Jana decides to restart her argument by providing the concrete example of shopping for apples in its stead [*damit sie lernen, was ein Apfel ist und es zum Beispiel in eine Einkaufsliste einzutragen*, 16:48].

As will be discussed more thoroughly later, this discrepancy between Jana's subjective perspectives and her teaching reality continues with immersion's subthemes of monolingual instruction, authentic input, and contextualization. Yet, despite the challenges Jana sees in the immersion context, she believes that its benefits outweigh them, so much so that she sees her

¹⁴¹ This term refers to Freeman's definition; he describes tensions as "competing demands within their [the teachers] teaching" that represent "divergences among different forces or elements in the teacher's understanding of the school context, the subject matter, or the students" (1993, p. 488).

principal instructor role as that of a facilitator who prepares students for a possible study-abroad experience.

Table 16 Stimulated recall 2 Jana: „Lernen um den Horizont zu erweitern“

146	17:34,6 - 17:48,6	also das ist halt schon so [gesture: runs fingers through her hair and then crosses both arms in front of her] dass sie vokabeln lernen für den vokabeltest und dass sie (.) so (.) dieses umdenken [gesture/ facial expression: bites her lips] dass sie vielleicht mal nach deutschland fahren wollen und sich da unterhalten (.) wollen als [gesture: pulls up shoulders]	Jana
147	17:48,5 - 17:54,6	das ist halt meine ansicht davon [gesture: pulls up shoulders again, arms are crossed in front of her body and nods quickly] warum man sprache lernt und warum einfach kommunizieren zu können	
148	17:54,6 - 18:07,6	und (.) uhm (.) um auch seinen horizont zu erweitern aber das ist halt (.) in dem universitätsumfeld schwer zu vermitteln weils doch es gibt halt die noten und die sind sehr wichtig (.) und (.) uhm	

[stim_2_J_16:17]

Jana would like to change students' short-term vocabulary learning goals of succeeding on tests and make them realize that words are meant to be communicated [*dieses Umdenken, dass sie vielleicht mal nach Deutschland fahren wollen und sich da unterhalten wollen*, 17:40]. At the same time, Jana's body language ([gesture/facial expression: bites her lips, 17:40¹⁴²] and [gesture: pulls up shoulders, 17:48]) conveys that this may be a difficult task and that she is not sure of the outcome. This impression is supported by the shoulder shrug that accompanies the interjection of her own opinion [*das ist **halt** meine Ansicht davon*, 17:49]. She puts this claim

¹⁴² See Appendix O for a screenshot.

into perspective by repeatedly modifying it with the modal particle *halt*.¹⁴³ In German, this modifier signals plausibility. Thurmair (1989) points out that it is often used in circumstances that are generally regarded as negative. We see this in Jana's first uptake inviting the interviewer to accept her belief as plausible. The second and third uses also point to the plausible yet regrettably negative message in her acknowledgement that the university context may not be conducive to her learning and teaching ideals [*aber das ist halt* (.) *in dem Universitätsumfeld schwer zu vermitteln*, 17:54] and [*weils doch es gibt halt die Noten*, 18:05].

Because Jana cannot recreate an immersion context for her university class, she tries instead to incorporate some features associated with immersion into her teaching. Monolingual classroom interaction is one that she promotes; the following section examines Jana's subjective perspective on monolingual instruction in an educational setting.

5.2.2.3 Monolingual instruction: "total immersion"

Typically, an immersion context (e.g., in a study-abroad context) provides monolingual input where the target language is used to relate content material. However, the instructor will most likely also use the target language for different classroom interactions (e.g., social interaction [asking about one's weekend], classroom management [asking students to hand in their assignments], and evaluation [providing feedback]). Most importantly, this monolingual use of the target language is not limited to the language classroom environment; other content in the

¹⁴³Thurmair (1989, p.125 describes the use of this modal particle as follows: "Ein Sachverhalt [wird] als plausibel für den Gesprächspartner gekennzeichnet. Dadurch wird die Äußerung zu einer plausiblen Erklärung oder Begründung für den Vorgänger (...). Der Sprecher konzidiert zwar, dass es auch noch alternative Erklärungen geben mag, bedeutet dem Hörer aber, für diesen Fall die dargestellte Erklärung, Begründung, Lösung anzuerkennen." Maria Thurmair also quotes Trömel-Plötz (1978) who refers to the predominantly negative context where this modal particle is used (1989, p. 125).

target language is usually taught first,¹⁴⁴ and secondly, speakers usually socialize in the target language outside of their educational context. Jana believes that these activities typically associated with immersion can and should be implemented in foreign language classrooms. This set of beliefs is captured in her use of the term *total immersion*, which she equates with the term *monolingual instruction* in an FL learning context.

Table 17 Concept Map Jana: “Total immersion”

45	4:23,7 - 4:38,0	uhmm (..) ja und uhm ja ja also das auch was am effektivsten ist wenn man die zeit hat ist total immersion	Jana
46	4:38,0 - 4:42,1	dass man zum beispiel im sprachunterricht nur die sprache spricht	
47	4:42,1 - 4:48,0	das ist sehr anstrengend für alle aber das ist das was am effektivsten ist eigentlich	
			[CM_J_4:23]

Jana repeatedly signals agreement [*uhm (..) ja und uhm ja ja*, 4:23] in this exchange and confirms that the most effective way to learn, provided one has the time, is total immersion, meaning (as she then adds) monolingual input in a foreign language class [*dass man zum Beispiel im Sprachunterricht nur die Sprache spricht*, 4:28]. Next, she points out that this is very tedious for everybody but then repeats her claim on effectiveness [4:23,7] that this kind of learning is the most effective [*das ist sehr anstrengend für alle aber das ist das was am effektivsten ist eigentlich*, CM_J_4:42]. This reference to total immersion is reminiscent of another comparison she draws in her first stimulated recall session between her own immersion language learning [*also dieses total immersion das kenn ich auch von mir*, 21:35] and the benefits of monolingual instruction [*die Idee ist super*, 21:32].

¹⁴⁴ See M. Swain (2000) on the development of Canadian French immersion programs in the 1970s.

Table 18 Stimulated recall 1 Jana: „Total immersion kenn ich auch von mir“

99	21:23,4 - 21:29,0	so (..) ähmm wie siehst du das mit einer sprache im unterricht	interviewer
100	21:29,0 - 21:40,2	uhmm ok(..) uhmm die idee ist super also dieses total immersion das kenn ich auch von mir von eigenem sprache lernen	Jana

[stim_1_J_21:23]

The following section relates how Jana’s subjective perspectives emerge from her own experience and reflection-on-action regarding her classroom practice.

Jana’s classroom practice with regard to monolingual instruction.

Because Jana experienced monolingual instruction in her immersion experience as beneficial for language learning, she strives to use the target language in her foreign language teaching as much as possible, despite the challenges that doing so poses. The following two sequences provide examples of her intent to implement monolingual instruction in her tertiary language classrooms. They were chosen because they represent two different types of possible scenario in the classroom.

In the first sequence, Jana initiates a classroom management interaction to collect the assigned homework from her students using the German target language. The second sequence shows Jana explicitly teaching foreign language vocabulary following a picture-matching exercise. Both sequences were video recorded during Jana’s first classroom observation. One camera was stationed in a corner of the room to capture the students’ actions, while the second

was operated by a cameraman who focused the recording on Jana’s actions in class.¹⁴⁵ The first sequence shows Jana collecting the homework assignments at the beginning of the class, and the second is an excerpt from a vocabulary-teaching activity that takes centre stage in that day’s lesson plan. The students had, at that point, had only eight contact hours of beginner German classroom instruction.¹⁴⁶

Classroom management: Request to submit assigned homework

Students are usually assigned homework on Friday and asked to submit it in class on Monday. At the beginning of this particular class, Jana asks for a letter students were asked to write. The transcript of this classroom management interaction in the table below documents how Jana’s subjective perspective on monolingual input matches her classroom practice. Not only does she succeed in maintaining a monolingual discourse in German, but she also manages to make herself understood. This classroom discourse excerpt is analyzed in detail below. The key phrases¹⁴⁷ for this interaction are *guten Tag, Hausaufgabe, Brief, Mittwoch, du hast es nicht gemacht, and danke.*

Table 19 Classroom observation 1 Jana: „Hausaufgaben”

4	0:00,0 - 0:23,9	[instructor is unpacking her books, class is murmuring] ok guten tag	Jana
5	0:23,9 - 0:26,0	guten tag	students
6	0:25,9 - 0:26,2	guten tag sehr schön	Jana
7	0:26,2 - 0:30,3	uuhmm (.) die bücher (.) auf seite dreiundzwanzig	
8	0:30,3 - 0:36,9	währendessen sammel ich die hausaufgabe ein hausaufgabe (..) hausaufgabe (.) homework	

¹⁴⁵ The sound was recorded with a microphone attached to Jana’s lapel. Chapter 4 provides more details on the technical set up for this observation. For example, the cameraman zoomed in on Jana’s gestures, followed her when she moved around the room, and zoomed in when she wrote on the blackboard.

¹⁴⁶ See a more detailed description of the data collection procedures in chapter 4.

¹⁴⁷ In the transcript, these key phrases are bolded.

		[gesture: hands make a picking movement] bitte	
9	0:37,0 - 0:38,6	hausauf (..) what	male student
10	0:38,6 - 0:48,8	hausaufgabe (..) homework von freitag den brief [gesture: fingers outlining a rectangular shape of a letter]	Jana
11	0:48,8 - 0:55,3	den brief [students mumbling] ok genau sehr schön [points to another student's work]	
12	0:55,2 - 0:59,3	[student questions in background] this one	student
13	0:59,3 - 1:00,0	uhmm genau das [nods] keine hausaufgabe [addressing student in front again and pointing at him]	Jana
14	1:00,0 - 1:01,9	i don't think so	student
15	1:01,8 - 1:08,7	ok am mittwoch [gesture: points to student twice with outstretched index finger] spätestens am mittwoch das war die hausaufgabe [gesture: points to book on table]	Jana
16	1:08,7 - 1:17,3	das war die hausaufgabe [picks up a sheet from another student and holds it up] der brief	
17	1:17,3 - 1:23,0	ich hab das am freitag auf die tafel geschrieben [gesture: makes a writing gesture turned to the board]	
18	1:23,0 - 1:24,0	ahh	student
19	1:24,0 - 1:24,6	(..) du hast es nicht gemacht [addressing another student]	Jana
20	1:24,6 - 1:29,1	du hast es nicht gemacht [gesture accompanying nicht - two fingers crossing and then opening] du hast es nicht gemacht	
21	1:29,1 - 1:30,4	is it at home or haven't you done it	
22	1:30,3 - 2:03,0	i didn't know it	student
23	2:01,9 - 2:04,1	bis mittwoch [gesture: pointy stab at student]	Jana
24	2:02,9 - 2:03,0	ich hab es an die Tafel geschrieben es ist auf LEARN	
25	2:03,0 - 2:03,2	auf LEARN [with raised voice]	student

26	2:03,2 - 2:04,0	es ist bei contents [writes on board the word <i>contents</i> followed by an arrow] und dann gibt es hausaufgaben [writes <i>hausaufgaben fuer montags</i> on board] und da war es für den vierundzwanzigsten september das war die hausaufgabe	Jana
27	2:04,0 - 2:06,6	bis mittwoch [gesture: pointy stab at student with index finger] bis mittwoch nächste stunde mittwoch wednesday	
28	2:06,5 - 2:13,9	[students mumble] yes ok wer hat noch die hausaufgabe danke schön [collects students' papers]	
29	2:13,9 - 2:38,1	dankeschön (.) super (.) dankeschön [walks around] danke (.) dankeschön danke danke danke (..) ok (.)	
30	2:38,1 - 2:42,4	mittwoch (.) mittwoch (..) hastes dabei [gesture: points to student and waves sheets in her hand]	
31	2:42,3 - 2:44,8	ok mittwoch	

[CO_1_J_0:00]

After greeting her students [*guten Tag*, 0:01], Jana asks them to hand in their assigned homework [*Hausaufgabe*, 0:30] in the form of a short letter [*Brief*, 0:48]. Some students seem not to have completed their assignments. She explicitly asks them if this is the case using a statement in a raised voice [*du hast es nicht gemacht*, 1:24] and then explains to them that this assignment and the instructions were available on the course management site. She conveys her expectation that students will complete and hand in their assignments by Wednesday [*Mittwoch*, 1:00]. Jana then turns to the other students in class, walks around the room, collects their work, and thanks them for their submissions [*danke*, 2:13].

A more detailed analysis of Jana’s utterances reveals that she uses a total of 154 German lexical items (tokens)¹⁴⁸ in this sequence. Another three tokens were English translations of two German nouns and the affirmative particle *yes*. Only one sentence, in part a translation of the preceding German sentence, was spoken in English. Jana does successfully focus on her monolingual production. Further evidence for this is provided in her resistance to code switching from German to English, even when she is prompted in English to do so [CO_1_J_2:01], [CO_1_J_1:00]. She is drawn into a delayed code switch only once (see Table 20) when a student repeats part of her utterance and follows that up with a pause and a questioning word that indicates his lack of understanding.

Table 20 Classroom observation 1 Jana: [Code switch](#)

9	0:37,0 - 0:38,6	hausauf (..) what	male student
10	0:38,6 - 0:48,8	hausaufgabe (.) homework von freitag den brief [gesture: fingers outlining a rectangular shape of a letter]	Jana

[CO_1_J_0:36]

Jana responds by repeating the German word *Hausaufgabe* followed by the English translation *homework*. Jana reacts to an individual student’s request for clarification and echoes, by addressing her comment directly to him, what she had previously announced to the entire class: *Hausaufgabe Hausaufgabe homework* [0:30]. She then resists continuing in English and instead expands the message by providing information on due dates and task specifics in German. The camera recording the students’ responses clearly shows that they understand what she is trying to convey. Only a few students (those without their homework) seem more hesitant

¹⁴⁸ In this case, the term *token* refers to the total number of German utterances. This count includes exclamations such as *ahh* and excludes proper nouns. See Laufer & Nation (1995) for a description of type/token ratio.

and appear confused. Student A., for example, is one of the students without homework. After Jana has written out the instructions on the board [2:02], he indicates that he now understands by snapping his fingers and by nodding. By then the majority of students have given the general impression that they know what they are expected to do. The second camera directed at the class captures their reactions [2:06 ff.]. Their gaze is directed toward the instructor. Without hesitating, most students search through their belongings for their completed work and, by the time Jana walks up to them, they are holding their sheets over their heads so she can pick them up. It is noteworthy that Jana provides a monolingual input of only 154 tokens and a relatively low lexical variance of 57 German types¹⁴⁹ (a 0.37 type-token ratio) in this sequence, yet she is able to convey meaning for a plethora of interactions: greeting her students, requesting action, stating facts, explaining task details, praising, reprimanding, negotiating the terms of task resubmission, and finally, expressing appreciation. In combination with contextualization features that I discuss in more detail later, Jana's principle strategy to maintain monolingual input appears to be repeating the key terms *Hausaufgabe*, *Mittwoch*, *Brief*, respectively, as well as the phrase *du hast es nicht gemacht*. Her repetitions often start with the key term embedded in a sentence followed by one-word repetitions which are only then followed by the source¹⁵⁰ language translation. The key term *Hausaufgabe* is an example of this process, which is presented in Table 21.

¹⁴⁹ In this case, the term *type* refers to the number of different word occurrences. See B. Laufer and P. Nation's 1995 discussion of type-token ratios and the issues encounter when trying to assess lexical richness. Also see Tschirner (2006) for a frequency dictionary of German lexical items.

¹⁵⁰ I choose to use the term source language instead of L1. The source language in the context of the foreign language classes at this tertiary institution is English, but many students' first language at this university is not.

Table 21 Classroom observation 1 Jana: [Strategies of modified input](#)

0:30,3 - 0:36,9	währendessen sammel ich die hausaufgabe ¹⁵¹ ein	The key term is a direct object with definite article used in a main clause.
	hausaufgabe (..) hausaufgabe (.) homework	It is then repeated twice without article and with pauses followed by an English translation.
0:37,0 - 0:38,6 0:38,6 - 0:48,8	hausauf (..) what [student] hausaufgabe (.) homework von freitag den brief [gesture: fingers outlining a rectangular shape of a letter]	A student then echoes this repetition in part and signals that he does not understand. Jana responds with a repetition of the German key word without article followed by a source language translation. She then switches back to the target language and provides more detail by first referring to the day it was given as homework [<i>von Freitag</i>] and then by describing the nature of the assignment [<i>den Brief</i>] accompanied by a depictive contextualizing gesture.
1:00,0	keine hausaufgabe	Her next use is the negation of the term in a question with a raised voice.
1:08,5	das war die hausaufgabe	The term is then used in nominative in a simple past main clause.
	das war die hausaufgabe der brief	This entire phrase is repeated followed by a one-word phrase again describing the nature of the assignment [<i>der Brief</i>].
2:03,2 - 2:04,0	und dann gibt es hausaufgaben [writes <i>hausaufgaben fuer montags</i> on board] und da war es für den vierundzwanzigsten september das war die hausaufgabe	Jana now embeds the key term as a direct object in a main clause. This time she is using the plural form without article. She then provides the graphic form by writing this plural form and the time phrase [<i>für montags</i>] on the board. She concludes this action by repeating the simple past main clause verbatim for the third time.
2:10,2	wer hat noch die hausaufgabe	Jana's last use of this key term is a question. It is the singular form as a direct object with definite article.

This example shows that Jana not only repeats the key term but she also varies how she uses it, alternating between using different one-word phrases as well as between using the key word as part of a question or as part of a main clause. She also varies her use of the key term grammatically, using it as a subject or as a direct object, in its singular or plural form, with or without articles, and in combination with a negative form. As she presents the term, Jana

¹⁵¹ The key terms *Hausaufgabe*, *homework*, and *Brief* are bolded in this transcript.

alternates between simplification and elaboration procedures. She simplifies her input in two ways, first by repeating the aural input and thus making it more accessible to a listener's auditory processing and secondly, by omitting the articles¹⁵² in her one-word repetitions. In contrast to these simplification strategies, Jana also employs elaborative strategies by embedding the terms in more complex sentence structures which she then repeats as phrase [e.g., *das war die Hausaufgabe*, 1:08 – 1:10 – 2:04]. In this example, her classroom actions are aligned with her subjective perspectives on contextualization (discussed later) that triggering different input channels and evoking multiple associations help retain the target item.

Monolingual input in language teaching: Follow-up of vocabulary practice

This classroom episode exemplifies how much effort Jana puts into her classroom interactions in order to maintain a monolingual input. Challenges trigger a reflection process that leads her to question the feasibility of monolingual input in beginners' language classes at the university level.

The sequence chosen for detailed analysis is based on a follow-up activity to a matching task that Jana used to introduce the vocabulary items of the next chapter. Each student received one card, part of a matching pair depicting either an image or the printed German word. They walked around in class trying to find their counterpart. Once they located their partner, they wrote their word into a table on the board which was organized by gender.¹⁵³ They then presented their word/picture cards to the other students. Thus, at the beginning of the sequence described here, students had been introduced to the target words' meanings, had seen them in

¹⁵²In German, articles are more complex and change according to grammatical gender, case, and number. Stripping her input of these can therefore be seen as an effective way to simplify the input.

¹⁵³ masculine=der, feminine=die, and neuter=das

writing, and had heard them pronounced. During the following sequence, the target words remained listed on the board according to their gender. Jana now initiates the follow-up second part of this activity by asking students to name places where all of these items can be bought.¹⁵⁴

Table 22 Classroom observation 1 Jana: „Wo kann man das kaufen?“

281	31:53,8 - 32:00,1	ok gut das sind ganz viele gegenstände ganz viele gegenstände	Jana
282	31:55,3 - 31:55,4	lauter gegenstände	
283	32:06,3 - 32:11,4	wo kann man das alles kaufen wo zum beispiel wo (.) kann man das kaufen [gesture: sweeping movement with arm and pointed index finger up and down points at list on the board]	
284	32:11,3 - 32:14,0	wo (...)	
285	32:14,0 - 32:20,2	ich möchte eine kaffeemaschine (.) eine schere [gesture: ticking off items with right hand on left hand in a counting movement] einen drucker einen tisch	
286	32:20,2 - 32:25,4	wo (.) kann ich das kaufen	
287	32:25,4 - 32:30,2	[unintelligible murmuring from students] hmm wo [questioning voice, gesture: index finger points to ear] kaufen uhumm	
288	32:30,1 - 32:34,8	kaufen was was was bedeutet kaufen	
289	32:34,8 - 32:41,1	[writes on board and slowly pronounces word while writing] kaufen [adds two question marks] was bedeutet kaufen	
290	32:41,1 - 32:48,8	ich gehe in einen laden ok(.) ich möchte diesen Tisch kaufen [gestures and mimes: as if handing over money] ok zehn euro ok kaufen [gesture: stands there with both arms held with hands palms up]	

¹⁵⁴The key German terms [*Gegenstände*, *wo*, *kaufen*] are bolded in the transcript.

291	32:48,7 - 32:51,8	ich möchte ein tisch kaufen [gesture: leans forward as if handing over money]	
292	32:51,7 - 33:02,2	was ist das [gesture: splays hand as if offering choice] auch auf english (...) buy (.) kaufen is to buy (.) ok (.)	
293	33:02,2 - 33:05,4	hmhmm [laughing] [students voice a long ahh] [gesture: arms apart, palms up] jetzt machts viel mehr sinn oder	
294	33:05,3 - 33:06,9	wo (.) wo kann ich das kaufen [gesture: hand tips repeatedly on board where the items are written down]	
295	33:06,9 - 33:11,3	wo zum beispiel wo hmm	
296	33:11,3 - 33:13,7	uhmm [student question unintelligible] uhmm alles wo	

[Jana_obs_1_31:53]

Her question, *Wo kann man das alles kaufen?* [32:06], places these words into context by evoking associations with a sales interaction. She anticipates that this will contribute to her students' intake, processing, and memorizing of the German target items. At the same time, she foreshadows the next task, a listening comprehension activity of a typical flea market dialogue. Her key terms (bolded in the Table 22 sequence) therefore address location [*wo*], the purpose of the interaction [*kaufen*], and the objects [*Gegenstände*] involved in this interaction.

Throughout most of this sequence, Jana maintains her monolingual input. This is challenging because students at first seem to have difficulties responding to her question [*wo kann ich das kaufen?* 32:06]. As in the first sequence analyzed, Jana's preferred strategy is to repeat words,

phrases, and sentences. Her first statement therefore provides variations of the key term *Gegenstände*; it is first embedded in a sentence with the complements *ganz viele* [*das sind ganz viele Gegenstände*, 31:53], then repeated as a phrase [*ganz viele Gegenstände*, 32:00]. Next, the complement *ganz viele* changes to *lauter* [*lauter Gegenstände*, 31:55] and finally, the key term is substituted by its referent *das alles* in the question [*wo kann man das alles kaufen?* 32:06]. This substitution is further simplified and shortened to *das* in the repetition of the question [*wo kann man das kaufen*, 32:10]. In the end, Jana even reverts to naming some concrete objects written on the board that are represented by the key term [*Ich möchte eine Kaffeemaschine, eine Schere, einen Drucker, einen Tisch*, 32:14]. By enumerating these objects as things she wishes to have, she calls to mind the words of the previous matching activity. This is further supported by using hand gestures to reinforce what she says. With a contextualizing indexical gesture, a sweeping movement with her arms extended and her index finger moving up and down the list on the board, she further emphasizes the key term *Gegenstände* and its respective referents *das/das alles*.

Despite her efforts, her students do not provide the response she is looking for. The student-view recording reveals that students are experiencing difficulties. They murmur in low voices, some attempt to look the response up in their textbooks, and in general, there is an obvious increase of unrest. Jana reacts to this by hesitating [*hmm wo kaufen uhum kaufen*, 32:25] before she reduces her input to a telegram style [*wo kaufen*] and raises her voice questioningly on the word *kaufen*, repeating it twice. She then initiates a self-repair [*was was*] moving away from the question word *wo*, as in her question “Where can I buy this?” to *was*, as in her question “What does *kaufen* mean?” She thereby temporarily abandons her goal to

contextualize the previously learned words. Instead of continuing to ask where these items can be purchased, she explicitly addresses the word meaning of *kaufen* on the assumption that that is where the problem lies.

Throughout this challenging sequence, she maintains her monolingual input despite the rising tension evident in her students' nonverbal reactions. She even refrains from providing a translation and encourages her students to share their knowledge first [*was bedeutet kaufen*, 32:34]. When they still do not respond, she writes the word on the board and speaks it loudly and slowly as well. She also ensures that her students understand the nature of her utterance as that of a question by placing two large question marks after the writing on the board before she repeats the question verbatim [*was bedeutet kaufen*, 32:41] for a second time.

Finally, Jana opts to mime the meaning. First, she sets the stage from the perspective of a first-person narrator [*ich gehe in einen Laden*, 32:41] and then she slips into the roles of both customer and salesperson [*ich möchte diesen Tisch kaufen – zehn Euro*]. At this point, Jana is simplifying her input even more. She moves from a sentence level [*ich möchte diesen Tisch kaufen*, 32:43] to a one-word repeat [*kaufen*, 32:48] that she intersperses with control questions signified by her repeated use of the affirmative *ok* in a raised voice. Her gesture with both arms held high and with palms up invites students to accept a turn-take.

Students do not react to this, however, and, after repeating the role-play scenario a second time, she offers to accept an answer to her question *Was ist das?* in English. This offer is accompanied by an opening gesture with splayed hands [*auch auf Englisch*, 32:52] that is followed by a pause where she waits for one of her students to answer before she finally provides the translation herself [*buy (.) kaufen is to buy (.) ok*, 33:02]. This built-up tension is

then released when her students' signal that they have understood [*ah; laughter*, 33:02] and by her rhetorical question accompanied by a gesture that opens an imaginary space in front of the speaker [*jetzt machts viel mehr Sinn, oder*, 33:05].

Jana returns to her initial question, now varied from the generic use of the agent *man* to the first-person perspective *ich* [*Wo (..) wo kann ich das kaufen*, 33:05,5]. Again, her deictic gesture contextualizes the *Gegenstände* key term's referent *das*. Despite her efforts, Jana cannot prompt her students to respond to her question.¹⁵⁵ Jana returns to her initial question, but students still do not answer.

Throughout this sequence her perseverance and patience clearly demonstrate her strong commitment to maintaining a monolingual input. She proves to be quite resourceful in scaffolding this input by repeating, by varying content, by changing her mode of presentation, by simplifying the structures, and by miming and gesturing before she finally provides an English translation as a last resort. The challenge she experiences, though, leads her to question the very ideals that she holds dear.

Even though Jana seems to wholeheartedly agree with her department's guideline of "*aufgeklärte Einsprachigkeit*"¹⁵⁶ (the extensive use of the target language German whenever possible), she also worries about the suitability of this approach for a beginners' class, because every single word is new to students—a factor that makes guessing from context much more difficult [*fast alles was ich sage sind ja für sie neue Vokabeln und deshalb ist es aus dem*

¹⁵⁵ As this episode continues, we see later that the students' difficulties are only partly due to understanding the meaning of the key terms. Most likely, they result from their inability to produce a response in the target language. Furthermore, Jana is possibly triggering a schema (flea market) that some Canadian students may not share. This is supported by what I refer to as the "Kijiji-moment." As soon as Jana triggers this schema of a Canadian online site for used items, her students laugh and complete the task.

¹⁵⁶ See Wolfgang Butzkamm (1973, 2011) for the principles and theoretical underpinnings of this approach.

Kontext heraus erkennen noch sehr sehr schwer, stim_1_J_22:44]. She also worries about the perceived difficulties for different learner types with varying language learning aptitudes. Some will “pick up” new words implicitly (as she did); others will need more practice, guidance, and source language references. Jana’s struggle with these conflicting concepts—what she believes is best versus what she believes is feasible—are captured in the way she presents them in her first stimulated recall. She also believes outside factors such as time constraints in the educational setting work against her subjective ideal of vocabulary learning.

Table 23 Stimulated recall 1 Jana: „Der Zeitfaktor ist also entscheidend“

102	21:43,5 - 21:55,5	also ich (.) das (..) konzept (..) finde ich [gesture: rubs her collar bone] es ist effektiv so ne sprache zu lernen nur (..) ähmm uhmm (..) seh ich das nicht (.) hundertprozentig umsetzbar [voice speeds up]	Jana
103	21:55,4 - 21:57,0	weil wir zuwenig zeit habe [voice: rapidly spoken]	
104	21:56,9 - 22:06,5	der zeitfaktor ist also entscheidend (.) also (.) man kann diese (..) äh diese dies (.) nur [voice: prolonged pronunciation] deutsch sprechen [voice: speeds up again] in fünfzig minuten nicht durchsetzen das [gesture: several quick shakes with her head] das klappt nicht	

[stim_1_J_21:43]

The statement of her ideal is accompanied by signs of hesitancy, such as pauses, self-repairs, a low pitch, slow speech, and a shoulder-shrug gesture. This changes when she seems to have made up her mind that a monolingual approach is not feasible given the time constraints [*seh ich das nicht (.) hundertprozentig umsetzbar weil wir zuwenig zeit haben*]. The speed of her speech increases and she seems sure of her conclusion: the concept of monolingual instruction

will not work in this situation [*das klappt nicht*, 22:05]. She fears abandoning many of the students who are not able to follow her lead in class and predicts that only those with “an ear tuned for language learning” will succeed under these circumstances.

Table 24 Stimulated recall 1 Jana: „*Man verliert alle, die Schwierigkeiten haben*“

105	22:06,4 - 22:13,1	weil (..) uhm (..) man dann vielleicht die mitzieht (..) uhm die (..) uhm die gut sind (.) die ein gehör für sprache haben	Jana
106	22:13,1 - 22:17,4	die es wirklich verstehen aber man verliert alle die schwierigkeiten haben	

[stim_1_J_22:06]

The conflict Jana experiences is that, as noted above, abandoning the notion of monolingual instruction contradicts her subjective perspectives on the effectiveness of immersion. The conclusion she seems to draw in her efforts to reconcile these dichotomous concepts is to reason that time is the issue. She repeatedly draws attention to the fact that her main concerns and source of tension seem to be her ability to organize class time in compliance with her instructional objectives. Jana expresses the realization that she is not teaching according to her beliefs of inductive vocabulary learning, contextualization, and monolingual input because she would then risk not being able to complete the assigned chapter’s tasks on time.¹⁵⁷ She repeatedly refers to time constraints with respect to monolingual instruction in Table 23 [*wenn man die Zeit hat*, CM_J_ 4:23], [*weil wir **zuwenig Zeit** haben*, stim_1_J_21:55], and [*der **Zeitfaktor** ist also entscheidend*, stim_1_J_21:56]. She discusses her teaching approach as a compromise that balances what she would like to do with what she deems possible, and she

¹⁵⁷ References to time concepts are bolded in the quotations.

admits to occasionally reverting to the translation-type vocabulary teaching she herself disliked as a student [*wenn ich garnicht weiterkomme dann muss ichs auf Englisch sagen, weil ich sonst einfach **nicht die Zeit hab***, stim_1_J_40:08], [*aber (.) dieses das ist ja induktives vokabellernen und dafür **fehlt einem sehr oft die Zeit***, stim_2_J_1:04:29], and [*wenn ich die Zeit hätte würde ich alles komplett alles so versuchen zu erarbeiten, dass ich keine englischen Wörter gebe*, stim_2_1:04:35]. Referring to repetition and the study of words in class, she states that she would prefer an approach where her target words are contextualized and repeated often, but that she lacks the time to do so [*ich würde jetzt gerne mehr wiederholen, aber (.) uhm aber **Zeitmangel** – also versuch ich das immer so ein bisschen in den Prozess einzubauen*, stim_2_J_32:41] and [*keine Definitionen (.) sondern durch den Kontext zu erarbeiten was das Wort bedeutet, aber **da fehlt leider sehr oft die Zeit***, stim_1_J_1:04:46].

In order to address this situation, Jana develops her own personal guidelines and scaffolding procedures. She reports that she introduces German cognates and words that can be easily guessed from their context, yet allows students to respond in English. She then provides feedback in German. In the case of a very complicated concept, she provides the English translation first, followed by German only.

In part, the reason why Jana can even feel this tension between code choices is the fact that the speakers share a common language (English). In a foreign language classroom with speakers of various language backgrounds, monolingual instruction in the target language is a necessity, not a choice.¹⁵⁸ If we look back to her own monolingual (immersion) experience, she

¹⁵⁸ For example, German classes taught to migrants from Turkey, Greece, Spain, and Italy have German as the common vernacular.

had no choice but to learn Finnish as quickly as possible. Therefore, a one-on-one projection of her own positive immersion experience is not really applicable in her current circumstances, and, as I argue, this divergence could be at the heart of the tension she experiences and that she starts to reflect on. In this conflict, we clearly see the emergence of her subjective theories in process. It also leads to a complex and sometimes seemingly contradictory teaching approach that shows strong teacher-centred features in practice while advocating creative learner-centred activities in theory. Jana's subtheme of authenticity exhibits a similar dichotomy

5.2.2.4 The concept of authenticity in Jana's subjective perspectives

On one hand, Jana strongly propagates authenticity and authentic input,¹⁵⁹ but she also supports instructor-modified input. Again, as she shares examples of her own language learning background to illustrate her point, her subjective perspectives revolve around her own vocabulary learning narratives.

Issues with the term “authentic”. In an immersion context, all communication is usually genuine, but in a foreign language, classroom learning context, language is both the means for communication and the target of instruction. In a monolingual instructional setting, where the only possible language of instruction is the target language, this distinction does not seem to matter as much because the setting replicates an immersion context.¹⁶⁰ But as soon as monolingual input is interspersed with source language, the issue of authenticity is raised. However, what we actually mean by authenticity is often not clear. Are we relating to the purposefulness of the interaction? If so, the interaction is viewed from the perspective of the speakers' genuine interest to communicate; it is dialogue between a customer and a salesperson

¹⁵⁹ These are the terms Jana uses.

¹⁶⁰ Of course, foreign language input in a monolingual setting can be modified, too.

in a store versus students only practising and improvising phrases in their sales-oriented role-play. Or are we looking at the linguistic content of the interaction? In this case, we are referring to the issue of authentic material, meaning non-modified target language input as described by Kumaravadivelu (2006). Or are we referring to pragmatics, where utterances have consequences because, for example, they are produced in a particular setting?

Different conceptualizations of “authentic / genuine” are possible in Jana’s FL context: (1) as a non-modified input in a genuine situation (e.g., Jana asking students to open their textbooks), (2) as modified input in a genuine situation (e.g., Jana simplifying her input to ask about her students weekend), (3) as non-modified input in a non-genuine situation (e.g., asking students to find forms of address on German blog sites), and (4) as modified input in a non-genuine situation (e.g., asking students to read a textbook dialogue where speakers order drinks in a restaurant).

Jana’s conceptualization of authenticity. My analysis of Jana’s conceptualization of authenticity argues first that Jana uses the term *authenticity* interchangeably to refer to both the pursuance of social interaction and to the input itself, and secondly, that the emphasis she places on authenticity is grounded in her assumptions about the benefits of immersion. By advocating implicit vocabulary learning where students glean words from *authentic* (non-modified) input, Jana ties immersion learning concepts into foreign language instruction concepts. As can be concluded from her reflections in her narratives on foreign language acquisition, implicit vocabulary learning is in the foreground of her FL learning. Implicit learning, in turn, is clearly related to how Jana describes her learning process in immersion, “picking up” new words after hearing them once or twice in “natural settings.” As was

previously noted, Jana wants to replicate this “natural setting” in her class [stim_2_J_16:52]. As part of this endeavour, she therefore sees being exposed to *authentic* (non-modified) sources such as films, songs, and websites as an excellent way to acquire new words. With reference to her own learning, Jana reports that her Spanish foreign language instructor at university introduced non-modified sources in his classes and names him as one of her role models for her own teaching ideals. She, too, intends to incorporate *authentic* material (song texts, films, and advertisements). She associates these with the term “*creative*.” Interestingly, this term not only alludes to the non-modified characteristic of the input but also to the pleasure and joy found in the ability to communicate as if in the target language environment. Words are acquired to then be used in a creative way in different contexts.

In her own Spanish class, vocabulary learning is not an issue because she prepares for classes out of interest and “picks up” the necessary words along the way. Her instructor organizes his class in such a way that his students have fun and are motivated. He never assigns vocabulary tasks but assumes that lexical knowledge will be learned implicitly, “taking care of itself.”

Table 25 Concept map Jana: „Vokabellernen hat so nebenher funktioniert“

163	18:20,2 - 18:28,3	und das war für mich persönlich viel effektiver als wenn wir jetzt hausaufgaben immer vokabel lernen hätte oder explizit gesagt hätten	Jana
164	18:28,3 - 18:30,8	so jetzt lernen wir diese und diese vokabeln	
165	18:30,8 - 18:36,2	sondern das vokabellernen ist so nebenher hat so nebenher funktioniert	

[CM_J_18:20]

This “picking up” is reminiscent of Jana’s immersion experience. There, she talks about herself as someone who reads words once or twice and then knows their meaning [*also ich les die im Text und les die nochmal im Text und dann weiß ich was sie bedeuten*, stim_2_J_13:35] and [*weil zum Beispiel bei mir war das so ich habe die Vokabel einmal im Text gelesen habe die dann nochmal gesagt und dann wusste ich was die heißt*, CM_J_19:19]. This kind of vocabulary acquisition has worked for her in both an immersion *and* in an FL context. Though she acknowledges that this might not be the case for everyone [*aber ich weiß auch von anderen von Klassenkameraden von mir dass sie sich hinsetzen mussten und wirklich Vokabellisten auswendig lernen mussten um das zu können*, CM_J_19:27], she would like to introduce this approach in her teaching.

She therefore never assigns learning vocabulary as homework. She recalls that this galled her as a student in her FL English classes in Germany and that she refused to comply with her teacher’s instruction because she did not (and still does not) believe in teaching words without an authentic context.¹⁶¹ In her second stimulated recall, Jana connects her own learner experience with her classroom practice [*Aber ich hab nicht gesagt lernen Sie jeden Tag zwanzig Vokabeln, weil das hat früher (.) äh das haben früher meine Lehrer gemacht und das fand ich furchtbar*, stim_2_J_12:59]. Jana not only wants her students to take the initiative and the responsibility for their vocabulary learning, she also wants them to learn vocabulary from an authentic context. This insight stems from her own experience; she clearly relates her teaching with her own learning.

¹⁶¹ [CM_J_18:57, *Auswendiglernen fand ich ganz furchtbar*].

Asked how she would deal with students who struggle to learn vocabulary implicitly, Jana explains that she repeats a word again and again. Interestingly, Jana does not see repetition as a modification of input. However, as she points out a number of times, she believes that speaking more slowly is not authentic [*wenn möglich rede ich nicht ganz so langsam aber wiederhols lieber dreimal weil die Sprache authentisch sein muss*, 34:18]. In fact, she even assumes that her students would feel offended by contrived speech patterns, which she says are also artificial [*künstlich*, 35:18]. She even postulates her students might interpret her slower speech as if she were addressing them as dumbos, and she therefore avoids it [*weil sie sich dann auch nicht für dumm verkauft (.) äh (.) vorkommen wenn ich sie wenn ich mich vor sie stelle und das einmal ganz langsam sagen soll*, 34:48]. Jana therefore prefers to use repetition more often and argues that language was, after all, designed to enhance communication. However, her argument shows discrepancies because she cannot really explain how repetitions lead to better communication. Jana's hesitation is evident in her pauses, recasts, and self-repairs, and in a direct statement outlining her subjective view [*dann hab ich eben manchmal das Gefühl*, 35:04]. Furthermore, her gestures (shoulder shrug, chin scratching, and head shake) signal that she is not as confident about her position as she claims to be. In particular, she appears to have doubts about the students' intake. When I ask about students' reaction to her approach, she puffs out air, laughs, and says that they understand. However, her body language and facial expression contradict her words. Earlier in the same recall session, Jana admitted that students' intake fell short of what she would have liked to see in an implicit learning situation. Even though it is her intention to create a natural setting [16:52], her students do not seem to embrace this kind of learning; in fact, she believes that they retain very little. Asked to describe to what

degree her students can make use of this type of learning, she answers that she does not see this happening [*uhm (...) relativ schlecht*, 17:16].

Table 26 Stimulated recall 2 Jana: How students relate to her teaching- „Umsetzen? Relativ schlecht”

141	16:52,6 - 17:01,4	uhm (.) ja (.) dadurch schafft man eben auch so ein bisschen (...) ein natürlicheres umfeld	Jana
142	17:01,3 - 17:10,7	in dem es nicht darum geht (.) uhm (.) sachen auswendig zu lernen und sie dann wieder zu vergessen sondern (...) ja	
143	17:10,7 - 17:16,7	wie schätzt du das ein mit deinen studenten jetzt hier wie sie das umsetzen was du an vorstellungen hast [gesture: instructor nods]	interviewer
144	17:16,7 - 17:19,2	uhm (.) relativ schlecht	Jana

[stim_2_J_16:52]

Jana is aware of the tension between her perspectives and what she can achieve in class. She attempts to react to learners’ difficulties by repeating her words instead of simplifying the input by speaking more slowly.

Table 27 Stimulated recall 2 Jana: „Authentisches Sprechtempo beibehalten”

276	34:13,3 - 34:18,4	ja (.) auch wenn ich so (.) die wenn möglich rede ich nicht ganz so langsam	Jana
277	34:18,4 - 34:20,3	aber wiederhols lieber dreimal	
278	34:20,3 - 34:31,7	weil die sprache authentisch sein muss ah (.) ahmm die natürlich auch so das lernen (.) und mitbekommen was ich sage	
279	34:31,6 - 34:38,2	wie reagieren die studenten darauf	interviewer
280	34:38,2 - 34:48,8	öff [gesture: instructor shrugs left shoulder] [instructor shakes her head] ja sie verstehens [instructor laughs] und so [instructor scratches her chin - see screenshot]	Jana

281	34:48,7 - 35:05,8	weil sie sich dann auch nicht für dumm verkauft (.) äh (.) [gesture: instructor partially covers her mouth with right hand] vorkommen wenn ich sie wenn ich mich vor sie stelle und das einmal ganz langsam sagen soll dann hab ich eben manchmal das gefühl dass sie (.) denken ich ja unwohl fühle oder so	
282	35:06,2 - 35:18,7	ja das ist auch nicht authentisch eben dass ich (.) äh ich möchte auch nicht dass ich äh (.) dass die (.) ja dass sie das so (..) [instructor smacks her lips] künstlich lernen	
283	35:18,7 - 35:30,6	weil die sprache ist ja hauptsächlich eben [gesture: quick shrug with left shoulder] wieder zur kommunikation da [gesture: instructor's torso moves back and forth] und dann versuch ich ein bisschen [stress on first syllable] authentisches sprechtempo beizubehalten	
284	35:30,6 - 35:31,8	und es lieber fünfmal zu sagen (.) nja	

[stim_2_J_34:13]

Jana sees more merit in an authentic speech speed than in slowed down and thus artificial input. When she mentions artificial [*künstlich*], she also evokes the contrasting concept of a natural (immersion) setting: language as means of communication [*weil die Sprache ist ja hauptsächlich eben wieder zur Kommunikation da*, 35:18]. The *natural setting* term is a recurring theme in Jana's BAK system and refers back to the "naturalness" of an immersion context, where the foremost intention of language acquisition and use is authentic communication.

This sequence also draws attention to another belief Jana holds with regard to authenticity, that it is closely related to aural input as the most basic way of communicating. Listening comprehension played a pivotal role in Jana's own immersion vocabulary acquisition, and she

therefore draws the conclusion that using audio recordings in an FL classroom will provide an authentic language source. She sees them as the most effective way to encounter and memorize new words.

Table 28 Stimulated recall 1 Jana: „Hören ist authentischer“

380	53:13,5 - 53:17,0	aber ich arbeite lieber mit dem audio als mit dem buch	Jana
381	53:17,0 - 53:22,5	weil es sie (.) weil sie es authentischer finde (..) wenn man was hört und verstehen muss	
382	53:22,5 - 53:30,9	und die reproduzieren das authentischere weil (...) ich finde dass man eine sprache nach eben am besten dadurch lernt	
			[stim_1_J_53:13]

Jana even points out that students will retain words better by listening to them than by reading them. She believes that the naturalness of spoken interaction, where not every single word must be understood to get the meaning across, helps students improve their linguistic competence.

Table 29 Stimulated recall 1 Jana: „Das Hören ist viel besser und effektiver“

410	55:31,6 - 55:35,3	bei diesem hören haben sie keine andere wahl weil sie es im kopf gesprochen wird	Jana
411	55:35,2 - 55:37,3	und deshalb finde ich das (.) uhhh	
412	55:37,2 - 55:43,4	weil kontext arbeit ist (.) äh ist (.) uhm (.) das hören viel besser und viel effektiver	
413	55:43,4 - 55:46,4	und es macht ihnen weniger aus wenn sie etwas nicht hören	
414	55:46,3 - 55:48,8	interessant	interviewer
415	55:48,8 - 56:00,1	also wens wenn's darum geht	Jana

		wenn die kommunikation zu betonen und und das hörverständnis (.) also oder das verständnis ansich da ist hören sehr viel effektiver als lesen	
416	56:00,0 - 56:09,5	wenn sie den text lesen und verstehen was nicht das ist es ganz oft so das sies einfach das sich da so eine blockade [gesture: flat hand raised and held in front of head] einbaut dass sie das sehen sie verstehen ein zwei wörter nicht	
417	56:09,4 - 56:10,9	das sie dann garnicht weiterlesen	
418	56:10,9 - 56:13,6	oder gleich so das gefühl haben oh mein gott ich habe nichts verstanden	
419	56:13,5 - 56:15,1	wenn sie es hören dann spiele ich es nochmal vor	
420	56:15,0 - 56:16,6	und dann verstehen sie oft mehr als sie denken	
421	56:16,6 - 56:18,3	und das fließt dann so unbewusst ein	
422	56:18,2 - 56:25,7	und das bewusste verarbeiten durch lesen ist dann eher zum vertiefen bei bekannten dingen aber um unbekannte dinge einzuführen	
423	56:25,6 - 56:30,6	ist wenn ich spreche oder wenn sie was hören auf dem oft effektiver	
424	56:32,1 - 56:34,5	also finde ich	
425	56:34,5 - 56:41,1	deshalb finde ich das ganz gut dass es das buch so viel mit audio dateien macht	
426	56:41,1 - 56:42,5	das ist echt gut	

[stim_1_J_55:31]

Jana holds very strong convictions about the advantage of listening over reading. In Table 29's sequence alone, she repeats three times that listening is better and more effective (see bolded text in 55:43, 56:00, and 56:30). New words will subconsciously "flow" into them

[*und das fließt dann so unbewusst ein*, 56:16]. Furthermore, they will not only learn some new words, but they will also learn to tolerate not comprehending every single word in an utterance. Jana assumes this level of tolerance is lower for a reading text and that this, in turn, keeps students from taking a leap of faith and embarking on language learning as a communicative endeavour. She believes that the flow of their (natural) intake is blocked by their desire to know every single word.

Jana ends this sequence by referring to the textbook audio component she prefers to use in her classroom practice for new vocabulary. As was noted earlier, Jana links audio input to the concept of authenticity. However, the audio resources she associates with authentic aural input are undoubtedly highly modified textbook recordings. They display modified features in production (e.g., enunciation, control of background noise), linguistic content (e.g., simplified language adapted to particular proficiency levels and chapter corpora), and subject matter (e.g., controlled by chapter themes and simplified scenarios with contrived redundancies). The only part that could still be considered authentic interaction is the fleeting nature of aural input. But, in the case of the textbook audio component,¹⁶² replaying the recording undermines this concept.¹⁶³ In her mind, however, this does not contradict Jana's beliefs about the relationship between authentic input and repetitions, but I argue that it renders her conceptualization of authenticity very elusive. She seems to be striving for a condition that cannot be attained in an FL learning context. With the exception of classroom instructions and limited social talk, the interaction is governed by modified input provided to teach the language, not to get together to

¹⁶² The instructor manual recommends playing these at least twice.

¹⁶³ I can think of only a few situations (e.g., answering machines, film viewings, songs) where the aural input would be repeated verbatim. Such instances would rarely occur within common social interactions.

chat. In particular, the proficiency level of a beginners' class limits the accessibility of non-modified input. Furthermore, in a learning environment with a common non-target vernacular, most communicative encounters in the target language will be teacher-driven (e.g., inquiring about students' weekend plans). The likelihood that beginner students will socialize in the target language is very low. I further assume that Jana is at least partially aware of this tension, as she expresses this discrepancy in her repeated comments on the expectations and constraints of having to grade, time pressures, and general expectations of a university setting. I interpret her comments as a way to maintain her beliefs by drawing on external factors and circumstances as the cause for this tension.¹⁶⁴

I turn now to my analysis of Jana's third subtheme of immersion, her subjective perspective on contextualization. This concept seems to offer a solution to the otherwise seemingly incompatible conditions of implicit (akin to immersion) instruction and the constraints of teaching a foreign language in a tertiary educational setting. Contextualization is part of the main theme of *Der Sinn einer Sprache ist Kommunikation* in Jana's narratives because it transcends the boundaries of immersion and an FL classroom. Context occurs in immersion's natural setting and it can also be provided in the foreign language classroom.¹⁶⁵

5.2.2.5 Context and contextualization as an immersion subtheme

Context and contextualization are important subthemes in Jana's cognition and classroom practice. Her use of the term *Kontext* merges the understanding of context as a local and interactional *setting* (e.g., where and with whom does a speaker interact) with that of a

¹⁶⁴ I come back to this aspect when discussing reflected engagement as a necessary condition to engage with all interrelated factors in the vocabulary learning and teaching context.

¹⁶⁵ See the adaptation of Nation and Webb's 2011 taxonomy of contextualization in the foreign language class in Chapter 2.

methodological *procedure* (e.g., how can the presentation of input facilitate understanding). This use relates to Jana's own experience, where immersion learning took place within the context of a local setting as a purposeful interaction between speakers who perhaps employed contextualizing procedures designed to facilitate understanding. I draw on my analyses of Jana's concept map drawing, her classroom observations, and her narratives to highlight Jana's construction of subjective perspectives wherein she intends to recreate the *Kontext* of a "natural learning environment."

Teachers should replicate a "natural learning environment" context

Jana disagrees with the concept of explicit vocabulary teaching. She argues that there is no merit in memorizing vocabulary lists at home and bases that perspective on her own negative learning experience [*aber ich hab nicht gesagt, lernen Sie jeden Tag zwanzig Vokabeln, weil das hat früher mein Lehrer gemacht und ich fand das furchtbar, stim_2_J_12:59*]. Instead, she believes that a foreign language instructor should strive to replicate the conditions of a natural learning context [*ein natürliches Lernumfeld schaffen*]. In such an environment, students would learn vocabulary implicitly. She sees reading and looking up unfamiliar words as another way to provide this kind of input [*ich sag denen [speech slows down] halt immer sie sollen lesen und sie sollen wiederholen aber ich sag nie explizit sie sollen Vokabeln lernen, stim_2_J_9: 50*] and [*sie sollen halt was was der Idealfall wäre ist dass sie die Sachen im Text sehen dass sie da nachschauen und dass sie es durch Wiederholung eben (.) klar wird was das Wort genau bedeutet, stim_2_J_11:10*].

In her concept map drawing¹⁶⁶ and the discussion that follows, the key terms *Kontext*, *Wiederholung*, and *total immersion* are repeated. The following paragraph describes Jana's step-by-step construction of these concepts in the process of her drawing that demonstrate how she highlights these terms and how she relates them to other factors.

Kontext is the first word Jana writes. She places the word *Wiederholung* (repetition) next to it in the same bold letters. Throughout the drawing process, she returns to these entries repeatedly and highlights them with the same visual markers by outlining the contours, circling them, and colouring their background. Finally, she links *Kontext* and *Wiederholung* by joining them with the inscription *total immersion*. She then identifies this entry by labelling it as a task for the instructor. During the concept map discussion, she explains the meaning of this record as the importance of learning vocabulary in context rather than in isolation [*es ist beim Sprachenlernen ganz wichtig, dass man das verknüpft, dass das keine isolierten Vokabeln sind (..) und dass es wiederholt wird, immer wieder*, CM_J_2:29]. This notion of connecting *verknüpfen* is carried forward to Jana's beliefs on contextualizing as a methodological procedure in her mention of linking schema in the brain.

Contextualizing as methodological procedure “*im Hirn verknüpfen*”. It is Jana's aim to teach new lexical items by presenting them in different and inspiring ways [*kreativ verarbeiten*] and by linking them to nonverbal contexts such as situative knowledge (location, time, speaker, and topic) and background knowledge.

¹⁶⁶ See [Appendix M](#) for a replication of Jana's concept map drawing in six story-board slides.

Table 30 Concept map Jana: „Im Hirn verknüpfen”

25	2:14,9 - 2:30,1	ja also das eben beim beim sprache lernen ganz wichtig ist dass man das verknüpft dass das keine isolierten vokabeln sind sondern dass es verknüpft wird mit möglichst vielen strängen man sieht ja hier auch wie alles aussieht	Jana
			[CM_J_2:14]

To achieve this, she suggests using depictive gestures, providing visual cues, initiating role-plays, and encouraging the use of mnemonic devices. Tracing Jana’s drawing of her concept map incrementally delineates how interrelated these concepts are for her. She creates a conceptual network arranged around the central aspects of context [*Kontext*] and repetition [*Wiederholung*], which take a central position in her other narratives. In step 24,¹⁶⁷ she returns to these themes and adds another word cloud for “different contexts” [*verschiedene Kontexte*], meaning to use words in a variety of ways, as she later explains in her discussion session. In her drawing, she then links the cloud “different contexts” [*verschiedene Kontexte*] to “creative processing” [*kreatives Verarbeiten*], “transfer” [*überarbeiten*] <26>¹⁶⁸ and “repetition” [*Wiederholung*] <25>. She then returns to the theme of contextualization a third time in steps 52 through 59,¹⁶⁹ where she refers to contextualizing procedures. Establishing that the student is the agent in these situations <52, 53>, she then links “context” [*Kontext*] <54> with “repetition” [*Wiederholung*] <55> and adds a new word cloud inscribed with “different techniques such as flashcards, post-its, colours and more” [*versch. “Techniken” z.B. Flashcards, Post its, Farben, etc...*] <56>, thus linking it to “creative processing” [*kreatives Verarbeiten*] <57>. In her next

¹⁶⁷ This numbering refers to the sequential steps of Jana’s concept map drawing. The slides are reproduced in [Appendix M](#).

¹⁶⁸ [ibid.](#)

¹⁶⁹ [ibid.](#)

move, she uses the colour code for teacher actions to create a word cloud for the contextualizing actions of the instructor “using various ‘channels’ speaking writing listening” [verschiedene “Kanäle” sprechen, schreiben, hören] <59>. In her concept map discussions, she explains the process of contextualizing as “linking concepts in the brain” [dass es halt möglichst vielseitig im Hirn verknüpft ist, CM_J_9:32].

Table 31 Concept map Jana: „Verschiedene Kanäle ansprechen“

9:14,2 - 9:19,8	dass man es übertragen kann auf verschiedene kontexte und dann auch anwenden kann in verschiedenen kontexten	Jana
9:19,8 - 9:22,2	das ist denke ich auch sehr wichtig	
9:22,2 - 9:33,1	auch dass man sich verschiedene lernhilfen flashcards postits mit farben dass es halt möglichst vielseitig im hirn verknüpft ist	
9:33,1 - 9:44,2	deshalb dass man nur nicht ins buch guckt vokabel was bedeutet die vokabel was bedeutet die vokabel vokabelwissen ist auswendiglernen für vokabeltests	
9:44,1 - 9:48,9	sondern dass es auch so (.) embedded ist	

[CM_J_9:14]

Again, by pointing out the benefits of contextualizing activities over rote memorization techniques, Jana refers back to her overall leitmotif of “*Der Sinn einer Sprache ist Kommunikation.*” However, her struggles with the reality of her teaching context are described in my conclusion.

In conclusion, Jana’s convictions about best practices in learning and teaching vocabulary are strong, but their realization in class is fraught with tension. As described above, she believes that repetition, context in sample sentences, and contextualization with gestures or images are

preferable to what she refers to as rote memorization [*stures Auswendiglernen*, stim_2_J_10:15]. However, she realizes that her students struggle with vocabulary acquisition. Therefore, she falls back on explicit memorization as a last resort when learning by implicit procedures or learning from incidental input fails [*weil wenn es dann gar nicht anders geht dann müssen sie sich halt darauf einlassen sie auswendig zu lernen*, stim_2_J_10:39].

Furthermore, Jana can only partially maintain her idealistic stance and implement her preferred methods into her teaching practice. She is hindered by external factors such as institutional constraints but also by the disillusionment that this kind of learning may not be feasible in this educational setting. Jana is aware of this tension, and it remains an unresolved issue that she repeatedly refers to in her narratives throughout the entire course of the term. In Jana's reflection-on-action, she tries to match what she believes with what she sees in her classroom action. The struggle that is apparent in her narratives shows us how subjective perspectives are emergent in reflection. They are not stable but negotiated, and sometimes—as in Jana's case—ideals and practice cannot be easily reconciled.

Sofia

*Ich habe Sprachen geliebt
und es war mir egal,
wie der Lehrer vorne unterrichtet.
Ich habe das für mich gemacht.
Sofia*

5.3 Sofia: “*Bei mir ist Sprachen lernen irgendwie anders gelaufen*”

Of all three case studies, Sofia’s story is the most complex and multi-faceted construction of subjective perspectives. I have therefore organized its telling in a different way. I first present a brief summary of her *systematic* and *innovative* subjective perspectives. This is followed by a detailed description and analysis of her identity construction as a learner and teacher of vocabulary. I then relate the underlying dynamics of her perspective constructions to her classroom actions in a way that shows how her narrated themes and subthemes are interwoven with her actions.

Sofia displays two partially contradictory themes in her subjective perspectives on vocabulary learning and teaching: the systematic approach to learning [*systematisch lernen*] and the imaginative [*originell*]. She frames this “tug-of-war” dynamic of supporting both at the same time by placing herself as an outsider [*anders sein*]. Her own learning differs from what she currently teaches and believes [*Bei mir ist Sprachen lernen irgendwie anders gelaufen*], but I argue that, for Sofia, these are really two sides of the same coin representing her lived reality. My analysis of her narratives about her own language learning and her teacher education explains this dichotomy, but I first summarize Sofia’s comments about vocabulary learning, arranging them according to their theme.

5.3.1 The systematic ideal: „Systematisieren ist das Allerwichtigste“

Sofia believes a systematic approach to vocabulary learning is the best way to acquire new words. She therefore advocates a sequential, structured teaching technique of (1) introducing the new word [*einführen*], (2) establishing its meaning [*semantisieren*], and (3) practicing it [*üben*]; [CM_S_4:55]¹⁷⁰. In her view, a sound knowledge of vocabulary is necessary to learn grammar, but she does not want to mingle grammar with vocabulary activities. Instead, she prefers to keep activities strictly assigned to the practice (and testing) of one or the other of them. Writing word lists and memorizing them as well as flashcard practice are, from her perspective, the most effective way to acquire new words. For example, she argues that a good way to practice vocabulary is by creating semantic networks structured according to themes or topics (e.g., placing words relating to *kitchen* in the top right-hand corner of a mind map so that students might then remember where this word was positioned on it and could then conclude that it had be related to *kitchen*). For practice, she also suggests writing word lists organized according to grammatical features. But new words should be introduced by the teacher [*Frontalunterricht*] writing them on the board. Given the time constraints in language classes, she finds translations into the source language an acceptable way to save class time. Sofia supports monolingual instruction but she also reports that she simplifies and modifies the input by omitting grammatical markers (e.g., articles), by stressing endings, and by slowing down the speed of her speech. She criticizes the textbook she uses because it does not provide enough explicit vocabulary training for students to practice regularly. She believes that instructors should sometimes test their students in class [*die alte Methode einfach abfragen*, CM_S_11:26]

¹⁷⁰ See also the slides of Sofia's concept map drawing in [Appendix N](#).

or provide fill-in-the-blank exercises. She argues that language classes (and vocabulary) are best taught by native speakers [*Muttersprachler*] of the target language because their pronunciation is flawless [CM_S_31:52] and they make fewer mistakes [CM_S_28:55].

5.3.2 The innovative ideal: „*Vokabeln einführen sollte originell, interessant, irgendwie anders sein*”

Sofia also propagates an innovative ideal in teaching and learning vocabulary. Words should be introduced in a way that makes their acquisition fun and engaging. They should be presented in an authentic context that is relevant to students’ personal lives, experiences, and educational needs. Sofia therefore favours vocabulary activities such as dialogues, interviews, and role-plays that contextualize vocabulary and she therefore intends to prepare meaningful input (and output) for learning and communication. Provided she has enough time, she states that she prefers exercises that are learner-centred and interactive. New words should be introduced inductively to avoid instructor-fronted teaching. Learning in context is the key recurrent theme in Sofia’s narratives. From her perspective, teachers can provide this context by, for example, choosing visuals, using body language and gestures, presenting new words in sentences, and activating students’ schemata to help them make sense of new words. Sofia therefore concludes that instructors should not follow one specific way of teaching vocabulary; rather, they should incorporate different techniques that cater to the needs of their students—their background, their ability, and their educational setting.

These two perspectives initially seem to be worlds apart. Indeed, as I suggest shortly, they can be tracked and related to Sofia’s lived experience that displays a similar divide between how she perceived language during her own (vocabulary) learning and what she now thinks

about vocabulary pedagogy and how she intends to teach vocabulary. In order to make sense of concepts that seem as incompatible as Sofia's do, we must keep in mind that subjective perspectives are fluid in the making (see Chapter 2). I would argue that what appears to be discordant at first sight actually acquires a multi-faceted quality when seen through the lens of Sofia's lived reality. Sofia is, in her own way, making sense of this reality by reframing these constructs as a result of her being different and having had different experiences [*Bei mir ist Sprachen lernen irgendwie anders gelaufen*]. I also argue that the key theme *systematic* in her perspectives results from her apprenticeship of observation, while the focus on *innovative* teaching results from her teacher training. The analysis of a passage of Sofia's classroom observations indicates that, at this point in her lived reality, her experience as a language learner has a greater influence on her vocabulary teaching classroom practices. The following section presents Sofia's narrative of her own language learning and her teacher training background.

5.3.3 Sofia's language learning background

At the time of data collection, Sofia is a thirty-year-old plurilingual international PhD student from Poland. She recounts that her parents were Polish migrants who lived in Germany for a period of twelve years before they returned to Poland. Sofia is three years old when her family moved to Germany, and she spends the following twelve years growing up in this sociocultural environment. In Germany, Sofia goes to kindergarten and elementary school, and then attends high school¹⁷¹ until she is fifteen, when her parents decide to move back to Poland. She completes her high school education in Gdansk and Warsaw and then begins studying at Warsaw University. Sofia graduates with a Bachelor of Arts Degree in English Language and

¹⁷¹ Germany has different kinds of high schools. Sofia attended a Gymnasium, the type of high school that offers the *Hochschulreife* degree that is required to pursue university studies.

Literature. Prior to her move to Canada, she also completes a two-year master's program in German as a foreign language at Warsaw University. Sofia speaks Polish, German, English, Russian, and French at various levels of proficiency. In her case, a distinction between language acquired as an L1 learner, as a second language learner, or as a foreign language learner is important in evaluating how her complex language learning biography shaped her subjective identity construction as well as her self- and other-positioning.

*Sofia's acquisition of Polish*¹⁷²

Sofia possesses native-speaker competence in Polish because it is the first language she learned. Her Polish family speak it in the home in Germany, and Sofia learns to speak it fluently at an age-appropriate proficiency level. However, when her family moves back to Poland, she soon discovers that her reading and writing skills have fallen behind those of her peers. The Polish Friday School she attended in Germany only provided rudimentary reading and writing skills. In Gdansk, however, she is immersed in a Polish speaking environment and within six months her reading and writing quickly improve. Sofia completes her high school education and two post-secondary degrees in this language environment. Now that she teaches at a Canadian university, Polish has primarily become a language of long-distance communication with family and friends via Skype and email.

¹⁷² I present the languages Sofia speaks in the same order as she first encounters them.

Sofia's acquisition of German and her teaching experience

Sofia's parents were Polish migrants with no prior knowledge of German. She therefore grows up immersed in a German language environment in kindergarten, with close members of her family learning German as a second language. Sofia recalls that her parent's German language textbook is her first picture story book; it is even the book¹⁷³ she uses to teach herself how to read and write. Sofia's parents foster their daughter's German language development, and Sofia acquires age-appropriate L1 speaker fluency with ease. At school, she is a good student who excels in German, foreign languages, and mathematics. Upon her return to Poland, her German proficiency helps her get a position as a German language instructor at a language institute in Gdansk and later at the Goethe Institute Warsaw. In Poland, Sofia positions herself as an L1 speaker of German within a German as a foreign language context for the next fifteen years. She teaches German language and conversation classes at various proficiency levels. During these years in Poland, Sofia not only successfully avoids attrition processes, she also enters a German master's program so she that she can develop her language skills even further. Sofia is now a graduate student with an L1 German competence at C2¹⁷⁴ level among peers, many of whom are German L1 speakers. She studies and works within a German as a foreign language learning context at a Canadian university and is again teaching German as a foreign language. Sofia has no formal training as a German language instructor, but when she starts her master's program in Warsaw, she is also offered the opportunity to take part in the Goethe Institute Warsaw professional development program for language instructors¹⁷⁵. Over a period

¹⁷³ Incidentally, she later uses a second edition of this textbook *Themen* in her first position as a German language instructor.

¹⁷⁴ This assertion is based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) and her self-reported proficiency level http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/Cadre1_en.asp

¹⁷⁵ Her MA supervisor was also the director of the Goethe Institute Warsaw.

of six months, a group of instructors meets bi-weekly for full-day workshops on didactics, lesson planning, digital media, and language teaching approaches using the Langenscheidt professional development series *Langenscheidt Fernstudieneinheiten*. The edition on vocabulary acquisition, *Wortschatzarbeit und Bedeutungsvermittlung, Fernstudieneinheit 8*, is not part of the program, but Sofia states that she reads it out of interest herself. Her BA in English Language and Literature does not include classes on language pedagogy.

Sofia's acquisition of English

Sofia starts learning English as a foreign language in Grade 3 in Germany. From the time of her entry into the German *Gymnasium* until her family's move to Gdansk, she has six years of language instruction classes that are held three to four times a week. Sofia points out that she is therefore even more knowledgeable than her English instructors in Gdansk. Until an American teacher, a fluid speaker of English, is assigned to her school, she is unhappy about her learning progress. Upon attaining her high school diploma in Poland, she studies English language and literature and completes a four-year BA degree at Warsaw University. In Poland, her English language environment can be classified as English as a foreign language. With her move to Canada, this has now changed to English as a second language because Sofia is now immersed in an English language environment. Sofia has a high proficiency level of English in all four skill levels of reading, writing, speaking, and listening.

Sofia's acquisition of French

Sofia starts learning French as a foreign language in her German high school. After English, French is often the second foreign language introduced in Grade 7 at German high schools. By the time Sofia leaves Germany, she had two years of instruction. She resumes her study of French later at Warsaw University to fulfill a language requirement for her MA program. She compares her French language skills to those of an intermediate speaker of French as a foreign language.

Sofia's acquisition of Russian

When Sofia returns to Poland, her Polish classmates have already had three years of Russian language instruction at their high school. Sofia discloses that she had to quickly adjust to this dire and significant language learning challenge. While this situation causes considerable anguish in the beginning, she also takes pride in the fact that she can successfully reclaim her position as one of the top students in class after only six months. Sofia believes she has reached an intermediate level with respect to speaking and writing Russian.

In sum and referring back to the nature of narrative inquiry, I argue that, who Sofia is, is the sum of her lived experiences as they are played out along a multi-faceted continuum of time, interaction, place, and space. I reason that her cognition, too, is part of this construction. What Sofia believes, assumes, knows, and narrates is constructed and re-constructed by these lived experiences. It therefore makes sense to contextualize and anchor her cognition within the context of how she perceives and reflects her past language learning and teaching experiences and what she chooses to disclose about them.

Sofia's language development can be seen as an interwoven, complex pattern of shifting language priorities, changing needs, and adjusted proficiency levels. We can also assume that these shifts and the respective variety of different interactions with people in different places and spaces over time have contributed to her identity construction in many ways. It is therefore not surprising that Sofia's overarching theme is that of being *different*. The following paragraphs detail this theme of difference by identifying, tracking, and analyzing the interrelatedness of her biography and her subjective perspectives as a vocabulary learner and educator. I organize the details of this relationship as according to the themes and subthemes of her stories.

5.3.4 Sofia: „Bei mir ist Sprachen lernen irgendwie anders gelaufen“

The most striking theme threaded through Sofia's narrations is the concept of “*being somewhat different and doing things somewhat differently*.” This is supported by many of Sofia's actions and statements. First, she sets herself apart from others in reference to her own language learning experience. With respect to vocabulary learning and teaching, she makes the following declarations: “*language learning happened differently for me*” [*bei mir ist Sprachen lernen irgendwie anders gelaufen*, CM, 16:51]; her teaching practice is different from what she herself experienced [*nee, also ich habe nie selbst eine Sprache so gelernt, wie ich sie unterrichte*, CM, 16:59]; what she does in class often departs from the lesson plans prepared for all section instructors [*Es gibt halt Tage, da ist man, da hat man tausend andere Sachen und (.) ich halt mich normalerweise nicht an den lessonplan, den wir hier machen*”, stim 2, 38:28]; and finally, her beliefs about how she would prefer to teach vocabulary differ from the

communicative approach propagated in the course outline [*was ich oft mache, also nicht jetzt an der Uni aber (...) einfach diese alte Methode abfragen.*, CM, 11:26].

By analyzing this theme more closely and by contextualizing it as part of Sofia's lived experience, it becomes evident that Sofia is not merely stating factual differences; these distinctions and the very fact that she positions herself as different are key factors in her identity construction. Her identity of "*being different*" is the result of her interaction with the speech communities she was immersed in as well as the result of her reflected imaginary space—the space where she longed to be and that held emotional significance for her. She is *perceived* as different, which was sometimes an emotionally difficult situation for her, but she also *wants* to be different. These aspects are detailed in a later segment that outlines the process of how Sofia negotiates and re-negotiates her multilingual background and her respective discourse memberships.

Language lies at the core of Sofia's self-construction. This resonates with Joseph's statement that "our very sense of who we are, where we belong and why, and how we relate to those around us, all have language at their centre" (2010, p. 9). Sofia positions herself within her various speech communities by using her knowledge of these languages in her dichotomous desire to belong and to be different. Using discourse for this process corresponds to Buchholtz and Hull's allusion to a sense of belonging as "an emerging process defined and anchored in discourse" (2010, p. 21). Sofia's positioning can therefore be identified as a fluid process of identity construction, "performed rather than possessed (...) as a repertoire of identities that are constantly shifting, and that [she] negotiate[s] and re-negotiate[s] according to the circumstances" (Joseph, 2010, p. 14).

These circumstances play out in Sofia's biography as an intricate pattern of language socialization variants across several languages. The following paragraphs first trace these circumstances with regard to her self- and other-positioning as an L1 speaker of German, and then I examine Sofia's self- and other-positioning with German as a second language. I subsequently outline how this emotional significance relates to some of the beliefs Sofia holds about vocabulary learning and teaching.

In Sofia's life narrative, German emerges in different contexts. Sofia uses the terminology "speaker of the mother tongue" [*Muttersprachler*] to refer to her proficiency level in German. She describes how she acquires German in a second language setting but with L1 speaker fluency because it is also the language she grows up with. She states that she sees herself now as a native speaker teaching German as a foreign language. I argue that for her the boundaries between L1 and second language acquisition are fluid because she learns German at such an early age. From early infancy to adolescence, she not only acquires a high level of German language proficiency but also, having grown up with this language, she learns how to be, to think, to communicate, and to position herself in the speech community she is immersed in. Though she grows up as a child of Polish migrants for whom German is a second language, she sees herself as a bilingual speaker with a high language competence in German. She positions herself as a "native" speaker by reporting that she started speaking German instead of Polish with her siblings at home. Furthermore, she contrasts her own learning with that of her parents. While her parents acquire a second language, she explains that she acquired more comprehensive literacy skills. Sofia contrasts her use of the German textbook *Themen*,¹⁷⁶

¹⁷⁶ She later uses a second edition of this very textbook, *Themen*, in her first teaching assignment in Poland.

learning her letters as she would with a Grade 1 reader, to her parents' use of it as a second language textbook.

Table 32 Stimulated Recall 1 Sofia: [Learning to read with L2 textbook *Themen*](#)

166	20:03,1 - 20:16,9	(...) uhm (.) ich weiß nicht ich hab mich halt also das erste die ersten bücher die ich immer gelesen habe waren die bücher von meinen eltern als die deutsch gelernt haben	Sofia
167	20:16,9 - 20:21,5	und ich hab mir selbst das lesen und schreiben beigebracht	
168	20:21,4 - 20:24,7	bevor ich in die schule gegangen bin und	
169	20:24,6 - 20:26,9	das war in deutschland	interviewer
170	20:27,0 - 20:32,4	ja ich weiß nicht vielleicht liegt das daran ich hab dann themen gehabt	Sofia
171	20:32,3 - 20:34,2	kennst du das themen	Sofia

[stim_1_S_20:03]

Sofia describes herself in her narratives as an avid learner who quickly acquires an age-appropriate proficiency level. She earns top grades and excels at her German school. She has a keen interest in German, her favourite subject [*da war das Fach Deutsch irgendwie mein Lieblingsfach*, stim_1_S_46:08], and in languages in general [*Sprachen allgemein*]. She thereby differentiates between the subject of German, as it is taught in grades one through twelve to German L1 and non-L1 speakers alike, and languages in general [*Sprachen allgemein*], referring to the foreign language English and French classes that are taught at her German high school. I argue that by phrasing it in this way, she positions herself as an L1 speaker and defines German as her first language and “languages in general” as foreign languages.

5.3.4.1 Sofia's native speaker/non-native speaker tension and the importance of being *different*

After Sofia's move back to Poland, she perceives her L1 speaker competencies in the two languages she speaks fluently to be challenged. The concept of being a native speaker¹⁷⁷ becomes an important issue in both her personal life and in the development of her belief system on teaching vocabulary. As we will see, Sofia's status as an L1 speaker and her L2 background become determining factors when she positions herself as a qualified vocabulary instructor.

Polish and German are the two languages Sofia speaks with L1 competence but after her move to Poland, she reports to have lost her sense of belonging to a speech community in two ways. First, her knowledge of Polish appears to be inadequate in her Polish school environment, and secondly, she feels that her L1 competence in German is useless when dealing with her Polish peers at school. I note that by asserting her "Germanness" outside her Polish school environment as an instructor of German at the Goethe Institute, Sofia is able to position herself again in identity spaces she values. Thus, she is able to regain some of her confidence as a member of a valued community of speakers. In her narratives, she successfully flips the concept of *foreign* to reframe it as *different*. That process is detailed below.

I point out that Sofia grows up in Germany, immersed in a German linguistic environment where school and peers play an increasingly important role in both her social and her linguistic development. When her family moves back to Poland after almost thirteen years, she says that she is offered the choice to stay in Germany but declines. However, she reports that joining her family in their move to Poland is not an easy decision. The adjustment to this new environment

¹⁷⁷ Sofia used the term [*Muttersprachler*] which translates as speakers of the mother tongue.

which she experiences as a cultural uprooting is challenging. The move back to Poland is emotionally disturbing, and it triggers feelings of loss and a sense of disintegration and foreignness. I note that it is ironic that the place of *home identity* her parents ascribe to Poland will be, for many years, the *alienated home Poland* for her [*da war mir alles fremd nix und niemanden gemocht*, stim_1_S_1:17:32].

Table 33 Stimulated recall 1 Sofia: „Nichts und niemanden gemocht“

	1:17:30.0 - 1:17:35.7	als ich wieder zurück nach polen bin da war mir alles fremd nix und niemanden gemocht	Sofia
567	1:17:35.6 - 1:17:45.9	und (.) äh ich wollt zurück nach deutschland wo meine freunde waren (.) und (.) wo ich meinen alltag hatte mein leben (.) ne so	

[stim_1_S_1:17:30]

Language lies at the core of Sofia’s identity crisis. There is a close relationship between language and a sense of belonging, and a shared speech community is a source of personal strength and pride. As Kramersch points out:

By their accent, their vocabulary, their discourse patterns, speakers identify themselves and are identified as members of this or that speech and discourse community. From this membership, they draw personal strength and pride, as well as a sense of social importance and historical continuity from using the same language as the group they belong to. (Kramersch, 1998b, p. 65f.)

Sofia faces the challenge of acculturating. She must adjust to this new discourse community in this new space and learn to understand how things are done and said, what not to disclose, how to relate to peers, how to address elders—in sum, which rules of linguistic interaction to follow in this sociocultural environment that is so different from the one where she grew up in Germany. She relates that in this context she feels like a foreigner, deprived of friends, her daily

life, and life itself, and she turns away from everything and everybody: “*nix und niemanden gemocht.*” I therefore conclude that her lack of language skills in her new discourse community of Polish also intensifies her feeling of alienation. As her narrative below indicates, Polish classmates see her as different, and she perceives herself as different.

Table 34 Stimulated recall 1 Sofia: Feeling of alienation

445	1:06:44.9 - 1:06:55.2	ich konnte polnisch nur aus der freitagsschule (.) son kurs [gesture: hand movement as if flipping something aside] grundschulniveau (..)	Sofia
446	1:06:55.1 - 1:07:03.2	(..) und (.) kein richtiges polnisch so dass ich mich jetzt in die neunte zehnte klasse setzen konnte	
447	1:07:03.2 - 1:07:09.4	ich musste aber (...) auch nicht auf eine zweisprachige schule oder so	
448	1:07:09.4 - 1:07:11.4	sondern einfach eine polnische schule oder so	
449	1:07:11.4 - 1:07:20.3	literatur polnische literatur russische literatur russisch mathematik ja mathe und so das habe ich dann gerne gemacht	
450	1:07:20.2 - 1:07:28.0	das war auch das was mich interessierte das war schwer weil polnische literatur(..) keine ahnung	
451	1:07:27.9 - 1:07:30.9	russisch pff drei jahre verpasst	
452	1:07:30.8 - 1:07:38.2	das war jetzt schon das dritte jahr wo die russisch hatten ja was noch	
453	1:07:38.1 - 1:07:45.4	literatur (..) ich konnte kein russisch lesen wie sollte ich jetzt literatur lesen	
[stim_1_S_1:06:44]			

I infer that in her upbringing in Germany, her German L1 language skills were closely associated with success in school. Now, her L1 language skills in Polish are marginalized by both herself and others. Although she speaks Polish fluently, as she says, her written skills are below those of her peers in class. She therefore devalues her knowledge as “primary school

level” [*Grundschulniveau*, 1:06:55]; derogatorily calls her Friday language classes in Germany “just some course” [*son Kurs*, 1:06.45], and, after a brief moment of hesitation, she quietly adds “and not really any Polish” [*und kein richtiges Polnisch*, 1:06.56]. We see that she clearly feels that she lacks the ability to keep up in class and attributes that to her inadequate preparation in Polish literature, Russian literature, and Russian language ([*weil polnische Literatur, keine Ahnung*, 1:07.27] and [*Russisch, pff, drei Jahre verpasst*, 1:07.28]). She is upset that she is expected to read Russian literature [*Literatur (...) ich konnte kein Russisch lesen, wie sollte ich jetzt russische Literatur lesen*, 1:07.38].

Sofia feels deprived by this move to her new environment and overwhelmed by the sense of having been silenced, of being deprived of her voice. She illustrates this in her description of how even small challenges make her cry; for example, she reports that she was not even able to answer when asked for her name [*sobald ich meinen Namen sagen musste, musste ich weinen, wenn mich jemand gefragt hat wie du heißt, stim_1_S_1:11.21*]. Instead, she responds with withdrawal and tears.

This feeling of helplessness and of being subjected to arbitrariness is reinforced by teacher-centred instruction. Content must be learned by heart and recited from memory. Sofia mentions a traumatic first-lesson experience in her new school, where she is called to the front and tested on her knowledge. Though she knows the answer, she cannot respond in Polish. She therefore finds herself in a typical second-language-learner experience where subject matter knowledge exceeds linguistic competence.

Table 35 Stimulated recall 1 Sofia: [Being different](#)

491	1:10:43.9 - 1:10:50.6	(..) und vor allem in polen ist es ja so das schulprinzip eher auswendig lernen	Sofia
492	1:10:50.6 - 1:10:56.8	biologie bücher (..) [gesture: indicates 8 cm space between thumb and index finger] auswendig lernen (..) und dann muss man die sprache können	
493	1:10:56.8 - 1:11:10.4	und (.) wenn man damit nicht vertraut ist (.) dann klappt das nicht (.) ich saß in der ersten stunde (.) da hat die lehrerin mich nach vorne gerufen und wollte jetzt abfragen was da jetzt (...) meine mutter hat es mir zuhause erklärt	
494	1:11:10.4 - 1:11:21.2	ich habs verstanden aber ich konnts jetzt nicht auf Polnisch nochmal vortragen oder(..) und außerdem war mir das alles fremd ich musste (..) bei jeder sache habe ich angefangen zu weinen	
			[stim_1_1:10:43]

Her Polish competence is reduced from L1 to L2, and she struggles over the next months to resume some of her competence as an L1 speaker. I point out that achieving this is, in large part, defined by her success in school. She reports how she adjusts to the different teaching approach of memorization.

Table 36 Stimulated recall 1 Sofia: [Adjusting to memorization approaches](#)

538	1:15:07.7 - 1:15:09.9	ja (..) stimmt (.) mit der zeit	Sofia
539	1:15:09.9 - 1:15:13.7	(4s) musste man es auch	
540	1:15:13.7 - 1:15:28.5	alles nachholen [voice is very low] man lernt das prinzip kennen wie es überhaupt läuft in der schule wie man überhaupt lernen soll weil es (.) umstellung so wie man biologie in deutschland lernt lernt man es halt überhaupt nicht in polen es ist da total anders	

541	1:15:28.5 - 1:15:45.4	[...] ich hab mir das immer selbst beigebracht	
			[stim_1_S_1:15:07]

Asked if she was then successful in class, she refers to the differences as “adjustment” [*Umstellung*] and declares its arbitrariness [*es ist da total anders*, 1:11.15]. In a very low voice, she then describes her adjustment to the system in terms of getting to know how the system works [*man lernt das Prinzip kennen, wie es überhaupt läuft in der Schule*, 1:15.14]. Sofia is a young adolescent at the time this struggle to position herself as a member of the Polish speech community takes place. I argue that it is her L1 competence in German that proves to be her anchor in this shift and upheaval of her world and of her linguistic identity. The very fact that she is different and that she possesses an L1 speaker competence in German allows her to place herself in a position of prestige. At the very young age of fifteen, she becomes a German language instructor at a prominent German language institute in Gdansk, the first of its kind: “*ein ganz bekanntes Institut.*”¹⁷⁸ The following year, she is employed at the Goethe Institute in Warsaw. Her work is appreciated. Her “Germanness” makes her an excellent candidate for the conversation classes. Sofia points out that she had a better knowledge of German in Gdansk than the director and other instructors for whom German was a foreign language that they had studied in Poland. I conclude that the language institute provides a linguistic and an emotional haven for her where her skills are valued. But in order to maintain this, she has to maintain her position of “otherness.” Psychologically, this is a double-

¹⁷⁸ [stimulated recall 1; 45:17]

bind situation¹⁷⁹. She wants to belong to the Polish-speaking community but her self-esteem in her first years in Poland is largely defined by her situation as an L1 speaker of German. As described earlier, Sofia reports that she learned to read and write with the same textbook that she now uses to teach in Gdansk, thus attesting to her identity construction as a German “native-speaker.” But though she is Polish-born, of Polish citizenship, with close family ties in Poland, and living in Poland, she derives most of her self-confidence regarding who she is from the fact that she has, as she calls it, “mother-tongue fluency” in German. Over the next years, she leads a life in parallel worlds. She succeeds as a student at school but is subjected to a teacher-centred learning approach in language classes that focus strongly on rote memorization. At the same time, she is a teacher herself and is introduced to a communicative language teaching approach at various professional development workshops of the Goethe Institute Warsaw.

In conclusion, looking at Sofia’s learning and teaching biography, it is not surprising that Sofia equates her competence as a language instructor with her status as an L1 speaker of the target language. As we have seen, this was the qualification that led to her employment as an instructor in her early years of teaching. But we can also identify this “native-speakerness”¹⁸⁰ as a subtheme that threads through Sofia’s narratives on her own learning experience and one that then emerges as one of her beliefs about vocabulary teaching. This is described in more detail below in Sofia’s narrative of her non-native-speaking colleagues and her native-speaking teacher at school.

¹⁷⁹ This aspect is beyond the scope of the present study and I refer to studies in psycholinguistics and L2 learners’ language identity construction (e.g., Bonnie Norton, 2013).

¹⁸⁰ Sofia uses the term *Muttersprachler* that literally translates as mother-tongue speaker. This is in itself an interesting construct because her mother speaks Polish. When referring to Sofia’s narratives, I use the term native-speaker instead of L1 in order to maintain some of Sofia’s identity construction of nativeness.

5.3.4.2 Sofia: „Wenn die die Sprache nur so irgendwie gelernt haben aber keine Muttersprachler sind“

Her positioning of herself as a qualified teacher because of her L1 competence can only work in contrast to the non-L1-speaker competence of the other instructors. Indeed, this is how she sees herself in relation to them. In her narrative on how she was employed in Gdansk, she points out these instructors' ineptitude by saying [*und die Frau (the director) die konnte kein Deutsch, aber die zwei Töchter, die haben beim Vater gelernt und da war das Deutsch halt* (quick shoulder shrug and pause) *Grammatik und so war ok, aber die haben das halt nicht wirklich richtig gekonnt*, stim_1_S_45:17]. She justifies her appointment by drawing attention to the institute director's need to find somebody who knows German and thus implies that she has this qualification while the others do not [*und die haben halt einen Lehrer gebraucht, der Deutsch konnte*, stim_1_S_1_45:13]. Sofia believes that instructors who are not L1 speakers will make mistakes, lack the ability to produce correct phrasal expressions, and possess an accent that they will inadvertently teach their students. A closer analysis of this passage reveals how, in the telling itself, Sofia draws on her memories and lists reasons to construct her argument.

Table 37 Concept map Sofia: [Instructors who are non-native speakers of the target language](#)

255	28:54.0 - 28:55.8	weil äh das sehe ich in polen (..)	Sofia
256	28:55.7 - 29:10.8	wenn die das (.) also wenn die die sprache nur so irgendwie gelernt haben (.) aber keine muttersprachler sind dann kommt es alles rüber aber dann werden die fehler die der lehrer selbst hat auch weitergegeben (.)	

257	29:10.7 - 29:25.6	wenns wenns ne schlechte aussprache ist wird das weitergegeben wenn es bestimmte ausdrücke sind die falsch sind (.) also mich stört das	
8	29:25.5 - 29:32.4	ich ich würde nicht gern sprachen lernen von jemandem der Nicht muttersprachler ist	Sofia
			CM_S_28:54]

We see Sofia pause and then resume her turn with an explanatory placement in time and space, “because I see this in Poland” [*weil äh das sehe ich in Polen, 28:54*]. She then lists her arguments starting with the similar phrase [*wenn die das, 28:55*], which is resumed in self-repair after a brief pause [*also wenn die die Sprache*]. These statements are followed by her conclusion that having simply learned the language somehow and not being a native speaker [*wenn die die Sprache nur irgendwie gelernt haben (.) aber keine Muttersprachler sind, 28:58*] will lead to errors [*dann werden die Fehler die der Lehrer selbst hat auch weitergegeben, 29:07*]. We also see her reinforce her position by listing her arguments and repeating clauses initiated by the subordinating conjunction [**wenn**], [**wenn die die Sprache nur so irgendwie gelernt haben aber keine Muttersprachler sind**], [**wenn es eine schlechte Aussprache ist**], and [**wenn es bestimmte Ausdrücke sind, die falsch sind**]. She is clearly building her case by listing the ensuing results as [*dann werden die Fehler, die der Lehrer auch hat, weitergegeben*] and [*wird das weitergegeben*]. At the same time, she not only lists her points, she also seems to feel the need to defend them. Her closing remark of this thematic unit [*Also mich stört das, 29:24*] almost has a defiant tone of voice to it¹⁸¹. Furthermore, instead of providing another reason as the sentence structure requires, she sums up her beliefs as disturbing to her and relates this to

¹⁸¹ based on the audio-recorded stress pattern

her own self by repeating [*ich ich*] and by declaring, with an emphasis on the word *not* [*nicht*], that she would not want to be taught a language by an instructor who is not an L1 speaker of the target language [*ich ich würde nicht gern Sprachen lernen von jemandem der nicht Muttersprachler ist, 29:25*].

Her comments regarding her Polish English teachers further illustrate how important L1 competence is in Sofia's belief system. At her school in Warsaw, her English instructors are non-native speakers of English. According to Sofia, this is why she feels that she is not really making progress. She describes that, even as a student, she notices the mistakes they make.

Table 38 Concept Map Sofia [Native speaker role model](#)

264	31:22.9 - 31:26.4	englisch wenn die englisch unterrichtet haben die kannten sich überhaupt nicht aus und haben oft fehler gemacht ich hab	Sofia
265	31:26.5 - 31:29.6	englisch unterricht in polen	interviewer
266	31:29.6 - 31:46.6	englisch unterricht in der schule ja das waren nicht immer die besten lehrer deswegen wir hatten dann später einen englischlehrer der hat uhm der hat ich glaube physik oder so in den usa studiert und der war eigentlich professor an der universität hat aber an der schule noch nebenbei englisch unterrichtet	Sofia
267	31:46.5 - 31:52.8	weil er das einfach nur für sich wollte und das war so ein richtig guter englischlehrer	
268	31:52.7 - 32:09.1	ja (.) mit <i>american accent</i> und aussprache hat gestimmt was er gesagt hat hat gestimmt ich hab dann noch was gelernt aber in der schule in polen englisch das weiß ich alles das ist mir egal	
			[CM_S_31:22]

When her school employs an American scientist to teach English, Sofia states that she feels she benefits from this language instruction for the first time since her arrival at a school in Poland. Interestingly, the quality she ascribes to his teaching is based on the fact that he is an L1 speaker—he has an American accent. To her, his academic credentials are less important and she marginalizes them by saying that she does not really know about them [*der hat ich glaube Physik oder so studiert*, 31:35]. Two aspects are interesting in the way Sofia constructs the native-speaker ideal. The first is the fact that she thinks the American teacher is more qualified to teach English because of his L1 competence than the trained ESL non-native-speaker teachers (NNEST). Secondly, it is interesting to note the qualities that Sofia believes to be essential markers of a native-speaker. A closer analysis of her comments about this reveals that she has a high regard for an accent that indicates the target speech community. After she remarks on this teacher's accomplishments as a language instructor [*und das war so ein richtig guter Englischlehrer*, Concept Map; 31:46], affirming her belief with [*ja*], the first thing she points out is his American accent. I argue that the fact that she gives high priority to an L1 instructor is underscored by her codeswitch to English (with the imitation of an American accent) followed by her repeated affirmation that the pronunciation was correct [*und Aussprache hat gestimmt*, 31:55] and [*was er gesagt hat, hat gestimmt*, 31:56]. This refers back to her criticism two minutes before, that non-native speakers can make errors and may not know many phrasal expressions [29:10].

Clearly, Sofia associates her learning success with her teacher's L1 proficiency when she contrasts how she is able to learn something new from him but otherwise states that there was nothing new for her in the teaching of other non-native English instructors. She even claims to

have lost interest in her studies altogether [*in der Schule in Polen Englisch, das weiß ich alles, das ist mir egal*]. In this utterance, her unusual switch to the present tense is intriguing. It lends immediacy to her comment¹⁸². Its use can either express the notion of a past action continuing into the present, as if she were adding *This is still important for me*, or it can constitute an emphatic present tense in the sense of *I do/did know it all and I do/did not care*.

In conclusion, one of the cornerstones of Sofia's belief system with respect to vocabulary teaching is a preference for an L1-speaking instructor. Sofia's position on this issue is not uncommon. Phillipson (1992) notes that many non-native¹⁸³ instructors struggle to assert and negotiate a legitimate identity as language instructors when teaching languages as non-native speakers. Underlying this "native speaker myth," as he calls it, is the assumption that using idiomatic phrases and "unaccented" language output is only possible for native speakers. Sofia's remarks echo what the international association of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) has identified as a long-standing tension that needs to be addressed.

There has been a long-standing fallacy (...) that native English speakers are the preferred teachers because they are perceived to speak "unaccented" English, understand and use idiomatic expressions fluently, and completely navigate the culture of at least one English-dominant society; and thus will make better (ESL or EFL) teachers than non-native English speakers. As a result, non-native English-speaking educators have found themselves often implicitly, and sometimes explicitly, discriminated against. (TESOL, 2006)¹⁸⁴

I conclude that Sofia's preference for a native-speaking instructor is the result of her own lived experience where being a native-speaker allowed her to establish a strong emotional bond

¹⁸² This observation is based on the use of Present Tense in German.

¹⁸³ Please note: Some authors use the term native-speaker to refer to L1 speakers. In my discussion of this subject matter, I maintain the term used by the authors I refer to or quote.

¹⁸⁴ TESOL 2006. Position statement against the discrimination of non-native speakers of English in the field of TESOL. <http://www.tesol.org/docs/pdf/5889.pdf?sfvrsn=2>

with, and a sense of belonging to, a valued community of speakers. Her belief that “*good teachers are L1 speakers*” is an important aspect of her self-construction as a language/vocabulary instructor.

Interestingly, Sofia also articulates beliefs that seem to contradict this statement: “The German instructors are making it too difficult for their learners“ [*die Deutschen machen das zu kompliziert*] because they are introducing linguistic forms that are beyond their learners’ abilities [*die kommen einfach nicht dazu, das einfacher zu sagen oder so, also, dass man jetzt nicht so redet wie man normal redet (..) das fällt denen schwer, stim_2_S_18:54*]. She then wonders if this is the case because they are native speakers [*ob es daran liegt, dass es die Muttersprache ist, aber so einfach irgendetwas einfacher zu sagen anders zu sagen (..) das fällt denen halt sehr schwer, stim_2_S_19:45*]. In this respect, Sofia can again position herself as “different” [*anders*] because she combines the best of both worlds. She is an L1 speaker *and* she knows what it feels like to be an L2 speaker because of her parents’ immigrant background learning German. I conclude that Sofia feels she can therefore speak with authority and suggest ways to make learning easier for students by modifying and thus simplifying the input¹⁸⁵ [*muss man halt so ein bisschen anders aussprechen, die Endungen mit aussprechen oder betonter einzeln (gesture: makes movement with upright palm of left hand as if comparing things off), stim_2_S_19:48*].

¹⁸⁵ The classroom observation below has a typical example of her simplification strategy in line [obs_2_S_3:56]. Sofia starts with a telegram-style phrase [*normales Verb*] and demonstrates this by following up with the regular conjugation before she then returns to her claim that this is a regular verb in a complete sentence [*es ist ein normales Verb*]. Finally, she concludes with a code switch [*ein regular verb*].

The following classroom observations exemplify how Sofia’s subjective perspectives are reflected in her classroom practices. They have been chosen because they capture Sofia’s dilemma between the *systematic* and the *innovative*.

5.3.4.3 Sofia’s classroom practice: „Was haben Sie am Wochenende gemacht?“

This sequence is from Sofia’s second classroom observation towards the end of the term. The students had already been introduced to verbs in Present Perfect. It is Monday morning and Sofia starts her second classroom observation with the warm-up question, “What did you do on the weekend?” This was part of the lesson plan the teaching assistants had jointly developed. Its purpose was to review some action verbs (*lernen, schlafen, telefonieren*), to prepare the groundwork for introducing irregular past participle forms and the present perfect in this class, and finally, to get students to communicate and interact by sharing information about their lives.

Table 39 Classroom observation 2 Sofia: „Wie war das Wochenende?“

2	0:02.0 - 0:08.2	guten morgen	Sofia
3	0:08.2 - 0:10.9	wie gehts ihnen [students mumble answer]	
4	0:10.8 - 0:16.5	gut (.) sehr gut	
5	0:16.4 - 0:17.6	wie war das wochenende	
6	0:17.5 - 0:24.1	[students mumble answer] kurz (..)	
7	0:24.0 - 0:26.4	wie war ihr wochenende O. (name of student) (..) wie war das wochenende uhmm	
8	0:26.3 - 0:32.0	gut	student O
9	0:32.0 - 0:45.0	good (.) oder	Sofia

		(.) oder O. good oder [writes the word gut on the board and underlines the t, then walks towards student nodding] sagen sie es auf deutsch	
10	0:44.9 - 0:49.4	its pronounced exactly the same	student O
11	0:49.3 - 0:53.2	nein nein [walks to the board and points at the word gut] nicht good was ist das	Sofia
12	0:53.2 - 0:55.0	(..) gut [instructor uses a hand gesture to invite students to repeat in choral speech]	
13	0:55.0 - 0:56.3	[students repeat gut]	students
14	0:56.3 - 0:58.5	ja (.)gut	Sofia
15	0:58.5 - 1:02.1	was haben sie gemacht P. am wochenende	
16	1:02.1 - 1:09.8	E. T. und ich hat unsere script gefilmt	student P
17	1:09.8 - 1:11.1	gefilmt (,) sehr gut	Sofia
18	1:11.1 - 1:21.4	E.T. und ich haben unseren script gefilmt [projects an overhead projection sheet with images - see materials for details] was habe ich gemacht	
19	1:21.3 - 1:24.5	ich habe gelernt [points to an image on the screen]	
20	1:24.5 - 1:31.5	ich habe [gesture: waves over her back] am wochenende (..) gelernt	
21	1:31.4 - 1:36.7	ich habe geschlafen	
22	1:36.7 - 1:47.7	(...) und (.) ich habe telefoniert viel telefoniert (.) und etwas sport gemacht	
23	1:47.7 - 1:52.2	(...)	
24	1:52.1 - 2:28.8	[writes on board: Ich habe geschlafen, Ich habe gelernt] (..) A. was haben sie am wochenende gemacht	
25	2:28.7 - 2:34.1	uhm (..) ich habe sport machen	student A.
26	2:34.0 - 2:48.6	ich habe (..) sport (...) ich habe [goes to board and writes down: habe sport] sport [underlines the prefix and suffix of the words gelernt and geschlafen]	Sofia
27	2:48.5 - 2:52.7	oh, ja (.) gemacht	student A.

28	2:52.6 - 2:53.6	ich habe sport gemacht [writes gemacht on the board]	Sofia
29	2:53.6 - 3:00.0	[underlines prefix and suffix] ge (.) kein q	
30	3:00.0 - 3:05.4	M. was haben sie welche sport A.	
31	3:05.4 - 3:07.3	was für sport	
32	3:07.2 - 3:11.2	tennis	
33	3:11.1 - 3:40.0	[student indicates that she has watched sport, instructor smiles and points to her eyes] ich habe sport (.) ich habe sport [writes on board: sehen] oder [writes on board schauen] ich habe sport gesehen [adds prefix ge to the word] oder geschaut [adds prefix ge to the word, crosses out ending en and writes a t below]	
34	3:39.9 - 3:43.7	how do you know	male student
35	3:43.7 - 3:54.4	schauen konjugieren sie schauen ich schaue [points at herself and then to students for them to pick up the next response] du [a students calls out schaut] du schaut	Sofia
36	3:54.4 - 4:04.4	er schaut (.) normales verb ich schaue du schaut er schaut wir schauen es ist ein normales verb ein regular verb	
37	4:04.3 - 4:07.1	t [underlines the t of geschaut on the board]	

[Obs_2_S_0:02]

This sequence exemplifies how Sofia moves away from a meaning-focused interaction practicing vocabulary to a focus on grammar. Walking down the centre aisle of the classroom, Sofia greets her students and asks how they feel. At first glance, the question appears to be an introductory phrase with no particular content value from the perspective of a Canadian speaker

and Sofia's modelling of two possible response options, "good" and "very good,"¹⁸⁶ therefore seems to establish a polite positive atmosphere. Students mumble polite, affirmative responses and Sofia follows up with a question that has the potential to create an interaction of genuine interest in the addressee's response: "How was your weekend?" Sofia is taken by surprise by a student's half-jokingly-uttered answer, "short" [*kurz*], and she repeats the phrase in a questioning tone of voice. She then dismisses further interaction and signals the end of this turn by going back to the board to arrange her overhead projector sheet before she calls on another student by name to request a response from her. Student O. produces the anticipated "good" but pronounces it in English, a fact that Sofia immediately remedies by inviting her student to identify the difference between the German and the English pronunciation. Sofia thus moves away from content to focus on structure by writing the word on the board and underscoring the end sound /t/ before she initiates a choral repetition. Her students appear to be familiar with this practice method and respond in chorus. Sofia then asks student P. her third question, this time with a present-perfect structure: "What did you do on the weekend, P.?" [*Was haben Sie gemacht, P., am Wochenende?*, 0:58]. At this point, Sofia does not focus on the content of her students' responses. Instead of following up with an expression of interest when student P. announces that he had been filming a skit, Sofia marks the correctness of the grammatical structure [*gefilmt*] by repeating it and evaluating it as "very good" [*sehr gut*]. The response "very good" might be viewed as an expression of appreciation for the content of the utterance, but Sofia then corrects the subject-verb agreement error of the auxiliary and asks the rhetorical question in the first-person singular; "What did I do on the weekend?" [*Was habe ich am*

¹⁸⁶ Clearly, this is different in a German sociocultural context, where you would expect a more detailed response on both the positive and negative side.

Wochenende gemacht?, 11:11]. This indicates a move away from the student, and they are accompanied by the projection of her overhead with visual representations of the action verbs studied in the last class. Sofia answers the question herself by modelling the matching phrases in the first-person singular: “I learned” [*Ich habe gelernt*], “I slept” [*Ich habe geschlafen*], “I phoned” [*Ich habe telefoniert*], and “did some sports” [*und etwas Sport gemacht*]. At this point, Sofia clearly moves away from a meaning-focused interaction about her students’ weekend activities and initiates a vocabulary practice activity that merges with a focus on form (past participles). Consequently, she proceeds to organize the present-perfect forms on the board systematically by listing them in columns according to regular and irregular forms. She underlines the prefixes and suffixes and establishes rules, adopting a structured, teacher-fronted approach. Interestingly, she is also acting against her beliefs not to mingle vocabulary with grammar teaching, a view she expresses in her second stimulated recall where she criticizes how past participles (grammar) were part of the vocabulary quiz and she had decided not to include them on her section’s test.

This sequence exemplifies how the turn-takes in the student/teacher interaction clearly place the purpose of the interaction into the grammar acquisition court and lead to explicit explanations of regular and irregular verb forms that leave little room for vocabulary practice or the exchange of genuine information between the speakers.

In many ways, Sofia’s actions contrast with some of her subjective perspectives regarding an innovative, engaging, and inductive vocabulary teaching approach. On the other hand, how Sofia teaches in this classroom episode can be seen to correspond with her narratives of her own learner experience—the ones she disliked. Sofia’s apprenticeship of observation governed

by teacher-centred, top-down instruction provides a well-established and accepted model of teaching that radiates a sense of the “known” and of “being in control,” thereby affording a “safe” way to do things. With regard to grammar teaching, Schmenk (2014) describes one way to see the phenomenon of *teaching as you were taught* as a means to provide familiar and thus controllable ground: “[Es] steht zu vermuten, dass dieser häufig monierte ‘didaktisch-methodische Rückfall’ auch ganz anders gesehen werden kann, da er durchaus wichtige Funktionen für die Kontrolle und Ordnung des Unterrichts haben kann ... der Unterricht wird zu einem nach klaren Maßgaben organisierbaren Handlungsraum” (2014, p. 501).

Most likely, Sofia’s IRF structures will not be questioned by her students; they will perhaps even match their expectations of what learning should be like.¹⁸⁷ Sofia’s students therefore follow her lead and nobody in the course of the next turn-takes comes up with any more interesting weekend activity than study, sleep, and watch or do sports.

I conclude that Sofia’s conceptualizations of vocabulary learning and teaching work on two levels. She can theorize ideal settings of inductive, innovative engagement with learner-centred, open-ended tasks even as she maintains a practice that replaces these with more traditional, teacher-fronted memorization drills [*einfach diese alte Methode abfragen und mit einem Satz und einer Lücke*, CM_S_11:31]. On the other hand, the fact that she is aware of this divergence between practice, ideals, constraints, and professional training and that she reflects on these distinctions indicates that they are part of her ongoing struggle to construct herself as a speaker and an instructor of German, juggling several factors that appear somewhat divergent and at

¹⁸⁷ This matches the comment Sofia makes in her stimulated recall session that at times students dislike fun activities because they go against their understanding of learning “as a serious business” in an academic setting [*weil (.) es ist ne Universität, (.) so seh ich das (.) und (.) wenn da zu viele Spiele (..)und wenn es zu viel, zu sehr kommunikativ ist (..) uh dann (..) werden es die Schüler auch anders nehmen. Also nehmen die das auch nicht ernst, das ist kein Deutschkurs*, stim_1_S_12:53].

times contradictory to her: her students' needs and language learning backgrounds, her pedagogical ideals, her lived experience, and the institutional context within which she is working.

5.4 Summary of Results

The three case studies in this research focus on the particularity of each individual participant. I now discuss all three in relation to one another by addressing the following specific questions:

- Which factors influence participants' subjective perspective construction on vocabulary learning and teaching?
- What characterizes the participants' subjective perspectives?
- What are the participants' subjective perspectives about vocabulary learning and teaching?
- How do participants' subjective perspectives relate to their classroom practices?

5.4.1 Factors influencing subjective perspectives construction

Jana, Klara, and Sofia's subjective perspectives are informed by various sources: their past learner experience; their reflection-on-action of past and present teaching experiences; their engagement with role models and peers; and their past and present professional training.

Past experience as learners. With only minor variations, I found that the participants' past experience as learners of languages most impacted their subjective perspective construction, a finding that accords with those of, for example, Bailey et al. (1996), Golombek (1998), Holt Reynolds (1992), and Woods (1996). My participant's experiences as learners in the classroom as well as in other contexts seem to be very influential in each case, and experience has a strong impact on what these respective teachers believe, assume, and know about vocabulary. This aspect is most often referred to as *apprenticeship of observation* or as *teach-as-you-were-taught*, and it is defined as teachers imitating the instructor who taught them. However, I argue that the concept of apprenticeship of observation is limited when only considering past

teachers' influence. The teacher persona is but one aspect of the overall learning experience, and preconceptions encompass our expectations (Johnson, 2009) of teacher personas as socialized within sociocultural context. This stands out, for example, in Jana's case. As is evident in the stories Jana tells of her diverse language learning biography, we must consider the learning experience context in its entirety rather than examining only the teacher model. The immersion learning that eventually informs Jana's subjective perspectives includes teachers acting as role models in an immersion context, but Jana's immersion learning experience also include peers, and it involves learning in a target language setting within a particular sociocultural context. All of these factors contribute to a language learning experience she values. Sofia's story of her learning experience must be seen in a similar way. Her apprenticeship of observation included various instructors' different approaches that ranged from teachers who favoured rote memorization to those who, in her words, embraced communicative vocabulary learning tasks, but this is only one facet of her learning experience. The unique setting and the emotional challenges she faced are interrelated with her teachers' assertive classroom actions (e.g., teachers testing her in front of the class). The combination of all these factors contributed to her subjective perspective constructions. Klara's learner biography indicates that her apprenticeship of observation can also be closely linked to teacher role models and to their classroom actions (e.g., her English teacher introducing readings from Shakespeare in a novel and engaging way), but for her, too, these work in a particular setting. As soon as she encounters an immersion context in her own language learning, she reconstructs her subjective perspectives. Her immersion experience gives her a fresh perspective on acquiring new words, which in turn leads her to view vocabulary learning in ways that

complement her systematic approach. Thus, it is not only teachers' classroom activities as past own learning experiences that influence the participants' subjective perspective construction but rather, it is the overall learning experience within a given context at a given time. Furthermore, all three participants report that their teachers' language teaching, however much their approaches might have differed, led to their own successful acquisition of the target language. We cannot therefore separate the condition of "having witnessed a model of teaching" (aka apprenticeship of observation) from the condition of "teaching led to positive results" (aka positive reinforcement). If this is so, then the concept of apprenticeship of observation has a second condition: leading to success. We are reminded of Klara's comment about the strict teacher who enforced structured rote memorization tasks that she detested at the time but which she now admits, rather to her own surprise, must have worked well for her.¹⁸⁸

While I can indicate that this observation holds across all of the present study's narratives, I recognize the need for further research to examine more closely the finding that apprenticeship of observation does not suffice as a stand-alone concept to explain how past learner experience influences subjective perspective constructions. Limiting this influence only to the observed teachers' actions in class is misleading. All contextual aspects of learning a target language come together as a learning experience. Therefore, with respect to the participants' learning background, I identify teacher models and their actions in class as important factors but also point out that these must be related to the overall learning experience.

¹⁸⁸ [der Lehrer der hat allerdings der hat eigentlich nur frontal unterrichtet aber (.) aus irgendeinem Grund hat der also alles was der mir beigebracht hat das habe ich sofort verstanden und konnte es anwenden also (.) es war frontal aber für mich trotzdem (.) verständlich (.)und effektiv, CM_K_41_41].

Reflection-on-action. The second major source that inspires the participating teachers' subjective theories can be seen in their reflection-on-action¹⁸⁹. In the participants' narratives, this reflection-on-action is manifested in three principal ways. First, they share experiences about vocabulary activities with peers in their TA group. Klara, for example, vents her frustration that some words "just don't stick" in an after-class episodic commentary shared with peers [*das ist das ergeht den anderen Lehrern auch so, weil es einen manchmal ärgert zum hundersten Mal Munich korrigiert zu München. Dann muss man das mal rauslassen,* stim_2_K_33:58]. Secondly, participants report that their reflections on activities compare the two sections they teach.¹⁹⁰ For example, in her stimulated recall, Jana notes that her students lack the commitment to come to class prepared. She contrasts their learning success with that of the students in her other class, who have fewer problems completing the vocabulary activities in class because they study their vocabulary at home. Consequently, Jana's subjective perspective that vocabulary should be practiced ahead of time at home so that less class time is taken up by vocabulary practice and students have more opportunity to work independently from her input is reinforced by that comparison [*na, ich sag ihnen immer, sie sollen sich vorbereiten. Die andere Klasse war super vorbereitet. Die haben eigentlich alles untereinander rausgefunden,* stim_1_J_35:14]. Klara mentions a third way she believes reflection-on-action influences her teaching. The TA mentor had recently changed the lesson plan format and included a column with the heading, "Remarks about the lesson." Klara anticipates that this will help her in the future to jot down ideas and thoughts helpful for the lesson planning of the next class and as a

¹⁸⁹ I use this term in a generic way but include reflection-in-action and reflection-for-action as conceptualized by other researchers (e.g., Farrell, 2007; Schön, 1987; Shulman, 1987).

¹⁹⁰ Sofia did not teach a second section. She compared her activities in her German class to other courses she had taught in her teaching career. Klara and Jana had no prior teaching experience with German beginner classes.

reminder to bring up specific concerns in the TA workshop. It was also apparent from the participants' narratives that reflection-on-action is not a continuous activity. All three note that time constraints limit the effort they devote to reflection. Furthermore, reflection initiated with peers often remains at the surface level of episodic (mostly negative) encounters. Thomas Farrell (2007) cautions that reflections-on-action within a context such as peer interaction might not even lead to changes in behaviour or teaching approaches, because short-term venting of critical incidents paradoxically reinforces the fact that teachers do not continue to question their actions once the pent-up level of frustration has found an outlet in the empathetic response of co-workers. With regard to the present study, there is no way to know in what ways the participants' reflections-on-action (and reflections-for-action) alter their subjective perspectives. However, the participants' narratives do indicate that they are becoming increasingly more aware of how they teach vocabulary. Farrell (2007) points out that awareness is the necessary first step in reflective action and that it has the potential to engender change. Kallenbach (1996) also maintains that subjective perspectives are constructed as verbalized reflections. An internal dialogue that leads to filling out a newly created column in the lesson plan is a start, as Klara mentions. More importantly, all three participants note repeatedly that they had never before had the opportunity to watch themselves teach and that they appreciate the insights they may gain from it. Furthermore, being part of this research project triggered reflective processes resulting from repeatedly being asked to reflect on their teaching in their concept map drawings and the stimulated recall sessions. This is exemplified in statements such as "I never thought about this in such a way before" [*das war mir bis jetzt nicht bewusst*, stim_1_S_21:23] and [*ja also, ja wie gesagt (.) das ist mir nicht immer bewusst*,

stim_1_K_13:53]. Ultimately, the participants' narratives yield a rich variety of aspects that the process of being involved in this study encouraged them to address reflectively, including:

- thinking of ways in which students' vocabulary proficiency level can be matched to appropriate activities;
- addressing concerns about their students' vocabulary learning habits;
- comparing how well specific activities worked across different sections;
- evaluating the textbook activities;
- comparing the effectiveness of different activities (e.g., games, listening tasks);
- discussing learning strategies they want to tell their students about; and
- estimating which linguistic features of the target language will be easier to learn than others and how they might better be taught (e.g., compounds, cognates).

The teachers also reflect on their performance. This type of reflection included:

- addressing situations in which they felt they had misunderstood students' responses;
- their concerns about how they dealt with students' errors;
- considering the use and appropriateness of their materials and how they are used in class;
- wondering if they had adhered to the agreed upon particular lesson plan;
- wondering if they had successfully done what they had planned (e.g., structure blackboard organization [Klara, Sofia], provide enough repetitions [Jana], and modify/simplify input [Sofia, Jana]);
- pondering whether they are effectively creating a caring, engaging learning environment for their students;

- worrying about their students' progress and whether they, as teachers, were doing their part to provide appropriate learning opportunities; and
- contemplating how external factors such as time constraints, testing, and classroom arrangements affect their students' learning.

All of these reflections can be linked to participants' subjective perspective constructions.

In sum, I would argue that, in accord with Kallenbach's views, an important aspect of subjective perspective construction lies in its verbalization. For example, in their discussions/interactions with the interviewer and as a result of their engagement with recordings of their past actions in the classroom, participants are able to formulate their beliefs, assumptions, and knowledge in such a way that their conceptualizations emerge as *knowledging-in-process*. The present study highlights this reflection-on-action as one of the contributing factors in teacher cognition about vocabulary but I could not research whether or in what ways the reflection-on-action altered the participants' views of vocabulary learning and teaching or in what ways participants' reflections-on-actions changed over the course of their teaching (participants were not told about this study's focus on vocabulary until just before the second recall session). In Chapter 6, I address the fact that further research is needed, especially longitudinal studies that would facilitate more in-depth investigation of this component.

Peers and role models. The third contribution that increases participants' cognition is that of peers and role models. Where past teachers were named as role models, there is some overlap with the concept of apprenticeship of observation, but role models can also be friends (as was the case with Klara) or family members (as in Jana's situation). The important distinction between teacher role models and family/peers is the fact that the former rarely share

their thoughts about their teaching methods. One of the important aspects Lortie addresses in his 1975 study is the fact that observers (students) are not privy to the reasons that underlie their teachers' pedagogical decisions. Pre-service teachers reflecting back upon their own learning experiences therefore project their own reasoning.¹⁹¹ (I think this is why my teacher taught in this particular way.) Friends, peers, or family members, in contrast, take an active role in jointly negotiated reflections about the role model's actions. I would also argue that their input may be more emotionally charged and therefore more relevant. Jana greatly admires her mother's teaching approach. She describes how being able to observe and discuss her mothers' teaching and her caring attitude toward her students allows her to develop her own ideas on how she herself wants to teach. Klara reports that when her friends' relate their experiences in their internship, it encourages her to adjust certain aspects of her own teaching. In one of the interview sessions, Sofia explicitly asks the interviewer about her experiences with the use of PPTs in teaching vocabulary, a question that begins a brief exchange and discussion about their benefits and disadvantages.

Professional development. The fourth source contributing to subjective perspective constructions is teachers' professional development. The analyses of the participants' narratives indicate that all three participants regard this factor as least important. They base their assessment on the fact that they believe that they had little or no classes about vocabulary or vocabulary pedagogy in their prior teacher training programs and thus do not think it matters much or affects their views on vocabulary.¹⁹² On the other hand, all three expressed interest in learning more about how vocabulary was taught in the past. Klara remembers a class on lexical

¹⁹¹ In addition, they now reflect on this action as adults in the present.

¹⁹² Jana had not begun her formal teacher training in Germany as had the other two participants. She likely referred only to the TA workshops, which did not have a vocabulary pedagogy component.

processing she found very interesting; Sofia claims that she completed the *Langenscheidt teacher training module on vocabulary acquisition* out of interest on her own, and Jana reports, somewhat vaguely, that she read “some” books about vocabulary. I find the discrepancy between their statements striking. On one hand, they affirm how important they believe vocabulary work is to language learning, while on the other, they report how little professional vocabulary training they have had. My study was not designed (and did not intend to be) to verify participants’ narratives on this account. It does not matter how many hours of instruction on vocabulary teaching and learning they actually received; what matters is that in their narratives they realize their formal training as largely irrelevant with respect to their subjective perspectives and their classroom actions. Only Klara claims that a concept of the mental lexicon as a network informed how she structures her input. Sofia, the participant with the longest period of professional development (it extended over several years and included teacher training in her MA classes, as well), remembers teacher training sessions as negative experiences [*vorgeführt werden*, stim_1_S_16:43]. She explains that she still hears her former supervisor’s¹⁹³ “voice in the back of her head” critiquing her, but Sofia sometimes deliberately chose to act contrary to her supervisor’s recommendations despite the fact that, upon reflection, she agrees with her supervisor’s reasoning overall; her perspectives align with what she learned, but not with her actions in class. Almaraza (1996) describes the phenomenon of how pre-service teachers adjust to the curriculum demands of their teacher training and then abandon many of the concepts and teaching methods they were taught once they are no longer part of the educational context.

¹⁹³ Sofia’s mentor at the Goethe Institute Warsaw was also her MA supervisor at the university.

To summarize this finding, then, at the time of data collection, the educational context of teacher training has the least impact on teachers' subjective perspective construction. This may be due in part to past teacher-training they opposed [Sofia] or in part due to the lack of academic input altogether [Jana]. The findings of my study therefore support other researchers' (e.g., Flores, 2001; Freeman, 1996; Phipps, 2007, 2010) proposition that teachers may know about academic concepts but, as Almaraza (1996) notes, this does not necessarily lead to acceptance of those concepts, or to their transfer into classroom practice. This appears to be the case for teachers' cognition about vocabulary learning and teaching, too. Whether this might change as a result of future TA training that supports reflection on action and upon their past experiences as teachers and learners cannot be predicted based on this study. Busch (2010) sees a significant change in pre-service teachers' beliefs as a result of reflective and experiential activities that were part of a professional course she taught. However, since the reflective activity Busch tracked was one of the graded assignments in her class, I view her results with caution; students' reports could have been biased due to the nature of the assignment. Furthermore, the question of whether these changes in perspectives were applied to, or had an impact on, classroom practices later on (as opposed to just within the one-on-one tutoring sessions that Busch' study included) remains unanswered.

The results of my study also confirm other researchers' recommendations, namely, that professional teacher development ought to be seen as an integral part of teacher identity constructions, as Clarke (2008), Farrell (2011), Schocker-v. Ditfurth (2001), and Trent (2011, 2012) propose. For example, Schocker-v. Ditfurth claims that the task of professional development is to aid in the formation of a professional identity:

Auf allgemeinsten Ebene ist es deshalb Ausbildungsziel, die Studierenden bei der Entwicklung einer Berufsidentität zu unterstützen, damit sie ein reflektiertes berufliches Selbstverständnis entwickeln, das ein mehrperspektivisch informiertes Wissen über sich selbst und die relevanten Perspektiven auf das Lehren und Lernen einer Fremdsprache beinhaltet. (2001, p. 94)

I argue that what teachers accept (or refute) and what they use in their knowledge is negotiated as part of their identity construction (what kind of teacher they want to be), and that it is mediated by the theoretical concepts they encounter in their teacher training and in the context of life-long professional development. For example, they might not want to be the “odd-one-out” who promotes task-based learning in an educational setting that does not support such an approach, regardless of what academic research has to say about it.

5.4.2 Characteristics of subjective perspectives related to vocabulary learning and teaching

My second research question examines characteristics of the subjective perspectives teachers have about vocabulary learning and teaching. In many ways, the findings of the present study confirm general findings about subjective theories/cognition. For example, the participants’ subjective perspectives appear to be stable over the time period of the data collection; at the same time, they are conceivably negotiated and the subject of reflection; at times, they appear to be contradictory; and they are based on highly individualized reasoning. These findings are described in more detail below.

Perspectives are stable. My data suggest that participants explain their subjective perspectives at the beginning of the study in ways similar to how they relate them near the end. In the process of data coding, I saw that participants express the same perspectives in the first stimulated recall as in the second recall sessions three months later, and they often address these

same perspectives in the concept map discussion, as well.¹⁹⁴ For example, Sofia states she prefers to do things differently, even if this means diverging from the lesson plan or not taking the advice of her mentors: [*halt dieses wiederholen, das sollte nicht sein* (both her mentors at the Goethe Institute and at the TA workshop had told her not to repeat students' answers) *aber ich wiederhols halt*, stim_1_S_18:07], [*mir ist das jetzt egal, ob das im Lehrplan steht. Ich mach immer selbst noch eine Übung dazu. Deswegen liege ich oft auch ein bisschen weiter zurück*, stim_1_S_58:48], and [*also die Ideen sind immer sehr gut (..) aber ich überleg mir dann immer nochmal selbst, ich mach dann meinen eigenen Lessonplan, was ich wie machen will. So Tage wie ich mich an den Lessonplan halte, da gefällt mir der Unterricht auch nicht*, stim_2_S_39:32]. Kallenbach (1996) believes the cause of this relative stability of subjective theories is that they are usually not meant to be contested; rather, their purpose is to confirm observed conditions.¹⁹⁵ In contrast to Kallenbach's view, I note more hesitancy and more weighing of pros and cons in the participants' narratives. Therefore, I conclude that though subjective perspectives appear to be relatively stable across participants' narratives, this does not necessarily mean that they are not subject to scrutiny and potential future change. I anticipate that participants will find more ways to accommodate different conditions and that this will then lead to changes in perspective. This is supported by the participants' comments about how they value others' feedback. For example, in her remark on the TA's lesson planning, Klara points out that she sees the TA group as a source of new ideas and new causes for reflection [*Es ist natürlich spannend, wenn man zusammen plant. Da hat man mehr Ideen*

¹⁹⁴ I explain in Chapter 6 that findings with regard to changes over time must be viewed with caution, because this study was not designed to consider the temporal aspects of change.

¹⁹⁵ "In der Regel besteht nicht das Bestreben, subjektive Theorien auf ihre Richtigkeit zu überprüfen und möglicherweise als falsch oder ungerechtfertigt zu erkennen, sondern die Tendenz, sie zu *bestätigen*. Subjektive Theorien sind deshalb relativ *stabil*" (p. 35).

uhm macht mehr Gedanken. Das macht einfach mehr Sinn. Da kommt mehr zusammen,
stim_1_K_4:20]. The potential for change is also supported by my analysis of participants' narratives. Almost half of their statements on vocabulary learning can be considered phrases that signal thought processes¹⁹⁶ rather than explicitly assertive opinions.¹⁹⁷ This is exemplified by the participants' comments. Sofia thinks out loud how she came to use different gestures in class [*uhmm (.) das hat man **irgendwie** im Unterrichten da hat man sich das mit der Zeit praktisch beigebracht **irgendwie***, stim_1_S_6:53] and she then comes up with reasons why she introduces simplified phrases and even pidginized language rather than the correct forms [*aber das ist doch einfacher als wenn ich denen jetzt **irgendwie** sag, **das war jetzt** (..) **meine Überlegung**, damit (the difficult structures) können die jetzt nicht viel anfangen,* stim_2_S_34:23]. Klara refers to what she has heard about introducing words in context [*dass man authentische äh Lernsituationen (.) uhm schafft, uhm (.) dass ich **halt irgendwie** das Wort (.) hmm (...) ach weiß ich nicht¹⁹⁸ einkaufen oder (.) kosten oder so nicht separat lerne,* CM_K_21:02]; she also ponders the notion of whether guessing strategies lead to higher retention rates [*so sich das heraustüfteln und so, ja ja (...) genau, und (.) ja im Endeffekt (.) hmm ist das **glaub ich**, ne ne Lern oder ne Vokabellernstrategie die die(..) besser hängen bleibt wenn man sich das so erarbeitet hat,* stim_1_K_1:03:24]; and she considers using a code switch as a last resort [*das mache ich dann, also ich versuchs, immer zu vermeiden, wenns irgendwie*

¹⁹⁶ As I coded the narratives pertaining to vocabulary learning and teaching, I looked for phrasal expressions that signalled reflection or hesitancy (e.g., “I am not really sure”; “I have never thought about it this way”; and “perhaps”). I considered statements to be brought forward with certainty if they had an introductory phrase conveying this notion (e.g, I am positive about this) or if they had little or no pauses and hesitation markers such as [äh; uhhh, hmm]. I also included an assertive tone of voice and gestures in my evaluation.

¹⁹⁷ The overall ratio of comments signalling indecision to those phrases that signalled certainty is 52:56. The individual breakdowns are Jana, 19:17; Klara, 17:25; and Sofia, 16:14.

¹⁹⁸ This statement of “not knowing” [*ach ich weiß nicht*] can also be the introductory phrase to the following examples Klara gives and not necessarily a reflection of the concept of introducing words in context.

geht, aber wenn ich halt das Gefühl hab (..) ss es versteht einfach niemand das was ich sage das ist aber super wichtig dann switche ich lieber mal auf Englisch zurück, stim_2_K_45:17].

When introducing new words, Jana thinks about why she prefers to let students try out dialogues on their own first before they read and repeat the dialogue in the textbook [*dann versuch ich die das zuerst selbst machen zu lassen bevor sie die Dialoge im Buch lesen weil ich immer irgendwie (...) [gesture: tip of tongue between lips] finde (.) dass so Dialogübungen sich dann zu (..) schulmäßig machen [voice rising] un dass es (.) ich finds irgendwie sinnvoller dass sie zuerst reden dann sind sie kreativer, stim_1_J_52:24].*

Perspectives appear to be contradictory at times. Participants' utterances about vocabulary learning and teaching signal thought processes and thus point to the nature of subjective-perspectives-in-process that emerge from ongoing mediation. Despite the differences between the individual participants—with Klara voicing her perspectives more reservedly than Sofia and Jana, for instance—all three participants express perceived uncertainties.

As a process of mediation, the subjective perspectives are therefore in flux. This also means that participants state beliefs that appear to be inconsistent (and sometimes even contradictory) upon first reading. I contend that it is an artificial construct to assume humans exist in the logical world of an either/or binary condition and it is not therefore surprising that we should encounter multi-faceted perspectives on vocabulary (see Chapter 2). Klara, for example, favours a systematic approach to vocabulary learning, but she subsequently argues that learning new words in an immersion context, with unpredictable interaction and vocabulary input, is the most effective method.

Individual reasoning. Next, I address the highly individualized reasoning behind the construction of subjective perspectives. In many ways, it seems obvious that different experiences lead to different thoughts about how one should do things. Kallenbach refers to these as complex knowledge structures that make sense to the individual:

Subjektive Theorien über Fremdsprachenlernen sind komplexe Wissenskonstrukte, die der/die einzelne aus der persönlichen Erfahrung im Umgang mit der Fremdsprache in und außerhalb der Schule aufbaut. Sie stellen subjektiv wahrgenommene und relevante Aspekte des Fremdsprachenlernen in einen individuellen Sinnzusammenhang. (1996, p. 49)

Participants in the present study, too, develop their own perspectives as a result of their lived experiences. Interestingly, even when they had experienced similar circumstances such as, for example, learning vocabulary in an immersion context, their subjective perspectives are informed in very different ways. For Sofia, part of her immersion context is a traumatic experience of loss and challenge, and I find it somewhat remarkable that she does not mention benefits (or disadvantages) of immersion in her narratives at all. Klara's narratives refer to immersion learning as the next logical step toward perfecting vocabulary skills at a high level of proficiency. Jana's narratives convey her perception that, despite the challenges of her immersion experience, she found it rewarding and cannot wait to embark on another language immersion endeavour in the near future. She believes that being surrounded by target language speakers [*total immersion*] is absolutely the best way to "pick up new words." I therefore conclude that even experiences that appear to be similar on the surface are nevertheless a lived reality (or phrased in poststructuralist terms: mediated *textuality*) of the individual and will thus lead to an individualized reasoning for this person's subjective perspective.

5.4.3 Subjective perspectives on vocabulary teaching and learning

My third research question asks which subjective perspectives about vocabulary acquisition and pedagogy participants held. Because they are part of individual knowledging, subjective perspectives seem to be as diverse as the narratives of my participants' lived experiences. I present Jana, Klara, and Sofia's perspectives as part of their individual case studies, but the similarities found in all three indicate that the participants share a knowledge discourse about vocabulary within a broader historical, sociocultural context. Comparing statements in the participants' narratives with current issues in vocabulary research indicates that both have similar themes. This is particularly interesting, since all three participants claim to have little knowledge of current research findings but they nevertheless are cognizant of the research discourse themes themselves. Thus, though the participants' individual perceptions and conclusions, as well as their construction of perspectives, differ, the questions they ask and the concepts they reflect upon are comparable:

- What vocabulary (or aspects thereof) do I teach?
- What about the input? (e.g., should it be presented systematically; implicitly; modified or non-modified), and
- What is my role as a teacher?

Though participants have different priorities with regard to these questions (e.g., Klara's narratives highlight her role as a teacher of vocabulary significantly more than the others do), the fact that the participants are agents in this discourse—regardless of what they know about theory—points to the importance of aligning (or realigning) knowledging sources. This implication is further described in Chapter 6.

5.4.4 How participants' subjective perspectives relate to their classroom practices

Finally, the present study reports how teachers' subjective perspectives influence their classroom actions. When summarizing the findings, it is possible to identify different, apparently contradictory, scenarios. The respective perspectives of the three instructors often concur with their actions in class but the participants also verbalize several perspectives and beliefs in the interviews that they do not seem to act upon in class, possibly because they are not aware of the tension between their actions and their belief systems, or perhaps they are aware of the discrepancies but have other reasons why their actions do not strictly correspond to their perspectives. For example, all three participants name time constraints as a factor keeping them from teaching in ways they would prefer. Interestingly, I identified scenarios where teachers became aware of certain classroom practices they had used to structure their input they had not thought about consciously as something they did regularly before they watched themselves on the video. I describe an example for this phenomenon along with the rest of the scenarios in more detail below.

Perspectives in accord with successful experiences. When participants act according to their perspectives, they most often follow vocabulary teaching procedures, activities, or methods that they themselves encountered when they were learning and which they experienced as successful. For example, we note how Klara describes the ways she believes it best to prepare her vocabulary activities and vocabulary input in a very systematic way (by writing out key phrases and deciding on the exact layout of her writing on the board). Her beliefs originate in her own positive systematic learning experience. Then, in her classroom observations, we see how her actions match her perspectives. Jana, in contrast, acts according to her perspective

regarding the benefits of monolingual input, which she holds in high regard because of her own immersion experience, but she then struggles to maintain her course of action in class and ultimately starts to question the feasibility of monolingual input altogether.

Discrepancies. I note other discrepancies between teachers' actions and their subjective perspectives. On the one hand, teachers' classroom behaviours extend beyond what they think they do. Their classroom actions are more diverse and multi-faceted than they imagine, as the stimulated recall sessions demonstrate. This is the case with Sofia and Klara's use of contextualizing gestures in class. Both comment that they recognize patterns in their behaviour (e.g., repeated use of certain gestures to facilitate classroom management) and gestures that they initially refer to as "intuitive", but upon closer reflection in the stimulated recall, they come to realize the objectives that underlie their actions. On the other hand, teachers sometimes simply do not act according to their beliefs. They are either aware of the discrepancy and contend that outside factors impede their ability to do so (e.g., time constraints are often mentioned) or they seem unaware of the tension between their classroom practices and their subjective perspectives. In particular, I observe a strong preference for teacher-fronted classroom discourse with IRF patterns dominating the interaction, yet participants explicitly state that they prefer interactive practices within a learner-centred approach. My study does not propose to explain these tensions; further research is needed to explore such discrepancies in more detail. I am also careful not to cross the line between researcher and teacher educator. Explicitly asking participants of a study to reason why they demonstrate a particular behaviour or action in class does not conform to the purpose of my research, which is to identify themes

as they emerge from my subjects' narratives. Still, my findings point out tendencies and themes that provide food for thought in the design of future teacher education programs.

5.4.5 Summary of findings

Using an explorative-interpretive approach grounded in a social constructivist framework, this study tracked the construction of subjective perspectives about subject matter vocabulary, vocabulary acquisition, and vocabulary pedagogy as these are experienced by three university instructors. The findings indicated that subjective perspectives were highly relevant to teachers' actions in class. The participants identified factors that contributed to their development and highlighted their characteristics with regard to vocabulary. My findings can be summarized as follows:

- Teachers draw on various sources to construct their *subjective perspectives* regarding the teaching and learning of vocabulary (e.g., their apprenticeship of observation, their reflection-on-action of classroom proceedings, role models, and academic sources of professional development). Of these, their personal, lived learner experiences play a key role and appear to be the dominant factor in this process. Experienced academic sources of professional development, in contrast, were considered less important.
- Subjective perspectives were not stable propositions but were negotiated and changed in accordance with dynamics of space, place, and time; as such, they should be considered as embedded within particular sociocultural contexts.
- Subjective perspectives were part of teachers' self-identity construction and were mediated by processes of self-positioning and other-positioning.

- Subjective perspectives followed a highly individualized reasoning process. This led to the phenomenon that similar experiences could result in different conclusions, just as different experiences could lead to similar conclusions.
- Subjective perspectives did not necessarily lead to actions that were aligned with them. Tensions between perspectives and vocabulary teaching practices could be seen as either conscious (e.g., teachers knew that there were divergences and they aimed to justify or rectify the underlying conditions) or unconscious (e.g., teachers were not aware of the gap between their self-proclaimed perspectives and their actions).
- Subjective perspectives were constructed in mediation with the interdependent constituents of teacher persona, educational context, learner, subject matter vocabulary, and academic reasoning (all of which were, in turn, subjected to change arising from space, place, and/or time).

In sum, we can regard subjective perspectives as the narratives of lived and reflected experience. As I argue in the next chapter, these subjective perspectives impact teachers' professional development and their actions with regard to vocabulary learning in a foreign language context. The next chapter therefore discusses implications, limitations, and future research options.

*Ein Mann, der Herrn K. lange nicht gesehen hatte,
begrißte ihn mit den Worten:
„Sie haben sich garnicht verändert.“
„Oh!“, sagte Herr K. und erbleichte.
Bertolt Brecht, Das Wiedersehen*

Chapter 6

Implications, Limitations, and Future Research Options

The previous chapters merged considerations and findings. Now this chapter leads to a discussion of implications, limitations, and an outline of potential future research options.

Throughout our careers as foreign language instructors, our knowledge base, our beliefs and assumptions about vocabulary teaching never cease to be challenged. The necessity for change is ever present. We encounter different conceptualizations of language, different vocabulary teaching paradigms, different academic settings with different syllabi, and possibly, we go off to teach in different countries and cultural settings. Our experience, our reflection on action and our professional development contribute to how we position ourselves as teachers and how this in turn informs our classroom actions. Teacher professional development, too as experienced in different contexts of pre-service training, in-service reflection, workshop participation, readings of research publications, interaction with peers, students and/or administrators must be seen as a life-long ongoing process of mediation and accommodation of new insights.

6.1 Implications–*Reflected Engagement*

Given that change is a constant companion in the lived experiences of vocabulary instructors, I argue that *reflected engagement* (a term that highlights the interdependencies of factors leading to subjective perspectives) helps instructors make sense of the factors

influencing their actions and *knowledging*. The present study supports the position of researchers who regard teachers' lived experiences as a crucial part of the equation with respect to understanding interaction in foreign language classrooms (Allwright, 2006; Barcelos, 2003; Borg, 2012; Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Johnson, 2009; Woods, 2003, Woods & Çakır, 2011). Teacher cognition research in recent years focuses on teacher development as a dialogic mediation of practical knowledge and scientific concepts, one where *knowing*¹⁹⁹ is constructed intersubjectively through our lived experiences and our engagement with the social reality surrounding us (e.g., Borg, 1998; Breen et al., 2001; Duff & Uchida, 1997; Meijer et al., 1999; Tsang, 2004). This study proposes to include vocabulary, its acquisition, and its pedagogy in this shift in mainstream teacher development paradigms.

Although *reflection on action* is not a new concept in teacher education programs, as we have seen earlier, this reflection was often implemented for the purpose of “overcoming” misconceptions (aka beliefs, lay theories) (e.g., Busch, 2010; Goa & Ma, 2011; Tsang, 2004; Zhang, 2008) and to lay the groundwork for scientific knowledge constructs that are expected to lead to “effective teaching.” When part of a teacher training program, it is often a graded assignment and implemented with the purpose to align knowledge with the paradigms of scientific knowledge (e.g., Which rehearsal intervals do research findings designate as best practices, and which should therefore be implemented in class?; What does research have to say about monolingual target language classes?). As I suggested previously, I move away from the concept of knowledge as a product to knowing as a process. The purpose of reflection in this sense is to serve as a process of mediation between interdependent factors. Constructing

¹⁹⁹ Note: Guba & Lincoln (1994) use the term knowledge.

subjective perspectives is thus both a process and a result of reflected engagement. I introduce this term to highlight the interdependencies of factors leading to subjective perspectives. This interactive process results from teachers developing subjective perspectives *about* factors such as research, professional development, curriculum, subject matter, pedagogy, language, learners, and how all of these are related, and then these very factors also in turn influence *how* teachers develop their subjective perspectives. A change in perspective from product-oriented to process-oriented thinking through reflected engagement must acknowledge these affects on teacher development. Given their primacy in my study's results, I now examine these interdependencies from the viewpoint of the teacher in more detail.

Debates regarding teachers' prior practical knowledge (also sometimes referred to as *laypersons' theories, professional craft knowledge, and/or practical theory*) are often built on a dichotomy of scientific versus non-scientific terms and concepts. I maintain that these are complementary and interrelated concepts and that process-oriented thinking that places the teacher in the foreground of the construction of knowing does not therefore imply that scientific concepts must be entirely rejected. Penny Ur (1996, 2007) suggests pairing practical, experiential learning with external theoretical input to create "enriched reflection" because the knowledge gained would then be meaningful to participants. Her research affirms my decision to abandon this dichotomous perspective.

6.2 Implications—Address *divergence between teachers' subjective reflections and their actions*

As I have pointed out, there is no simple correlation between a teacher's subjective perspectives and their actual practices. Drawing on Rod Ellis (2012) to review the two

perspectives, I suggest ways to address the divergence between teachers' subjective reflections and their actions as education as a life-long process and the emergence and fostering of teachers as researchers.

Rod Ellis (2012) contrasts the cognitive perspective with a socio-interactional perspective by comparing teachers' beliefs as per the table below:

Table 40 Cognitive perspective versus socio-interactional perspective

	cognitive perspective	socio-interactional perspective
Teacher beliefs	Teachers hold general beliefs that influence the decisions they make with regard to the different aspects of language use. These beliefs are amendable to change through both external inputs (e.g., a teacher training course) and through reflection on personal experience.	There is no simple correlation between a teacher's declarative beliefs and their actual practices. In order to cope with specific classroom situations, a teacher may disregard one belief in order to act on another. Practice is governed by procedural beliefs which are grounded in the teacher's social experiences rather than by declarative beliefs founded on a technical understanding of language and language teaching.

Ellis (2012, p. 148)

The findings of my study accord with the first part of Ellis' socio-interactional perspective, that there is no simple correlation between a teacher's subjective perspectives and their actual practices. But that does not necessarily mean that teachers should be governed by procedural beliefs resulting from their social experiences alone. Rather than taking such a dichotomous stance, I prefer to highlight the interdependencies of all the factors that contribute to this construction of knowing. Scientific research and the formal teacher training based on it are then

part of the social experience of teachers and one of many factors that inform teachers' subjective perspectives. This perspective has implications for how we view teacher development as a life-long process of reflected engagement.

6.2.1 Teacher education- a lifelong process

Professional development must be recognized as an on-going part of a teacher's work. While a product-oriented, top-down perspective sees knowledge about vocabulary and vocabulary pedagogy as acquirable in defined educational settings, based on scientific concepts, and usually introduced as part of a program with a set curriculum that is completed in pre-service education, reflected engagement is a life-long process responding to challenges and change. It therefore works in ways that engage teachers to ask questions on how those academic knowledge constructions relate to themselves, their learners, the context of their teaching, and the subject matter vocabulary, as well as how all of these relate to each other. If we take vocabulary acquisition using a monolingual instruction (MI) approach as an example, some of the questions teachers might then reflectively engage with are exemplified below. They are loosely grouped according to the key dynamics of teacher persona, learner, context, classroom experience, vocabulary corpora, sociocultural environment, and academic research discourse.

Teacher persona

- What does MI mean for me?
- Have I experienced it in my own vocabulary learning and, if so, what were the conditions?
- How did it affect my own learning progress?
- Based on this experience, is MI something I would support?
- When using MI to contextualize meaning, what are my personal strengths, preferences, or challenges ?

Learner

- Who are my learners?
- What do I know about their cultural learning background, and what do I expect their reaction to MI be?
- What is their proficiency level in the target language, and in what ways will this affect how they experience MI?
- To what degree can I draw on common schema? In what ways do I anticipate learners to do that, too?
- What do I know about their past learner experiences and how does MI fit into them?
- What do I know about the learners' expectations, their motivation, and their investment in learning, and how do those relate to MI?

Educational setting

- What is the educational setting, and how will it affect MI?
- Is MI a necessity because not all students share the same source language or is it a choice?
- What is my institution's policy on MI? Is it mandatory, favoured, or is it left to me to decide?
- How is MI supported at my institution?
- What materials are made available to facilitate an MI approach?
- What experiences do my peers share about MI?
- If my subjective perspectives with respect to MI are not in accord with those of my learners/institution, how do I position myself as an instructor (e.g., exerting a voice of authority, trying to win others over, or simply accepting the tension of different views)?

Classroom experience

- What past classroom experience do I have teaching from an MI approach?
- How do these classes compare to my present one?
- Can I foresee classroom interactions where I will not want to use MI?
- What are the consequences if I do not use an MI approach, even though I personally favour it?

Corpora

- What is the ratio of cognates between source language and target language?
- How similar (or dissimilar) are the source and target languages?

Sociocultural environment

- How is MI valued in the particular sociocultural environment where I teach, and has it undergone major changes recently?
- In what ways does the prevalent view differ from my perspective?

Academic research discourse

- In what ways does research contribute to my understanding of MI in my particular situation?

- Is there a controversial discourse about MI that relates to my present situation?

This spiral of questions engaging in reflection will become more and more detailed over time and will eventually include experienced and anticipatory reasoning. My reasoning will also change in the process of recounting my past narratives because I mediate my memories from the vantage point of the present (Who was I? Who do I remember myself to have been? Who am I now? Who do I want to be?). Obviously, the result of this reflected engagement will not be stable—and it need not be. If one of the interdependent parameters changes, it may well lead to an adjustment of related subjective perspectives. Such a change in how we perceive learning also changes how we view the teacher persona. Klapper points out that

the art of teaching does not lie in accessing a checklist of skills but rather in knowing which approach to adopt with different students, in different curricular circumstances or in different cultural settings.
(2006, p. 16)

Teachers engaged in reflection need not see such changes as a threat to their knowing but would instead embrace it as both a necessary step and even as an opportunity to enrich their learning.

The process of knowing as the construction of subjective perspectives is thus mediated in a life-long interaction of factors within space, place, and time; it cannot be ticked off as completed once addressed. This, in turn, calls for teacher development concepts that accommodate this process. Pre-service teacher education programs could lay an important foundation for this mode of thinking as well as provide the means required to facilitate it (e.g., micro-analysis of classroom observations, reflection-on-action activities), but if we look at teachers' development as something that is grounded in their life-long lived experiences, then this reflected engagement must be supported beyond the time-limited conditions of pre-service

education programs. Furthermore, as suggested below, teachers must take an active part in academic knowledge construction.

6.2.2 Teachers as researchers

The idea that teachers' experiences should inform theoretical conceptualizations of language learning and teaching is not new (Borg, 2013; Burns, 1999, 2010; Johnson, 2009; Wallace, 1998).²⁰⁰ Marita Schocker-von Ditfurth (2001) quotes Altrichter and Lobenwein: "*Das Leitbild einer wissenschaftlichen Lehrerausbildung [wird] hier verstanden als die Fähigkeit (angehender Lehrer/innen), eine forschende Entwicklung ihrer Praxis zu fördern und gleichzeitig die praktische Entwicklung von Theorien durch die Reflexion ihrer Handlungspraxis voranzutreiben*" (Altrichter & Lobenwein, 1999, p. 173). Schocker-von Ditfurth sees this professional development as both "being informed by theory" and as "informing theory" by sharing practical experience. Borg's (2013) conceptualization of teacher research goes beyond an exchange of information. He defines teacher research as

systematic inquiry, qualitative and/or quantitative, conducted by teachers in their own professional contexts, individually or collaboratively (with other teachers and/or external collaborators), and which aims to enhance teachers' understandings of some aspect of their work, is made public, has the potential to contribute to better quality teaching and learning in individual classrooms, and which may also inform institutional improvement and educational policy more broadly. (Borg, 2010, p. 395, cited in Borg 2013, p. 10)

Not only does Borg encourage teachers to respond critically to the academic research they encounter, he also invites teachers to take an active role as generators of knowledge, rather than

²⁰⁰ See also Borg's comprehensive overview of teacher research from a historical perspective that spans the period from Kurt Lewin's general education action research in the 1940s to the present; addressing the various goals set by teacher research ranging from in-class problem-solving to a conceptualization of teachers as perpetuators of social change; and the beginnings of "teachers develop teachers" concepts within the context of foreign language instruction.

be just consumers of it (2013, p. 219). He explicitly addresses the question of how best to create an atmosphere that promotes a stronger teacher research culture by drawing on analyses of more generalized teacher research projects to formulate conditions conducive to the success of these projects (pp. 221–223).²⁰¹ These aspects should be explored in more depth with respect to what teachers could contribute to our construction of knowing about vocabulary acquisition and pedagogy. Even though an exploration of teachers as researchers is beyond the scope of this research project, my approach shares Borg's contention that teachers belong in the equation of construction of knowing as *agents of change*, as Johnson (2009) calls them. The next section, limitations and future research, explains how my study achieved its goals; it outlines its limitations, and suggests potential future research.

6.3 Limitations and future research options

Seliger and Shohamy (1989) have coined the term *research cycle* where every research finding opens the door to further questions engaging the researcher to explore beyond the limits of his present work. This study is no different. While it contributes to our conceptualizations of teachers' subjective perspectives in the context of vocabulary acquisition and relies on a sociocultural paradigm to view these in the wider context of learning in society, its scope, detail, and methodological choices are limited.

Longitudinal research. First and foremost is the conception of subjective perspectives as constructed by individuals over (1) time, (2) place, and (3) space. It therefore makes sense to follow up on these three aspects using varied research designs. For example, the temporal factor could be addressed by doing a longitudinal study that follows and tracks teachers'

²⁰¹ Borg's most recent work explores teachers' conceptions of research within a global context (Borg & Liu, 2013) in the context of English teachers in China. Also see Borg and Alshumaimeri (2012) on university instructors in Saudi Arabia. See more on this in Borg (2013, pp. 225ff).

developmental changes over a longer period of time, a time frame that goes beyond the scope of my present study. Past research uses the duration of teacher education programs to follow teachers' knowledge construction, but these rarely introduce a reflection on vocabulary teaching beliefs into their programs²⁰² that cover past personal learning experiences and classroom observations combined with learner feedback. In addition, given the nature of the programs studied, the participants were mainly pre-service teachers. It would be interesting to see how teachers' subjective perspectives develop over time and how they compare temporally. My results indicate that the participants' narratives exhibit few differences in beliefs from when data collection began to when it ended three months later. This might change (or not) if we were to examine a longer time frame that had intermittent opportunities for professional development.²⁰³

Exploring different educational contexts. Further research could also go into more detail and explore in what ways the perspectives of individual factors such as educational context, apprenticeship of observation, teacher training, and classroom interactions are mediated in reflected engagement and whether these are subject to change. For example, the participants of this study were part of a tertiary learning and teaching environment that promotes an engagement with pedagogy. Teachers are encouraged to foster and develop their teaching skills, and time was therefore set aside for such teacher development activities. Further research could explore in what ways a supportive teaching context contributes to a reflection on subjective perspectives and how these might then be renegotiated in the process.

²⁰² As was noted earlier, the DELPHI program and Klapper's experiential learning cycle are examples of how reflection on beliefs is made part of teacher training.

²⁰³ The participants did not cover vocabulary learning and pedagogy in their professional development class (CULT) in the semester when data was collected.

Another limitation in the scope of this study is its focus on tertiary instructors of beginner language learners. Possible future research could explore the subjective perspectives of instructors who are teaching upper-level language classes or different age groups or within different learning environments.

Moreover, the context of this study at a Canadian university predetermines a North American discourse on second language vocabulary teaching.²⁰⁴ It would be interesting to study how reflected engagement about vocabulary pedagogy and learning beliefs in different cultural milieus compare.

Comparing experienced and less experienced teachers. Future research might also address differences between experienced and inexperienced teachers and how reflected engagement affects their subjective perspectives. My results indicate that there sometimes were few differences in the ways participants expressed their perspectives and how these perspectives originated and developed, despite the fact that the three instructors reported having significantly different educational backgrounds. However, since this was not the focus of my study and I would have needed more information on their comparative educational backgrounds, I did not analyze differences between “inexperienced” versus “experienced.” I should also take this opportunity to note that I find problematic the definition²⁰⁵ of “experienced” versus “inexperienced” based solely on the number of years spent teaching. Even so, exploring this issue would have necessitated a different research design and recruitment of participants.

²⁰⁴ I maintain that this is still the case even though my participants’ educational backgrounds were more diverse.

²⁰⁵ In my view, many more factors come into play. For example, we can wonder who would have more experience: an instructor teaching similar classes at the same institution using the same textbook for many years or an instructor who has fewer years of teaching but has taught at different levels, in different institutions, used different textbooks and possibly taught students from different cultural backgrounds.

Interdependencies between teacher and learner cognition. Last but not least, the learner is an important aspect in the construction of perspectives. A qualitative research design could therefore examine what interdependencies of expectations, actions, and subjective perspectives exist between the instructor and the learners and whether these would change with reflected engagement opportunities.²⁰⁶ Past research often uses quantitative means to elicit differences in perspectives²⁰⁷ but does not explore how to deal with these differences. Future qualitative research could examine how differences play out when both teacher and learner are engaged in reflection in the way described above and how this affects their subjective perspectives with respect to vocabulary acquisition.

Researcher triangulation. Some of the future research options I outlined would require a collaborative group of researchers. One of the challenges I faced as the sole researcher was making methodological choices. For example, I was not able to triangulate my data coding procedure set up as researcher triangulation.²⁰⁸ Investigator triangulation not only reduces the sheer amount of data processing any single researcher must do, it also addresses descriptive validity concerns more consistently (Dörnyei, 2007).²⁰⁹ Taking advantage of the opportunity to have researchers code independently and to then to cross-examine their results not only enriches the data analysis but it also ensures that any individual researcher's personal bias will

²⁰⁶ Comparisons between teacher beliefs and learner beliefs on language learning are largely based on questionnaires. For example, Kern (1995) conducted a survey with 288 undergraduate students of French and their instructors using the BALLI. It explored, for example, the level of congruence between instructors' and students' beliefs about the time needed to become proficient. Schulz (1996, 2001) also designed and distributed questionnaires regarding research students' and instructors' conceptions about grammar and error correction in language learning. See more on studies comparing L2 teacher and L2 learner beliefs in Gabillon (2012).

²⁰⁷ See, for example, Ganjabi (2011) for a study addressing discrepancies between L2 teachers' and L2 learners' beliefs.

²⁰⁸ Using researcher triangulation during coding procedures remains a controversial issue. Maxwell (1992) and Dörnyei (2007) promote it as a means to ensure descriptive validity. Norman Denzin and Yvonna Lincoln (2013), however, point out that the perspective that the object of inquiry is part of many contexts and that "all observers view an object of inquiry from their own vantage points in the web of reality" (p. 354) also undermines traditional notions of triangulation. Finally, Lyn Richards and Janice Morse caution against overusing the term *triangulation* to refer only to different coders (2013, p. 104).

²⁰⁹ This is based on Maxwell's (1992) taxonomy of validity in qualitative research.

not destabilize findings. This does not imply that they would necessarily have to come to the same conclusions. Different vantage points of inquiry, though, would provide a richer description. As I stated in Chapter 4, my explorative approach describes, highlights, and analyzes interdependencies in the participants' various narratives. My option for triangulation could only be based on the limited data triangulation the narratives themselves provided.

Methodological choices. Another methodological limitation in the data collection means I encountered was based on constraints of time and commitment. I would have liked to ask instructors to keep a journal on their reflection-on-action as well as a written reflective essay on their past experiences as language learners. However, this would have imposed considerably on the participants' time with no guarantee that it would lead to a more detailed background information. Perhaps a better choice would have been to implement a focus group discussion and invite all three participants to engage in a dialogue regarding their vocabulary learning and teaching preferences and beliefs.

Subthemes as future research focus. Finally, with regard to the scope and depth of this study, I approached the participants' narratives as my data pool. Staying within the metaphor of wave construction, my coding process identified major key themes as recurring topics in these narratives, and I used these to formulate and further analyze the participants' subjective perspectives. However, other subthemes also emerged. For example, Jana mentions her concern that her Finnish language proficiency would attrite because she was not using it.²¹⁰ This aspect touches on issues of a plurilingual speaker identity related to how speakers perceive vocabulary retention (and attrition) and what these teachers then conceptualize as appropriate practices for

²¹⁰ In the present study, this issue is briefly addressed and discussed as part of Jana's overall key theme of "total immersion".

their plurilingual students. Therefore, I conclude that a different research design with a stronger explicit focus on particular questions (e.g., perspectives on gesture use as means of semantic contextualization, attrition processes, and/or monolingual instruction) with a combination of interviews, focus groups, and classroom observations would probably elicit a more rounded conceptualization of teachers' subjective perspectives on these issues and add to the general picture of teachers' cognition on behalf of vocabulary.

In sum, in using participants' narratives in my methodological approach, I was able to gain insight into the dynamics, idiosyncrasies, and contextuality of teachers' formation of subjective perspectives about vocabulary. The findings of my study shed light on the importance of regarding teachers' perspectives as a crucial mediation between various factors influencing teacher cognition. The stories participants shared with me about their lives, their experiences, their thoughts, beliefs, doubts, ideals, and their *knowledging* wove a rich tapestry of insights into how teachers come to believe what they believe and how they know what they know. Further research is now needed to explore contributing components to this *knowledging* in more depth and detail. After all, given that words take up such a central position in any language learning, "we should be ready to explore the fascinating world of how vocabulary is learned and used [and taught]" (Schmitt, 2000, p. 6).

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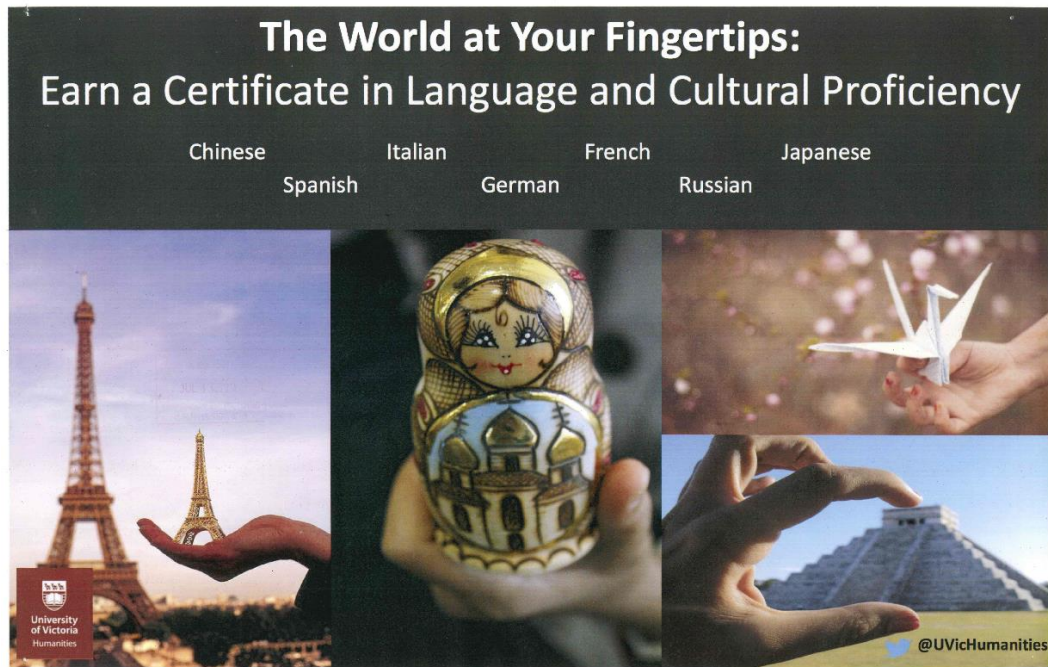
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Appendices

Appendix A



University of Victoria Humanities poster, viewed October 2014

Appendix B

Table 1. Different terms and definitions for beliefs about SLA

<i>Terms</i>	<i>Definitions</i>
Folklinguistic theories of learning (Miller & Ginsberg, 1995)	“Ideas that students have about language and language learning.” (p. 294)
Learner representations (Holec, 1987)	“Learners’ entering assumptions about their roles and functions of teachers and teaching materials.” (p.152)
Representations (Riley, 1989, 1994)	“Popular ideas about the nature of language and languages, language structure and language use, the relationship between thought and language, identity and language, language and intelligence, language and learning, and so on. “(1994, p.8)
Learners’ philosophy of language learning (Abraham & Vann, 1987)	“Beliefs about how language operates, and, consequently, how it is learned.” (p.95)
Metacognitive knowledge (Wenden, 1986a)	“The stable, stable although sometimes incorrect knowledge that learners have acquired about language, learning and the language learning process; also referred to as knowledge or concepts about language learning or learner beliefs; there are three kinds: person, task and strategic knowledge.” (p.163)
Beliefs (Wenden, 1986)	“Opinions which are based on experience and the opinions of respected others, which influence the way they [the students] act.” (p.5)
Cultural beliefs (Gardner, 1988)	“Expectations in the minds of teachers, parents and students concerning the entire second language acquisition task.” (p.110)
Learning culture (Riley, 1997)	“A set of representations, beliefs and values related to learning that directly influence [students’] learning behavior.”(p.122)
Culture of learning languages (Barcelos, 1995)	“Learners’ intuitive implicit (or explicit) knowledge made of beliefs, myths, cultural assumptions and ideals about how to learn languages. This knowledge, according to learners’ age and social economic level, is based upon their previous educational experience, previous (and present) readings about language learning and contact with other people like family, friends, relatives, teachers and so forth.” (p.40)
Culture of learning (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996)	“ The cultural aspects of teaching and learning; what people believe about ‘normal’ and ‘good’ learning activities and processes, where such beliefs have a cultural origin” (p.230).

Table 1. Different terms and definitions for beliefs about SLA. From *Beliefs about SLA: New Research Approaches*, by A. Barcelos, 2003, p.9. Copyright by Springer Science + Business Media. Reprinted with permission.

Appendix C

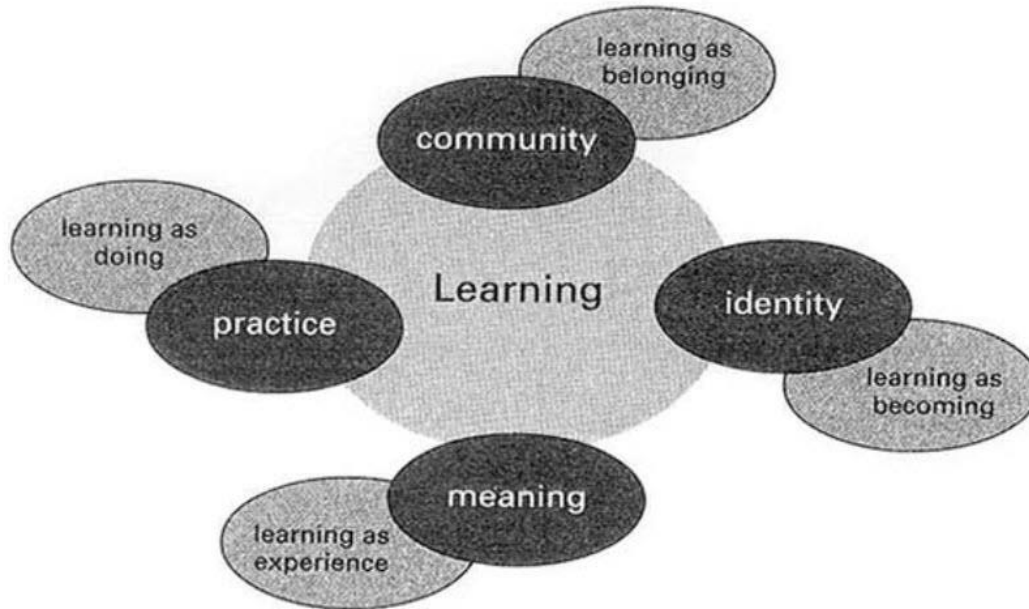


Figure 1. Components of a social theory of learning: An initial inventory.

Figure 1. Components of a social theory of learning: An initial inventory. From *Communities of Practice: Learning, Meaning, and Identity*, by E. Wenger, 1998, p.5. Copyright by Cambridge University Press.

Appendix D

Table 3.7. *A range of activities for vocabulary learning*

Goal		Activities
Form	spoken form	pronounce the words
		read aloud
	written form	word and sentence dictation
		finding spelling rules
	word parts	filling word part tables
		cutting up complex words
		building complex words
		choosing a correct form
	form-meaning	matching words and definitions
	connection	
		discussing the meaning of phrases
		drawing and labelling pictures
		peer teaching
		riddles
	concept and reference	finding common meanings
		choosing the right meaning
		semantic feature analysis

Meaning	associations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> answering questions word detectives finding substitutes explaining connections making word maps classifying words finding opposites suggesting causes and effects suggesting associations finding examples
	grammar	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> matching sentence halves putting words in order to make sentences
Use	collocates	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> matching collocates finding collocates
	constraints on use	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> identifying constraints classifying constraints

Table 3.7. A range of activities for vocabulary learning. From *Learning Vocabulary in Another Language*, by P. Nation, 2001, p. 99. Copyright by Cambridge University Press.

Table 2.1. What is involved in knowing a word

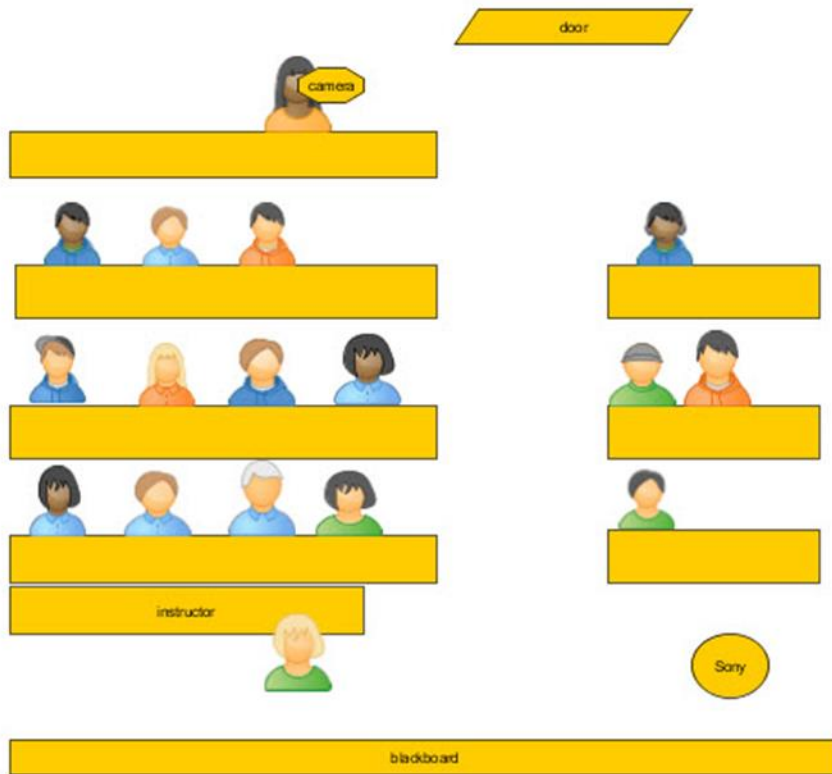
Form	spoken	R	What does the word sound like?
		P	How is the word pronounced?
Meaning	written	R	What does the word look like?
		P	How is the word written and spelled?
	word parts	R	What parts are recognizable in this word?
		P	What word parts are needed to express the meaning?
	form and meaning	R	What meaning does this word signal?
		P	What word form can be used to express this meaning?
Use	concept and referents associations	R	What is included in the concept?
		P	What items can the concept refer to?
		R	What other words does this make us think of?
		P	What other words could we use instead of this one?
	grammatical functions	R	In what patterns does this word occur?
		P	In what patterns must we use this word?
	collocations constraints on use (register, frequency, etc.)	R	What words or types of words occur with this one?
		P	What words or types of words must we use with this one?
R		Where, when and how often could we expect to meet this word?	
P		Where, when and how often can we use this word?	

Note: In column 3, R= receptive knowledge, P= productive knowledge.

Table 2.1. What is involved in knowing a word. From *Learning Vocabulary in Another Language*, by P. Nation, 2001, p. 27. Copyright by Cambridge University Press.

Appendix E

Classroom seating



Appendix F

Teacher survey

This survey will take approximately 10-15 minutes to complete.

I would like to thank you for your participation in this study entitled “Second language vocabulary teaching: Teacher cognition, classroom practices, and teachers' self-perception”. As a reminder, the purpose of this study is to identify how classroom practices teaching vocabulary are shaped by teacher cognition and teacher education.

Please read through each statement and rate how strongly you agree or disagree with this statement.

		strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree	n/a
1	I found the vocabulary learning strategies in the textbook helpful.						
2	An instructor should remind students to learn vocabulary regularly						
3	Students must learn vocabulary on their own. Whatever the instructor does will not really help.						
4.	Students really had to study hard for their vocabulary work.						
5.	It is easier for children to learn vocabulary than it is for adults						
6	People often have their favourite vocabulary learning strategy.						
7	I teach a vocabulary learning strategy that I think works best for most of my students						
8	Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning many new vocabulary words.						
9	I like to share vocabulary learning strategies that have worked for me when I learned a foreign language.						
10	It is easier to speak than understand a foreign language.						
11	Students have to find the vocabulary learning strategy that works best for them on their own.						

12	I think students expect me to teach them vocabulary learning strategies.						
13	It helps students to learn vocabulary when they are tested on them.						
14	Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning many grammar rules.						
15	I make an effort to always introduce vocabulary in a way that helps students to memorize new words.						
16	Students are introduced to vocabulary learning strategies by their peers.						
17	Vocabulary should be learned outside of the class time.						
18	I frequently use nonverbal cues (e.g. gestures) to help students understand new words.						
19	Students should come prepared to class and should have learned the new words before						
20	It is important to review new words a few times before you can really know them well.						
21	It is important to explicitly study new words.						
22	I think translations into the L1 are an important part of vocabulary teaching.						
23	It is important to introduce most of the vocabulary in class first and then have students learn new words at home.						
24	I think teaching vocabulary in context is more helpful than providing a translation.						
25	Reading a lot is the best way to pick up new vocabulary.						
26	I found the textbook activities for vocabulary teaching helpful.						
27	I think my students felt at ease with their vocabulary learning load						
28	I think it is important to wait a certain time before reviewing vocabulary.						

29	I think the new words students learned in every chapter of their textbook were appropriate and important for them to learn.						
30	I think the textbook introduced new words in an appealing way to the students.						
31	I think it is important that students know how to pronounce a word correctly						
32	I think my students want to be corrected if they make a mistake.						
33	It is important to write out the new words that you want to learn.						
34	I often ask students to repeat a word after me						

Short questions:

This is what I like to do/what I do best to introduce new words:

.....

This is what I like to do/what I do best to help students memorize new words:

.....

This is what I like to do/what I do best when a student is struggling with a word:

.....

Question 2

Please rate the following statements about the learning strategies **you tell students to use** when learning vocabulary.

On a scale of 1 to 5 please rate how often you suggest these strategies to your students.

If you do not know about this strategy please choose n/a.

“I tell students to.....”

		never	rarely	occasionally	regularly	always	n/a
1	create associations between new material and what they already know.						
2	put the new word in a sentence so they can remember it.						
3	place the new word in a group with other words that are similar in some way(for example, words related to clothing, or sorted by gender)						
4	use rhyming to memorize new words.						
5	remember a new word by making a clear mental image of it or by drawing a picture.						
6	visualize the spelling of a new word in their mind.						
7	list all the other words they know that are related to the new word and draw lines to show relationships.						
8	remember where the new word is located on the page, or where I first saw or heard it.						
9	write flashcards with the new word on one side and the definition or other information on the other.						
10	physically act out the new word.						
11	review new words repeatedly.						
12	schedule their reviewing and space their practice sessions.						
13	go back to refresh their memory of things they learned much earlier.						
14	say the words out loud repeatedly to remember them.						
15	imitate the way native speakers talk.						
16	practice the sounds or alphabet of the new language.						

17	use familiar words in different combinations to make new sentences.						
18	watch TV shows or movies or listen to the radio in the new language.						
19	look up the meaning of words in dictionaries.						
20	find the meaning of a word by dividing the word into parts which they understand.						
21	look for similarities and contrasts between the new language and their own L1.						
22	look for patterns in the new language.						
23	sing or dramatize the words they are learning.						
24	use the key word method.						
25	draw pictures of words and write the translations next to them.						
26	use the bumper word practice scheme.						
27	put sticky notes all over their home with the words on them.						
28	write the new word a few times.						
29	say the word out loud changing their voice (sad, happily, quietly, angrily....)						
30	use an online vocabulary trainer-						
31	move around while learning their vocabulary.						
32	use colour coding for certain features (e.g. gender).						

Question 3

Sometimes after you have completed a survey you feel like adding something that is important to you. Would you like to share a thought? For example, do you know of another strategy you like and that you would like to describe? Is any of the above your particular favourite/ or has any of the above not worked at all in your classes? Is there one you would like to try out but haven't done so yet?

Please remember that any data pertaining to you as an individual participant is anonymous and will be kept confidential. Once all the data are collected and analyzed for this project, I plan on sharing this information with the research community in my dissertation thesis, through seminars, conferences, presentations, and journal articles. If you are interested in receiving more information regarding the results of this study, or would like a summary of the results, please provide your email address, and when the study is completed, anticipated by August 2014, I will send you the information. In the meantime, if you have any questions about the study, please do not hesitate to contact me by email or telephone as noted below. As with all University of Waterloo projects involving human participants, this project was reviewed by, and received ethics clearance through, the Office of Research Ethics at the University of Waterloo. Should you have any comments or concerns resulting from your participation in this study, please contact Dr. Maureen Nummelin, the Director, Office of Research Ethics, at 1-519-888-4567, Ext. 36005 or maureen.nummelin at uwaterloo.ca.

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Appendix G

Translations of the transcripts quoted in the study (German/English)

Please note: Code switches are in italics. Titles were not translated.

Concept Map Klara: Mental lexicon

26	2:46.6 - 2:54.1	and (...) I just found this super interesting the idea that well that the words in my mind are so connected somehow	Klara
27	2:54.1 - 2:59.2	and not in a list (.) from a to (z) or (.) I don't know in which form whatever but always	
28	3:10.9 - 3:15.8	[k. refers to drawing on the left top and taps on her network drawing] well the points are all words the connections run (.) along and across	
29	3:15.8 - 3:19.7	(.)and angled and straight and in all directions	
30	3:19.7 - 3:24.3	and these (..) associations	
31	3:24.3 - 3:30.1	well the green lines should be connotations and are then again on different levels	
32	3:30.0 - 3:34.0	ie on phonological morphological semantic grammatical and so on	
			[CM_K_2:46]

Concept Map Klara: Systematische Variation

31	3:24.3 - 3:30.1	well the green lines should be connotations and are then again they are on different levels	Klara
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(...)

35	3:43.0 - 3:57.4	and assuming (..) um (.) I find you must then through learning if you think that the mother tongue	Klara
36	3:57.3 - 3:58.9	that the words of the mother tongue are so interconnected [gesture: makes little spiral movements on network drawing]	
37	3:58.9 - 4:07.9	and if we learn a new language the words themselves (.) well these connections are established (.)you have to address these various levels	
38	4:08.0 - 4:15.0	and that's (.) well then I simply came up eh (.) with the concept (.) no idea (.)	
39	4:15.0 - 4:18.3	that you make a systematic variation	
40	4:18.3 - 4:20.5	well vari well that you vary these levels em	
41	4:20.5 - 4:27.4	but (.) not just in any way just as it occurs by chance but rather a bit more systematic	

[CM_K_3:24]

Concept Map Klara: Word networks

42	4:27.4 - 4:32.3	ahh (.) well that you for example semantic (.) eh learn through word fields	Klara
43	4:32.3 - 4:36.7	well (.) here is an example	
44	4:36.6 - 4:39.4	everything at home (.) living rent extra charge room	
45	4:39.4 - 4:58.8	so that (...) if I hear or use a word that then in my brain that so umm that I learn the words together in a block so that (.) I hear a word from there or want to use that the others then are also a little bit activated	
46	4:58.8 - 5:02.0	umm so to speak they get nudged	interviewer
47	5:02.0 - 5:02.9	exactly	Klara
48	5:02.9 - 5:18.4	(..) umm or if I then read a text in which it somehow relates to rent or (.) um about an apartment that I almost already have focused on in this semantic field [gesture: clawlike hand gesture moved up and down over page. The tip of her fingers touch the graph and the circles]	
49	5:18.3 - 5:26.0	also that (.) that I almost anticipate these words and therefore understanding is facilitated	
50	5:25.9 - 5:38.4	and because of this I think that it is sensible to learn through word fields so as learners as instructors like somehow make these circ[les] draw these images	
51	5:38.4 - 5:43.9	where one collects all the words together in a semantic field	
[CM_K_4:27]			

Concept Map Klara morphological principles

52	5:43.9 - 5:55.6	yea (.) und on the morphological plane that you (.) can recognize typical word endings for example	Klara
53	5:55.5 - 6:01.6	or yea the the the learners fix their attention on for example with jobs	

(...)

63	6:44.5 - 6:53.9	or (..) yea (.) right now I do not quite know another example but if he if he has a grasp of the concept for example computer science	
64	6:53.8 - 6:59.0	that he knows, (.) if he adds e r [spelled out] as a suffix that then the likelihood is pretty good that this is the term for the professional	
65	6:59.0 - 7:05.4	and finally so this is now these were now examples um are examples from my courses	

[CM_K_5:43]

Concept Map Klara: Vocabulary training software *Phase 6*

367	35:52.4 - 36:02.2	and also so that (...) uhmm (.) also with the simple homework to learn vocabulary from the new chapter	
368	36:02.2 - 36:08.0	and if that was controlled you could either show the vocabulary or the printed list from phase six	
369	36:07.9 - 36:13.2	so that was then accepted as learning vocabulary homework so	
370	36:13.2 - 36:16.2	uhm (.) and it was what I then thought was good was to learn it with precision	
371	36:16.2 - 36:28.4	so (.) if you have only made a spelling error or only made a French accent wrong [draws on accent on page] the word returned came (.) eh came the word over and over again	
372	36:28.3 - 36:30.1	so (.) back to the first category	
373	36:30.0 - 36:32.2	so therefore you had to start completely from scratch	
374	36:32.1 - 36:37.0	and that was so annoying that you then really looked closely at what you were doing	
375	36:37.0 - 36:43.3	because (.) uhmm you didn't wanted to have to do that	
376	36:43.2 - 36:45.5	but I eventually stopped that [program]	
377	36:45.4 - 36:48.5	well because I eventually I thought it was too stupid this program	
378	36:48.5 - 36:52.0	That's why I have simply put a minus symbol here [Klara points to an entry on the concept map]	
379	36:51.9 - 36:58.1	the motivation simply drops because all you do is takes one word from the left side and then write the translation on the right side	
380	36:58.1 - 37:01.6	without context for example	
381	37:01.6 - 37:06.0	and it is always just write click write click	

[CM_K_35:52]

Concept Map Klara: Auf hohem Niveau

452	43:41.0 - 43:46.2	it was just (..) so I found our english classes in the senior classes was held at a very high level	Klara
453	43:46.2 - 44:01.7	so (..) really it no longer was so much about the new vocabulary	
454	44:01.7 - 44:16.7	umm (..) umm yes (..) let me think we talked about (..) um we have (..) interpreted fiction and read shakespeare	
455	44:16.6 - 44:19.3	have you worked with the dictionary then	interviewer
456	44:19.2 - 44:20.9	yes (..) exactly	Klara
457	44:20.9 - 44:29.9	So (..) that was we were at that was a fairly high level and a lot of independence was expected	
458	44:29.8 - 44:36.6	furthermore (..) it was not so much about her explaining vocabulary to us	
459	44:36.6 - 44:40.4	it was rather yes you do not know a word so you just look it up in the dictionary	
460	44:40.3 - 44:47.5	what we were doing then, too is so that she practiced with us once or twice how to check something in the dictionary	
			[CM_K_43:41]

Concept Map Klara: Immersion context at a French supermarket

392	38:05.6 - 38:09.6	and then I went shopping three times a week	Klara
393	38:09.5 - 38:12.5	and then I knew then I had the things inside my head	
394	38:12.4 - 38:21.5	and ummm (.) yea it's just when when you are abroad and really living there and needing things	
395	38:21.4 - 38:27.2	well being forced let's say you need something so you have to make yourself understood	
396	38:27.2 - 38:33.1	and then you look for the words (.) and either look them up before going out	
397	38:33.0 - 38:41.3	or or in the conversation so eh, eh, eh [gesture: quick flaps with hands]	
398	38:41.2 - 38:45.4	your addressee knows what you want and so you learn that 's how you simply learn the words the best I think	

[CM_K_38:05]

Concept Map Klara: Teacher role model

438	42:11.7 - 42:24.6	my english teacher in the intensive course has (.) really yes (.) she was certainly (.) perhaps even yes, she was (.) eh something like a role model	Klara
439	42:24.6 - 42:26.9	and acted as a role model	
440	42:26.9 - 42:38.7	because she (.) was still very young, too I believe in her pre-service training and she learned about all the new learning methods and teaching methods and constructivism and so on	[CM_K_42:11]

Stimulated Recall Klara: Expectations

156	20:42.0 - 20:58.5	so basically I expect of them that (.) it's in the (.) course requirements that they (.) already before class or before the new chapters, that they have read through this before actually well prepare the vocabulary in advance	Klara
157	20:58.5 - 21:06.9	but (.), I look for the most important ones of these I really want everybody to know them one hundred percent	
[stim_1_K_20:42]			

Stimulated Recall Klara: Modified input

448	58:43.4 - 58:50.2	So (.) hmm yes as I said just now what struck me is with the talking	Klara
449	58:50.2 - 58:59.3	(..) hmm instructions or so or sentences I think about my sentences in advance	
450	58:59.2 - 59:03.5	I think this (.) it shows because then I speak slowly and clearly	
451	59:03.4 - 59:09.2	but unplanned things come faster and unclear and (.) with more difficult vocabulary	

Observation 2 Klara: Past participle or the past weekend?

1-8	0:00,4 - 1:15,8	[the instructor returns graded homework, students take their seats]	
9	1:15,8 - 1:25,5	ok good day everyone good day	Klara
10	1:25,5 - 1:36,0	(10s) [students murmur welcome, instructor sets up overhead projector and projects page]	
11	1:35,9 - 1:41,3	tell me what have you done this weekend	
12	1:41,2 - 1:43,3	last weekend	
13	1:43,3 - 1:47,9	saturday and sunday what did you do	
14	1:47,9 - 1:50,6	have slept	male student
15	1:50,6 - 1:53,6	you aren't sleeping now but	Klara
16	1:53,5 - 1:58,2	you aren't sleeping now but	
17	1:58,2 - 2:02,4	you have slept yes you have slept	
18	2:02,4 - 2:10,9	I have slept [instructor writes sentence on the board]	
19	2:10,8 - 2:14,3	two elements one form of to have	
20	2:14,2 - 2:16,9	and the participle I have slept	
21	2:16,8 - 2:19,5	but you haven't slept the entire weekend [gesture: arms spread wide]	
22	2:19,5 - 2:24,0	you have also done other things	
23	2:24,0 - 2:30,9	were you only sleeping saturday sunday	
24	2:30,8 - 2:33,4	I have gone shopping	another male student A
25	2:33,3 - 2:35,0	shopped um I have shopped	Klara
26	2:34,9 - 2:37,3	what have you shopped for A.	
27	2:37,3 - 2:43,7	uhmm (.) die gemüs	student A
28	2:43,7 - 2:47,2	um vegetables at the ehh grocery store	Klara

29	2:47,1 - 2:53,2	yes (.) ok I have shopped [writes sentence on the board]	
30	2:53,2 - 2:55,7	to shop have shopped	
31	2:55,6 - 2:57,9	good what else have you done	
32	2:57,8 - 3:02,8	(...) S. what else have you done on the weekend	
33	3:02,8 - 3:05,9	I have studied	student S.
34	3:05,9 - 3:06,9	have studied um	Klara
35	3:06,9 - 3:09,1	I have studied [instructor writes sentence on the board]	
36	3:09,1 - 3:17,4	yes very good and J. what have you done on the weekend	
37	3:17,3 - 3:20,7	<i>work</i>	student J
38	3:20,7 - 3:27,1	oh to work and have worked [writes word on the board below the other forms]	Klara
39	3:27,1 - 3:28,9	I have worked	
40	3:28,9 - 3:31,7	worked work and ed [points to the different word parts]	Klara
41	3:31,7 - 3:35,2	worked where do you work what is your work	
42	3:35,1 - 3:38,6	<i>fairview mall</i>	student J.
43	3:38,5 - 3:40,3	in which shop	Klara
44	3:40,2 - 3:41,9	um <i>body shop</i>	student J.
45	3:41,9 - 3:43,3	<i>body shop</i> (.)ok very good	Klara
46	3:43,3 - 3:45,2	very good you have worked	
47	3:45,1 - 3:48,9	great (.) and P. what have you done on the weekend	
48	3:48,9 - 3:52,5	I have studied	student P
49	3:52,5 - 3:56,3	studied (.) yes for german (.) only for german	Klara
50	3:56,2 - 3:59,2	no yes that is ok [laughs]	

51	3:59,2 - 4:01,5	ok (.) D. what did you do on the weekend	
52	4:01,5 - 4:07,8	(...) nichts	student D.
53	4:07,7 - 4:11,5	das glaube ich nicht <i>i don't believe you</i>	Klara
54	4:11,5 - 4:13,4	was haben sie am wochenende gemacht	
55	4:13,3 - 4:15,5	sport	
56	4:15,5 - 4:16,3	<i>sure</i>	student D.
57	4:16,2 - 4:17,9	yes	Klara
58	4:17,9 - 4:19,0	yes	student D.
59	4:19,0 - 4:20,5	what which sport	Klara
60	4:20,4 - 4:22,6	oh (.) uh basketball	student D.
61	4:22,5 - 4:23,3	ok	Klara
62	4:23,3 - 4:25,5	you have played basketball ok	
63	4:25,4 - 4:27,3	played	D.
64	4:27,2 - 4:29,0	yes I have played basketball [[writes participle on the board below the others]	Klara
65	4:28,9 - 4:31,5	played	
66	4:31,4 - 4:34,6	Z. no D. has played basketball	
67	4:34,5 - 4:36,9	uh R. what have you done on the weekend	
68	4:36,8 - 4:40,3	I have eaten	student R.
69	4:40,3 - 4:41,3	uhumm eaten what have you eaten	Klara
70	4:41,2 - 4:44,6	fruit	student R.
71	4:44,6 - 4:45,9	fruit ok this is very healthy	Klara
72	4:45,8 - 4:47,4	<i>healthy</i> good	
73	4:47,3 - 4:50,3	H. what have you done on the weekend	
74	4:50,3 - 4:52,6	I have done my homework	student H.

75	4:52,5 - 4:55,6	h hmm very good you are a good student	Klara
76	4:55,6 - 5:00,9	Ok very good ok before we continue	
77	5:00,8 - 5:04,2	a small vocabulary quiz	
[Klara_OBS_2_1:15]			

Concept Map Jana: Leben in einem anderen Land

133	14:23,5 - 14:49,3	therefore I also promote the idea of living in another country or travel learning many languages because (..) uhm oh at school, one often has the feeling that you are learning for the school and that is debilitating for most students in my opinion because the focus is on the vocabulary test is on the marks and umm	Jana
			CM_J_14:23

Stimulated Recall 2 Jana: Durch Schulkontext wird die Sprache entkontextualisiert

134	14:49,2 - 14:57,2	to umm yes (.) it therefore becomes therefore through the context of a school setting language is decontextualized	Jana
135	14:57,2 - 15:09,0	because they do not umm because it does not say because it is not what the emphasis is on that it is applied but instead that it (.) umm is reproduced	

[stim_2_J_14:49]

Stimulated Recall Jana: Lernen um den Horizont zu erweitern

146	17:34,6 - 17:48,6	well it is just like this [gesture: rakes through her hair and then crosses both arms in front of her] that they learn vocab fort he text only (.) so (.) a change in thinking [gesture/ facial expression: bites her lips] that maybe they would want to go to Germany one day and want tob e able to have a talk (.) as [gesture: pulls up shoulders]	Jana
147	17:48,5 - 17:54,6	well this is just what I believe [gesture: pulls up shoulders again, arms are crossed in front of her body and nods quickly] why one learns a language simply to be able to communicate	
148	17:54,6 - 18:07,6	and (.) uhm (.) to expnad one's outlook but this is just (.) difficult to get across at university because there there are just the grades and they are very important (.) and (.) uhm	

[stim_2_J_16:17]

Concept Map Jana: Der Sinn einer Sprache ist Kommunikation

136	15:09,0 - 15:18,8	and that in my opinion is simply not the most effective way to learn a language because the purpose of a language is communication	
137	15:18,7 - 15:26,9	and application and to be sure yes understanding and not somewhere	
138	15:28,8 - 15:33,4	that was just for me because I moved so many times and then.. to live in another country this was just extreme for me	
139	15:33,3 - 15:42,8	and so the ability to communicate was placed in the foreground finnish I have learned for example incredibly fast because I just because I had to	
140	15:42,7 - 15:55,4	yes so my motivation to learn the language was of course, quite different because I didn't learned to cry for good marks although of course I've also always wanted good marks	
141	15:55,4 - 16:07,3	but it was just a matter of that I was excluded from my peers because I could not speak the language and therefore I had to learn it very quickly	
142	16:07,3 - 16:13,3	and I have really learned very fast and very effectively	

[CM_J_15:09]

Stimulated Recall 1 Jana: Dieses Gefühl dazusitzen und nichts zu verstehen

165	28:00,1 - 28:03,7	because (..) uhmm I was the only German in class and (..) uhmm I just had to learn it at some point	
166	28:03,6 - 28:09,0	because all break conversations were completely in finnish and otherwise simply nobody would talk with me	
167	28:08,9 - 28:15,3	and (..) I the (..) learned this difficult language so quickly because I just had to understand what	
168	28:15,2 - 28:20,9	and (..) that is not necessarily (.) ummm it is not necessarily the easiest and most relaxing way	
169	28:20,8 - 28:24,5	umm (.) exactly like it is[gesture: chin points towards screen] here for those schoolchildren ²¹¹ it's very very stressful	
170	28:24,5 - 28:31,5	when at first they think that they don't understand a thing but it is very effective	
171	28:30,0 - 28:37,6	So (.) you just have to you really have to take close look uhm (..) which schoolchild is now on the verge of a nervous breakdown	
172	28:37,5 - 28:48,3	you should just be careful because it (.) you know, too (.) you underestimate this this (.) but you know to have this feeling and not be able to understand that is (...) not very nice	
173	28:48,2 - 28:59,5	and that is very very hard in the beginning and somewhat frustrating because (.) (.) you have to somehow get them to understand uh that they (.) frustration isn't something bad	
174	28:59,5 - 29:04,5	but rather that they should reframe it as more effective learning	

[stim_1_J_28:00]

²¹¹ Jana refers to students as schoolchildren.

Stimulated recall 2 Jana: Sprache lernen in einem anderen Land

136	16:04,7 - 16:17,9	and (.) uhm (.) therefore (..) it is much easier to learn a language in the country in which it is spoken because you are constantly using it you are repeating it continuously and thus it is not such a short-sighted notion	[stim_2_J_16:04]
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Concept map Jana: Verschiedene Kanäle ansprechen

9:14,2 - 9:19,8	so that you can apply it to different contexts so that you can use it in various ways	Jana
9:19,8 - 9:22,2	I think that is really important	
9:22,2 - 9:33,1	also that you use various aids to learn flashcards post its with colours well so that it is linked in the brain in many different ways	
9:33,1 - 9:44,2	that is why you shouldn't just look into the book vocab what does this word mean what does this word mean knowing words is memorizing them for the tests	Jana
9:44,1 - 9:48,9	instead it should also be (.) <i>embedded[uses English word]</i>	[CM_J_9:14]

Stimulated Recall 2 Jana: Man schafft ein natürliches Umfeld

137	16:17,8 - 16:28,0	and (.) therefore I believe that you have to try somehow of course you can't really do it in the in such a such an (..) environment but you should really try to always use (..)words so that then you have something to go by	
138	16:28,0 - 16:42,9	so you don't do it I'm just learning this vocabulary so I can write down on my vocab quiz paper apple is the same as <i>apple</i>	
139	16:42,8 - 16:51,4	but (.) that uhm they learn these so they learn so they know what an apple is and for example use it to write a grocery list	
140	16:51,4 - 16:52,7	I make apple pie and what do i need	
141	16:52,6 - 17:01,4	uhm (.) yes (..) thereby you also just create a bit (...) a more natural environment	
142	17:01,3 - 17:10,7	where it is not about (.) uhm (.) memorizing things that then are forgotten but rather (...) yes	

[stim_2_J_16:17]

Stimulated Recall 2 Jana: Es gibt halt die Noten

146	17:34,6 - 17:48,6	<p>Well it's just like this [gesture: rakes through her hair and then crosses both arms in front of her] that they learn vocabulary for the vocabulary test and that they (.) so rethink this (.) [gesture/ facial expression: bites her lips] that they might want to travel to Germany and want to talk there (.) as [gesture: pulls up shoulders - see screenshot]</p>	
147	17:48,5 - 17:54,6	<p>that's just my view of it [gesture: pulls up shoulders again, arms are crossed in front of her body and nods quickly] why we learn languages and why just to be able to communicate</p>	
148	17:54,6 - 18:07,6	<p>and (.) uhm (.) in order to broaden their horizon and but that's (.) just in the university environment difficult to convey because there's still there are still the grades and they are very important (.) and (.) umm</p>	

[stim_2_J_17:34]

Screenshot [stim_2_J_17:48] shoulder shrug



Stimulated Recall Jana: Hören ist viel effektiver

410	55:31,6 - 55:35,3	they have no other choice but to listen to this because they speak it inside their head	Jana
411	55:35,2 - 55:37,3	and so I think that's (.) ummm	
412	55:37,2 - 55:43,4	because context is work (.) er is (.) the listening umm (.) much better and much more effective	
413	55:43,4 - 55:46,4	and it doesn't bother them as much if they do not get something	
414	55:46,3 - 55:48,8	interesting	interviewer
415	55:48,8 - 56:00,1	so if when it comes if the communication is emphasized and listening skills and the (.) or so from the comprehension point of view listening is much more effective than reading	Jana
416	56:00,0 - 56:09,5	if they read and understand the text what they don't then what happens quite often that they simply that is they have a block [gesture: flat hand raised and held in front of head] built up that they then see they do not understand one two words	
417	56:09,4 - 56:10,9	that they then don't even want to continue reading	
418	56:10,9 - 56:13,6	or they get the impression right away oh my god I didn't understand anything	
419	56:13,5 - 56:15,1	when they listen I always play it again	
420	56:15,0 - 56:16,6	they then often understand more than they think	
421	56:16,6 - 56:18,3	and then it flows more unconsciously	
422	56:18,2 - 56:25,7	and the conscious process comes with reading is rather then to deepen the known things but to introduce unknown things	
423	56:25,6 - 56:30,6	it's when I speak or when what they listen to that is often more effective	
424	56:32,1 - 56:34,5	that's what I believe	
425	56:34,5 - 56:41,1	so I think that's good that it	

		that the book does so much with audio files	
426	56:41,1 - 56:42,5	that is really good	[stim_1_J_55:31]

Concept Map Jana: Total immersion

45	4:23,7 - 4:38,0	ummm (..) and umm yes yes yes so that what is most effective if you have the time is total immersion	Jana
46	4:38,0 - 4:42,1	that you only for example speak the [target] language in class	
47	4:42,1 - 4:48,0	that is very stressful for everybody but that is what is most effective actually	
			[CM_J_4:23]

Stimulated Recall 1 Jana: Total immersion kenn ich auch von mir

99	21:23,4 - 21:29,0	so (..) ehmm what do you think about monolingual teaching	interview er
100	21:29,0 - 21:40,2	ummm ok (..) uhmm the idea is great the this total immersion I also know that from my own experience my own language learning	Jana
			[stim_1_J_21:23]

Classroom observation 1 Jana: Hausaufgaben

4	0:00,0 - 0:23,9	[instructor is unpacking her books, class is murmuring] ok good day	Jana
5	0:23,9 - 0:26,0	good day	students
6	0:25,9 - 0:26,2	good day very good	Jana
7	0:26,2 - 0:30,3	uummm (.) the book (.) on page twenty-three	
8	0:30,3 - 0:36,9	while I collect the homework a homework (..) homework (.) homework [gesture: hands make a picking movement] please	
9	0:37,0 - 0:38,6	hausauf (..) <i>what</i>	male student
10	0:38,6 - 0:48,8	homework (.) homework from friday the letter [gesture: fingers outlining a rectangular shape of a letter]	Jana
11	0:48,8 - 0:55,3	the letter [students mumbling] ok exactly very good [points to another student's work]	
12	0:55,2 - 0:59,3	[student questions in background] <i>this one</i>	student
13	0:59,3 - 1:00,0	uhmm exactly that [nods] no homework [addressing student in front again and pointing at him]	Jana
14	1:00,0 - 1:01,9	<i>i don't think so</i>	student
15	1:01,8 - 1:08,7	ok on wednesday [gesture: points to student twice with outstretched index finger] at the latest on wednesday that was the homework [gesture: points to book on table]	Jana
16	1:08,7 - 1:17,3	this was the homework [picks up a sheet from another student and holds it up] the letter	
17	1:17,3 - 1:23,0	i wrote it on the blackboard on friday [gesture: makes a writing gesture turned to the board]	
18	1:23,0 - 1:24,0	ahh	student
19	1:24,0 - 1:24,6	(..) you haven't done it [addressing another student]	Jana
20	1:24,6 - 1:29,1	you haven't done it [gesture accompanying nicht - two fingers crossing and then opening]	

		you haven't done it	
21	1:29,1 - 1:30,4	<i>is it at home or haven't you done it</i>	
22	1:30,3 - 2:03,0	<i>i didn't know it</i>	student
23	2:01,9 - 2:04,1	by wednesday [gesture: pointy stab at student]	Jana
24	2:02,9 - 2:03,0	I have written it on the blackboard it is to LEARN	
25	2:03,0 - 2:03,2	to LEARN [[with raised voice]	student
26	2:03,2 - 2:04,0	it is in <i>contents</i> [writes on board the word <i>contents</i> followed by an arrow] and then there's homework [writes hausaufgaben fuer montags on board] and it was for the twenty-fourth of September was the homework	Jana
27	2:04,0 - 2:06,6	by wednesday [gesture: pointy stab at student with index finger] by wednesday next class wednesday wednesday	
28	2:06,5 - 2:13,9	[students mumble] <i>yes ok</i> who has the homework now thank you [collects students' papers]	
29	2:13,9 - 2:38,1	thank you (.) super (.) thank you [walks around] thanks (.) thank you thanks thanks thanks (.) ok (.)	
30	2:38,1 - 2:42,4	wednesday (.) wednesday (.) do you have it [gesture: points to student and waves sheets in her hand]	
31	2:42,3 - 2:44,8	ok wednesday	

[CO_1_J_0:00]

Classroom observation 1 Jana: Codeswitch

9	0:37,0 - 0:38,6	hausauf (..) what	male student
10	0:38,6 - 0:48,8	homework (.) homework from friday the letter gesture: fingers outlining a rectangular shape of a letter]	Jana

[CO_1_J_0:36]

Classroom observation 1 Jana: Strategies of modified input

Appendix A0:30,3 - 0:36,9	while I collect the homework ²¹²	The key term is a direct object with definite article used in a main clause.
	homework (..) homework (.) <i>homework</i>	It is then repeated twice without article and with pauses followed by an English translation.
0:37,0 - 0:38,6 0:38,6 - 0:48,8	hausauf (..) <i>what</i> [student] homework (.) <i>homework</i> from friday the letter [gesture: fingers outlining a rectangular shape of a letter]	A student then echoes this repetition in part and signals that he does not understand. Jana responds with a repetition of the German key word without article followed by a source language translation. She then switches back to the target language and provides more detail by first referring to the day it was given as homework [von Freitag] and then by describing the nature of the assignment [den Brief] accompanied by a depictive contextualizing gesture.
1:00,0	no homework	Her next use is the negation of the term in a question with a raised voice.
1:08,5	this was the homework	The term is then used in nominative in a simple past main clause.
	this was the homework the letter	This entire phrase is repeated followed by a one-word phrase again describing the nature of the assignment [der Brief].
2:03,2 - 2:04,0	and then there is the homework [writes <i>hausaufgaben fuer montags</i> on board] and it was for the twenty-fourth of September that was the homework	Jana now embeds the key term as a direct object in a main clause. This time she is using the plural form without article. She then provides the graphic form by writing this plural form and the time phrase <i>fuer montags</i> on the board. She concludes this action by repeating the simple past main clause verbatim for the third time.
2:10,2	who already has the homework	Jana's last use of this key term is a question. It is the singular form as a direct object with definite article.

²¹² The key terms *Hausaufgabe*, *homework*, and *Brief* are bolded in this transcript.

Classroom observation 1 Jana: Maintaining monolingual input- *wo kann man das kaufen?*

281	31:53,8 - 32:00,1	ok well these are a lot of items a lot of items	Jana
282	31:55,3 - 31:55,4	common items	
283	32:06,3 - 32:11,4	where can you buy them all where for example where (.) can you buy that [gesture: sweeping movement with arm and pointed index finger up and down points at list on the board]	
284	32:11,3 - 32:14,0	where (...)	
285	32:14,0 - 32:20,2	I want a coffee maker (.) scissors [gesture: ticking off items with right hand on left hand in a counting movement] a printer a table	
286	32:20,2 - 32:25,4	where (.) can I buy this	
287	32:25,4 - 32:30,2	[unintelligible murmuring from students] hmm where [questioning voice, gesture: index finger points to ear] buy umm	
288	32:30,1 - 32:34,8	buy what what what does to buy mean	
289	32:34,8 - 32:41,1	[writes on board and slowly pronounces word while writing] buy [adds two question marks] what does to buy mean	
290	32:41,1 - 32:48,8	I go into a shop ok(.) I want to buy this table [gestures and mimes: as if handing over money] ok ten euros ok to buy [gesture: stands there with both arms held with hands palms up]	
291	32:48,7 - 32:51,8	I want to buy a table [gesture: leans forward as if handing over money]	
292	32:51,7 - 33:02,2	what is it [gesture: splays hand as if offering choice] also in English (...) buy (.) <i>kaufen is to buy</i> (.) ok (.)	
293	33:02,2 - 33:05,4	hmhmm [laughing] [students voice a long ahh]	

		[gesture: arms apart, palms up] now that makes a lot more sense or	
294	33:05,3 - 33:06,9	where (.) where can I buy this [gesture: hand tips repeatedly on board where the items are written down]	Jana
295	33:06,9 - 33:11,3	where for example where hmm	
296	33:11,3 - 33:13,7	ummm [student question unintelligible] ummm any where	

[Jana_obs_1_31:53]

Stimulated recall 1 Jana: Der Zeitfaktor ist also entscheidend

102	21:43,5 - 21:55,5	so I (.) the (..) concept (..) I find [gesture: rubs her collar bone] it is effective to learn a language only (..) ehmm ummm (..) I see it not (.) one hundred percent feasible [voice speeds up]	Jana
103	21:55,4 - 21:57,0	because we have too little time [voice: rapidly spoken]	
104	21:56,9 - 22:06,5	the time factor is decisive (.) so (.) can this (..) uh this (.) this only [voice: prolonged pronunciation] speaking german [voice: speeds up again] you cannot implement it in fifty minute classes that [gesture: several quick shakes with her head] that just does not work	

[stim_1_J_21:43]

Stimulated recall 1 Jana: Man verliert alle, die Schwierigkeiten haben

105	22:06,4 - 22:13,1	because (..) umm (.) you then maybe reach those (.) umm it (.) umm who are doing well (.) to have an ear for a language	Jana
106	22:13,1 - 22:17,4	who really understand it but you lose everybody else who is struggling	

[stim_1_J_22:06]

Stimulated Recall 1 Jana: Scaffolded procedures

325	45:40,0 - 45:57,6	<p>well, when it's a new word (.) umm (.) that (.) is similar (..) ummm in german and in english or (.) umm I think that they can guess it then I say it (.) only in german</p>	Jana
326	45:57,5 - 46:02,8	<p>then I ask what is this and then (.) they may respond in english but I will not repeat it in english</p>	

[stim_1_J_45:40]

Concept Map Jana: Using language creatively

153	17:11,8 - 17:21,9	and also include other media that they can then well we listened to very very many songs or watched little movies	Jana
154	17:21,9 - 17:24,1	or analyzed advertising	
155	17:24,0 - 17:28,0	so that was pretty that it was a bit creative	

[CM_J_17:11]

Concept Map Jana: Vokabellernen hat so nebenher funtioniert

163	18:20,2 - 18:28,3	and that was for me personally a lot more effective than if we would have learned lots of vocabulary as homework or would have explicitly stated	Jana
164	18:28,3 - 18:30,8	so now we are going to learn such and such as vocabulary	
165	18:30,8 - 18:36,2	but rather the vocabulary learning it simply worked out on the side just simply alongside on its own	

[CM_J_18:20]

Concept Map Jana: Auswendiglernen fand ich ganz furchtbar

171	18:57,3 - 19:00,5	eh [short laugh] so my first english teacher	Jana
172	19:00,4 - 19:08,4	for whom we had to keep a vocabulary book and had to memorize so and so many vocabulary every week I thought it was terrible	
173	19:08,4 - 19:11,1	I eventually refused to keep a vocabulary booklet	

[CM_J_18:57]

Stimulated Recall 2 Jana: Ich sage nicht lernen Sie jeden Tag zwanzig Vokabeln

111	12:59,5 - 13:02,8	but I did not say that learn twenty vocabulary words every day	Jana
112	13:02,7 - 13:07,8	because that is what previously (.) eh what my teachers did before and I hated it	

[stim_2_J_12:59]

Concept map Jana: Im Hirn irgendwie verknüpft

25	2:14,9 - 2:30,1	well this is really very important with with language learning one has to link so that they aren't isolated words but that they are linked with as many ways as possible you can see here what it looks like	Jana
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[CM_J_2:14]

Stimulated Recall 2 Jana: Umsetzen? Relativ schlecht

141	16:52,6 - 17:01,4	uhm (.) yes (.) thereby you also just create a bit (...) a more natural environment	Jana
142	17:01,3 - 17:10,7	where it is not about (.) uhm (.) memorizing things that then are forgotten but (...) yes	
143	17:10,7 - 17:16,7	how do you think your students get along how they implement what you have as ideas [gesture: instructor nods]	interviewer
144	17:16,7 - 17:19,2	uhm (.) rather poorly	Jana

[stim_2_J_16:52]

Stimulated Recall 2 Jana: Authentic input

276	34:13,3 - 34:18,4	yes (.) even if I so (.) if it is possible then I won't talk quite so slowly	Jana
277	34:18,4 - 34:20,3	but I'd rather repeat three times	
278	34:20,3 - 34:31,7	because the language has to be authentic ah (.) uhmm of course so to learn (.) and understand what I say	
279	34:31,6 - 34:38,2	how do students respond to this	interviewer
280	34:38,2 - 34:48,8	oof [gesture: instructor left shoulder shrugs] [instructor shakes her head] yes they get it [instructor laughs] and so [instructor scratches her chin]	Jana
281	34:48,7 - 35:05,8	because they don't think they are taken for stupid eh [gesture: instructor part partially covers her mouth with right hand] (.) (.) it seems when I when I walk up to them and I am supposed to say it really slowly I just sometimes have the feeling that they (.) I think yes feel uncomfortable or so	
282	35:06,2 - 35:18,7	yes and after all that is not genuine just that I (.) eh I'd rather also not that I eh (.) that they (.) yes that they (..) [instructor smacks her lips] learn things in such an artificial way	
283	35:18,7 - 35:30,6	because language is after all yea mainly just [gesture: quick shrug with left shoulder] meant for communication right [gesture: instructor's torso moves back and forth] and therefore I try al little bit[stress on first syllable] to maintain an authentic speaking tempo	
284	35:30,6 - 35:31,8	and prefer to repeat it five times (.) nah yea	

[stim_2_J_34:13]

Stimulated Recall 1 Jana: Audio is more authentic

380	53:13,5 - 53:17,0	but I prefer to work with the audio rather than with the book	
381	53:17,0 - 53:22,5	because they (.) because they [I] find it more authentic (..) if you listen to something and have to understand the meaning	
382	53:22,5 - 53:30,9	and they too reproduce it more authentically because (...) I find that a language is best learned in this way	

[stim_1_J_53:13]

Stimulated Recall 1 Sofia: Learning to read with L2 textbook

166	20:03,1 - 20:16,9	(...) uhm (.) I don't know I just myself well the first the first books that I always read were the books of my parents that they learned german from	sofia
167	20:16,9 - 20:21,5	and I taught myself to read and write	
168	20:21,4 - 20:24,7	before I started school and	
169	20:24,6 - 20:26,9	that was in germany	interviewer
170	20:27,0 - 20:32,4	yes I don't know maybe this is because I had <i>Themen</i> ²¹³ then	sofia
171	20:32,3 - 20:34,2	do you know <i>Themen</i>	sofia

[stim_1_S_20:03]

²¹³ *Themen* is the title of a German as a second/foreign language textbook.

Stimulated Recall Sofia: Nichts und niemanden gemocht

566	1:17:30.0 - 1:17:35.7	when I went back to Poland everything here was strange to me I liked nothing and no one	sofia
567	1:17:35.6 - 1:17:45.9	and (.) eh I wanted to go back to Germany where my friends were (.) and (.) where I had my everyday life my life (.) right	

[stim_1_S_1:17:30]

Stimulated Recall Sofia: Feeling of alienation

445	1:06:44.9 - 1:06:55.2	I only knew polish from the friday school (.) just a course elementary school level (..)	sofia
446	1:06:55.1 - 1:07:03.2	(..) und (.) not enough real polish so that I could put myself into grade nine/ten or so right away	
447	1:07:03.2 - 1:07:09.4	but I didn't have to go (...) to a bilingual school or something	
448	1:07:09.4 - 1:07:11.4	but rather simply a polish school or so	
449	1:07:11.4 - 1:07:20.3	literature polish literature russian literature russian mathematics yea math and so I enjoyed doing that	
450	1:07:20.2 - 1:07:28.0	that's what interested me that was difficult because polish literature (..) no clue	
451	1:07:27.9 - 1:07:30.9	russian pff had missed three years	
452	1:07:30.8 - 1:07:38.2	that was already their third year where they had had russian yea what else	
453	1:07:38.1 - 1:07:45.4	literature (..) I could not read russian so how was I supposed to read literature	

[stim_1_S_1:06:44]

Stimulated Recall 1 Sofia: Being different

491	1:10:43.9 - 1:10:50.6	(..) and most importantly in Poland it is like this learning at school is rote memorization	Sofia
492	1:10:50.6 - 1:10:56.8	biology books (..) [gesture: indicates 8 cm space between thumb and index finger] learn them by heart (..) and then you have to know the language	
493	1:10:56.8 - 1:11:10.4	and (.) if you aren't familiar with the language (.) then it doesn't work (.) I sat in my first lesson (.) and the teacher called me to the front she wanted to question me what was (...) my mother had explained it to me at home	
494	1:11:10.4 - 1:11:21.2	I understood it but I couldn't say it in polish recite it in polish or (..) everything was so strange for me I had to (..) because of just anything I started to cry	
			[stim_1_1:10:43]

Stimulated Recall 1 Sofia: Adjusting to memorization approaches

538	1:15:07.7 - 1:15:09.9	yes (..) right (.) with time	sofia
539	1:15:09.9 - 1:15:13.7	(4s) you just had to, too	
540	1:15:13.7 - 1:15:28.5	catch up on everything [voice is very low] you get to know the principles how it generally works at school how you are supposed to learn because (.) change so how you learn biology in germany is not the way you learn it in poland it is totally different there	
541	1:15:28.5 - 1:15:45.4	[...] I've always taught myself	
			[stim_1_S_1:15:07]

Concept Map Sofia: Instructors who are non-native speakers of the target language

255	28:54.0 - 28:55.8	because eh I see this in poland (.)	sofia
256	28:55.7 - 29:10.8	if they the (.) So if they have just learned to speak the language somehow (.) but they are not a native speaker then everything comes across so then the errors which the teacher makes himself are also passed on (.)	
257	29:10.7 - 29:25.6	if if its a bad pronunciation that is passed on if there are certain expressions that are are false (.) well that bothers me	
258	29:25.5 - 29:32.4	I I would not like to learn languages from someone who is NOt a native speaker	Sofia
			CM_S_28:54]

Concept Map Sofia: Native speaker role model

264	31:22.9 - 31:26.4	english when they taught english they didn't really know it themselves and often made mistakes I had	sofia
265	31:26.5 - 31:29.6	english classes in poland	interviewer
266	31:29.6 - 31:46.6	english classes in school yes they were not always the best teachers because of this later on we had an english teacher uhm who had I believe studied physics or something in the us and was actually a professor at the university but still teaching english at our school on the side	sofia
267	31:46.5 - 31:52.8	because he simply wanted to and he was like a really good english teacher	
268	31:52.7 - 32:09.1	yes (.) with <i>american accent</i> and pronunciation that rang true what he said rang true I then learned something but in the school in poland english I already knew everything they had to teach so I didn't care	
			[CM_S_31:22]

Appendix H

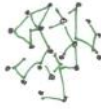
Klara's concept map drawing in six storyboard slides

im Studium und als Lehrerin

Mentales Lexikon

↓
Wortassoziationen

- ↳ auf
- phonologischer
- morphologischer
- semantischer
- pragmatischer Ebene



→ bei Verwendung der Muttersprache und beim Lernen von neuen Wörtern einer Fremdsprache werden Assoziationen auf all diesen Ebenen gebildet

Vokabeln lernen

[cH-k]

Klara, concept map, slide 1

im Studium und als Lehrerin

Mentales Lexikon

↓ Wortassoziationen

- ↳ auf
 - phonologischer
 - morphologischer
 - semantischer
 - pragmatischer Ebene

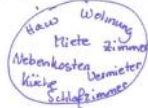


→ bei Verwendung der Muttersprache und beim Lernen von neuen Wörtern einer Fremdsprache werden Assoziationen auf all diesen Ebenen gebildet

↓
systematische Variation
beim Lernen

Vokabeln
lernen

auf semantischer Ebene
→ in Wortfeldern lernen



auf morphologischer Ebene
→ typische Wortendungen erkennen
z.B. bei Berufen
Informatikerin, Informatikerin
Elektrikers, Elektrikerin

[C.H.-K.]

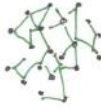
Klara concept map, slide 2

im Studium und als Lehrerin

Mentales Lexikon

↳ Wortassoziationen

- ↳ auf
 - phonologischer
 - morphologischer
 - semantischer
 - pragmatischer Ebene



→ bei Verwendung der Muttersprache und beim Lernen von neuen Wörtern einer Fremdsprache werden Assoziationen auf all diesen Ebenen gebildet

↓
systematische Variation
beim Lernen

Vokabeln
lernen

auf semantischer Ebene
→ in Wortfeldern lernen



auf morphologischer Ebene

→ typische Wortendungen erkennen

z.B. bei Berufen
Informatiker, Informatikerin
Elektriker, Elektrikerin

auf phonologischer Ebene
→ Wörter, die ähnlich klingen
aber komplett unterschiedliche Bedeutung haben,
hervorheben

(Beispiele aus meiner Klasse:)
Stunden u. Studenten
Küche u. Kuchen
Wein u. Wien

↓ visuelle Unterstützung, z.B. bei Artikeln



[c.h.-k.]

Klara, concept map, slide 3

im Studium und als Lehrerin

Mentales Lexikon

- ↓ Wortassoziationen
↳ auf
- phonologischer
 - morphologischer
 - semantischer
 - pragmatischer Ebene



→ bei Verwendung der Muttersprache und beim Lernen von neuen Wörtern einer Fremdsprache werden Assoziationen auf all diesen Ebenen gebildet

↓
systematische Variation
beim Lernen

Vokabeln
lernen

auf semantischer Ebene
→ in Wortfeldern lernen



auf morphologischer Ebene

→ typische Wortendungen erkennen
z.B. bei Berufen
Informatikerin, Informatikerin
Elektrikerin, Elektrikerin

auf phonologischer Ebene
→ Wörter, die ähnlich klingen aber komplett unterschiedliche Bedeutung haben, hervorheben
(Beispiele aus meiner Klasse:)
Stunden u. Studenten
Küche u. Kuchen
Wein u. Wien

- andere Methoden/
Lernstrategien
- Post-its auf Gegenstände
im Alltag kleben
- authentische Input hörst
z.B. Lieder + Filme
- Gemeinsamkeiten/
Ähnlichkeiten zu
Sprachen finden, die
man kennt

↓ visuelle Unterstützung, z.B. bei Artikeln

der Apfel die Banane das Obst

[C.H.-K]

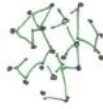
Klara, concept map, slide 4

im Studium und als Lehrerin

Mentales Lexikon

↓ Wortassoziationen

- ↳ auf
 - phonologischer
 - morphologischer
 - semantischer
 - pragmatischer Ebene



→ bei Verwendung der Muttersprache und beim Lernen von neuen Wörtern einer Fremdsprache werden Assoziationen auf all diesen Ebenen gebildet

↓
systematische Variation
beim Lernen

Vokabeln lernen

auf semantischer Ebene
→ in Wortfeldern lernen



auf morphologischer Ebene
→ typische Wortendungen erkennen

z.B. bei Berufen
Informatiker, Informatikerin
Elektriker, Elektrikerin

auf phonologischer Ebene
→ Wörter, die ähnlich klingen aber komplett unterschiedliche Bedeutung haben, hervorheben
(Beispiele aus meiner Klasse:)
Stunden u. Studenten
Küche u. Kuchen
Wein u. Wien

↓ visuelle Unterstützung, z.B. bei Artikeln

der Apfel die Banane das Obst

als Lernende

- in den ersten Jahren
 - Vokabelhefte und Karteikarten
 - ↳ Lernen mit Vokabeln in Liste am Anfang noch ok, aber bei steigendem Umfang nicht mehr effektiv
- später (ab 8-9. Schuljahr?)
- Phase 6: Art Kartei: kostenloser Program für den Computer

- andere Methoden!
- Lernstrategien
- past-its auf Gegenstände im Alltag kleben
- authentische Input hörst z.B. Lieder + Filme
- Gemeinsamkeiten / Ähnlichkeiten zu Sprachen finden, die man kennt

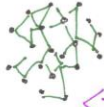
[CH-K]

Klara, concept map, slide 5

im Studium und als Lehrerin

Mentales Lexikon

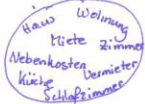
- ↓ Wortassoziationen
- ↳ auf
 - phonologischer
 - morphologischer
 - semantischer
 - pragmatischer Ebene



→ bei Verwendung der Muttersprache und beim Lernen von neuen Wörtern einer Fremdsprache werden Assoziationen auf all diesen Ebenen gebildet

↓
systematische Variation beim Lernen

auf semantischer Ebene
→ in Wortfeldern lernen



auf morphologischer Ebene
→ typische Wortendungen erkennen

z.B. bei Berufen
Informatiker, Informatikerin
Elektriker, Elektrikerin

auf phonologischer Ebene
→ Wörter, die ähnlich klingen aber komplett unterschiedliche Bedeutung haben, hervorheben

(Beispiele aus meiner Klasse:)
Stunden u. Studenten
Küche u. Kuchen
Wein u. Wien

visuelle Unterstützung, z.B. bei Artikeln

der Apfel die Banane das Obst
Farben und Bilder

Handlungsorientierung

Vokabeln lernen

als Lernende

- in den ersten Jahren
 - Vokabelhefte und Karteikarten
 - ↳ Lernen mit Vokabeln in Liste
 - am Anfang noch ok, aber bei steigendem Umfang nicht mehr effektiv
- später (ab 8-9. Schuljahr?)
 - Phase 6: Art Kartei: Lastenlernprogramm für den Computer
- + genaues Lernen: bei nur einem Rechtschreibfehler kommt Wort wieder in Anfangskategorie
- Motivation nimmt leicht ab, wenn Computer sitzen, immer gleicher Ablauf

⇒ effektivstes Lernen in authentischer Lernumgebung

- andere Methoden!

- Lernstrategien
- post its auf Gegenstände im Alltag kleben
- authentische Input
- z.B. Lieder + Filme
- Gemeinsamkeiten
- Ähnlichkeiten zu Sprachen finden, die man kennt

z.B. - im Ausland im Supermarkt
- in Situationen, in denen man etwas braucht
- durch Musik und Filme, insbesondere durch Wunsch Songtexte zu verstehen, durch Eigenmotivation unbekannte Wörter nachschlagen

Verknüpfen von Lernen und Handeln/ Aktivitäten

z.B. man möchte etwas kochen, also benötigt man das entsprechende Vokabular, z.B. Topf, anbraten, rühen, etc.

→ durch das eigene Handeln ist die Wahrscheinlichkeit, dass man die Wörter behält, größer

[C.H.-K.]

Klara concept map slide 6

Appendix I

Concept Map discussion Klara, 35:32 Learning with the computer software *Phase 6*

359	35:32.7 - 35:41.3	(..) du hast hier geschrieben so eine art karteikarte lernprogramm für den computer	interviewer
360	35:41.3 - 35:42.5	ja (.) phase sechs	Klara
361	35:42.5 - 35:43.4	phase sechs	interviewer
362	35:43.3 - 35:44.0	kennst du das	Klara
363	35:43.6 - 35:47.2	ja davon habe ich gehört	interviewer
364	35:44.0 - 35:45.7	das haben wir dann irgendwann wurde das dann bei uns an der ganzen schule eingeführt	Klara
365	35:47.2 - 35:49.7	also jeder schüler hat das bekommen	
366	35:49.7 - 35:52.4	das computerprogramm (.) und es wurde halt empfohlen	
367	35:52.4 - 36:02.2	und auch so dass (...) uhhh (..) auch bei der hausaufgabe einfach da vokabeln vom neuen chapter lernen	
368	36:02.2 - 36:08.0	und wenn das kontrolliert wurde konnte man entweder das vokabelheft zeigen oder die ausgedruckte liste aus phase sechs	
369	36:07.9 - 36:13.2	also das war wurde dann akzeptiert als vokabel lernen hausaufgabe so	
370	36:13.2 - 36:16.2	uhm (.) und was ich dann gut fand war das genaue lernen	
371	36:16.2 - 36:28.4	also (.) wenn man nur einen rechtschreibfehler gemacht hat oder bei in französisch nur einen akzent falsch gemacht hat [draws an accent on page] kam das kam die (.) äh kam das wort immer wieder	
372	36:28.3 - 36:30.1	also (.) in die erste kategorie zurück	
373	36:30.0 - 36:32.2	also musste man damit komplett von vorne anfangen	
374	36:32.1 - 36:37.0	und das hat so genervt dass man dann genau hingeguckt hat	
375	36:37.0 - 36:43.3	weil (.) uhhh man das nicht wollte	
376	36:43.2 - 36:45.5	aber ich hab irgendwann das aufgehört	

377	36:45.4 - 36:48.5	also weil mich also irgendwann war mir das zu blöd mit dem programm	
378	36:48.5 - 36:52.0	das habe ich dann halt hier auch als minus geschrieben [Klara points to an entry on the concept map]	
379	36:51.9 - 36:58.1	die motivation nimmt halt ab weil man nimmt dann immer nur ein wort von der linken seite und schreibt dann auf der rechten seite die übersetzung	
380	36:58.1 - 37:01.6	ohne kontext zum beispiel	
381	37:01.6 - 37:06.0	und es ist immer nur klick schreiben klick schreiben	

Appendix J

Concept Map discussion Klara, 43:41, Working with the dictionary

452	43:41.0 - 43:46.2	das war halt (..) also ich fand unser englischunterricht in der oberstufe war schon halt auf sehr hohem niveau	
453	43:46.2 - 44:01.7	also (.) da ging es oft gar nicht mehr so sehr um die neuen vokabeln	
454	44:01.7 - 44:16.7	uhmm (..) uhmm ja (..) ich überlege gerade da wir haben über (.) ähm wir haben (.) romane interpretiert und shakespeare gelesen	
455	44:16.6 - 44:19.3	habt ihr mit dem wörterbuch gearbeitet dann	interviewer
456	44:19.2 - 44:20.9	ja (.) genau	Klara
457	44:20.9 - 44:29.9	also (.) das war wir waren das war schon ein recht hohes niveau und sehr viel selbstständigkeit wurde erwartet	
458	44:29.8 - 44:36.6	also (.) es ging gar nicht so oft um darum dass sie uns vokabeln erklärt hat	
459	44:36.6 - 44:40.4	es war eher ja man weiß ein wort nicht guckt man halt im wörterbuch nach	
460	44:40.3 - 44:47.5	was wir schon da gemacht haben ist so dass sie mal mit uns geübt hat wie man im wörterbuch nachguckt	

Appendix K

Stimulated recall session Jana, 24:03, How students cope with monolingual input

125	24:03,1 - 24:11,3	also das zur einsprachigkeit (..) was hast du denn fürn gefühl gehen die studenten damit um	interviewer
126	24:11,3 - 24:17,5	das kommt ganz auf den typ an das gibt ja (.) also es gibt halt (.) uhm (.) es gibt ja so verschieden sprachen	Jana
127	24:17,5 - 24:28,9	lerntypen (.) und man kann das auch nicht standardisieren man kann irgendwie (.) nie generalisieren was (.) uhm ne bessere taktik ist praktisch praktisch aber man kann dann natürlich nichts finden	
128	24:18,1 - 24:23,1	(...)	
129	24:28,9 - 24:35,1	das ist es ja [gesture: rubs collar bone] ja bei schülern die lernen ja ja alle unterschiedlich und ich merke dass es die gibt die die da wirklich	
130	24:35,0 - 24:39,2	spaß dran haben zu knobeln (.) und denen für die das wirklich son spiel ist	
131	24:39,1 - 24:45,8	diese die die fremdprache denen das total spaß macht und die dann auch versuchen so möglichst so alles auf deutsch zu sagen	
132	24:45,1 - 24:48,1	(..)	
133	24:48,7 - 24:53,0	es gibt dann halt auch die eher auswendig lerner die (.) uhm sich lieber zuhause hinsetzen und vokabeln lernen und schreiben	
134	24:53,0 - 25:02,4	und denen macht es eher angst wenn sie dasitzen und wenig verstehen aber (...) uhm die sind(.) in der minderheit auf jeden fall	
135	25:02,3 - 25:06,6	aber es gibt son paar wo ich dann das gefühl habe die sind total überfordert [gesture: quick shake of her head] wenn ich die anspreche	

Appendix L

Stimulated recall 1, Jana, 38:48, corrective feedback

267	38:48,8 - 38:59,2	und (..) wenn sies falsch aussprechen sag ich nie (.) das ist falsch	Jana
268	38:59,2 - 39:03,4	sondern wenn ich merke sie sprechen es sehr falsch aus dann wiederhole ichs noch zweimal richtig	
269	39:03,4 - 39:07,4	und wenn sie hat bügelisen gesagt ja richtig das bügeleisen [gesture and tone of voice emphasize]	
270	39:07,4 - 39:15,6	um das nochmal deutlich zu machen ohne (.) äh (.) explizit zu erwähnen dass es falsch war weil das so demotivierend ist	

Concept Map discussion, Jana, 20:29, negative experience of error correction

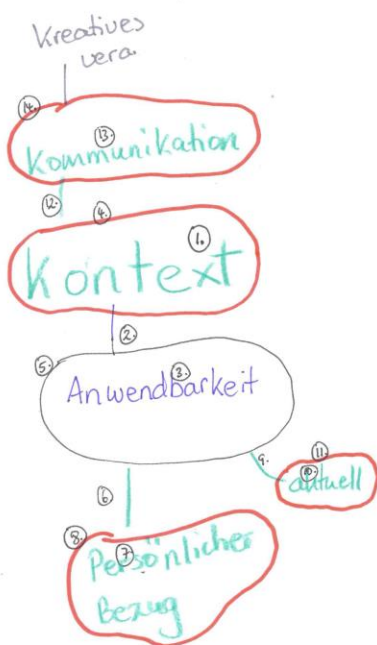
192	20:29,5 - 20:37,9	tja (.) meine französischlehrerin die jede kleinigkeit verbessert hat	Jana
193	20:37,8 - 20:56,0	uhmm was sehr discouraging was sehr uhm entmutigend war uhm also sie hat wirklich dann bei jedem winzigen jedem winzigen fehler den man gemacht hat hat sie sofort immer halt stop und hat dann hat korrigiert	
194	20:56,0 - 21:05,7	und das ist was was ich persönlich auch nicht so gut finde weil es erst mal wichtig ist dass man die vokabel im kontext einigermaßen anwenden kann und dann würde ich auf richtigkeit gucken	
195	21:05,7 - 21:15,9	und wenn es ein großer fehler ist dann verbessern	

		<p>aber sie hat es halt sie hat wirklich bei jedem kleinen betonungsfehler und bei jeder kleinen endung die irgendwie nicht ganz richtig war</p>	
196	21:15,8 - 21:21,7	<p>sie hat sofort uhm in jedem satz mindestens zehnmal stop gesagt</p>	
197	21:21,7 - 21:32,0	<p>ja also dieses auch wieder die betonung nicht dass es dass es nicht dass es nicht wichtig ist dass man es anwenden kann sondern bei ihr war es halt hundertprozentig richtig</p>	

Appendix M

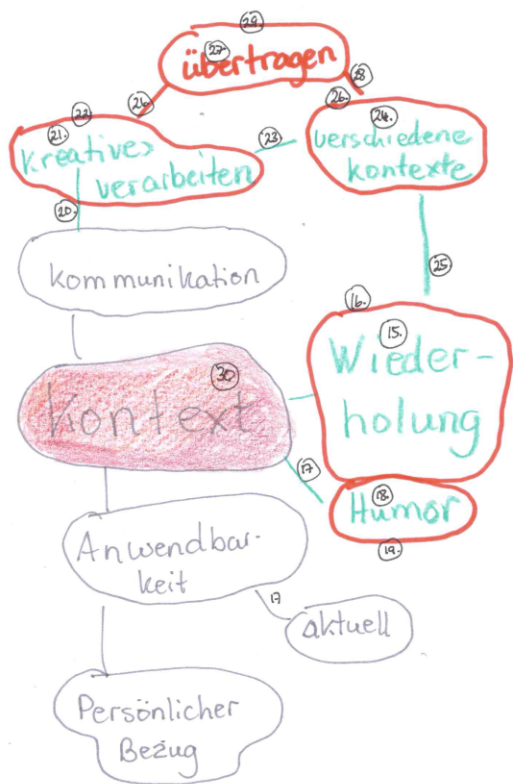
Jana's Concept map drawing

Jana makes many moves in her drawing process, returning to an entry, highlighting it, circling it, and colouring it. In order to make sense of these steps as her drawing evolves, her movements have been numbered. Furthermore, only the parts added on a particular slide are in colour.



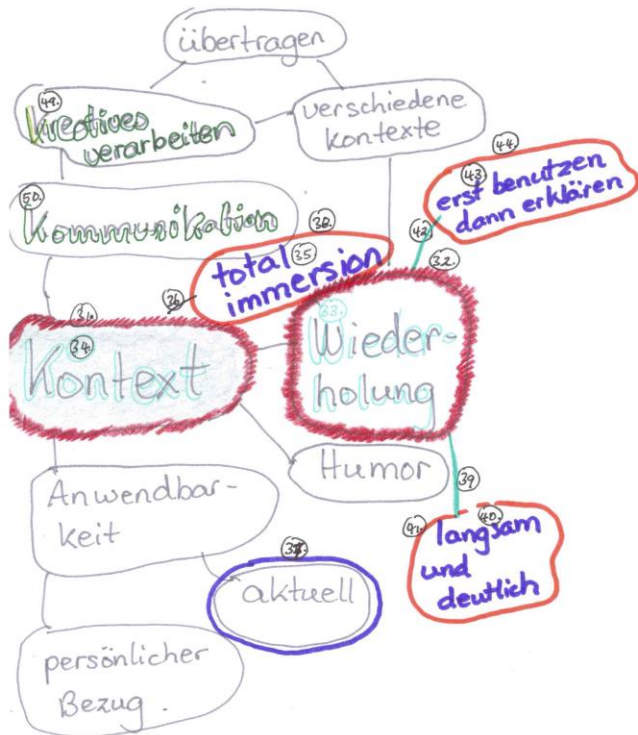
[cm.]-[]

Jana Concept map, slide 1



[CH-J-2]

Jana, Concept map, slide 2

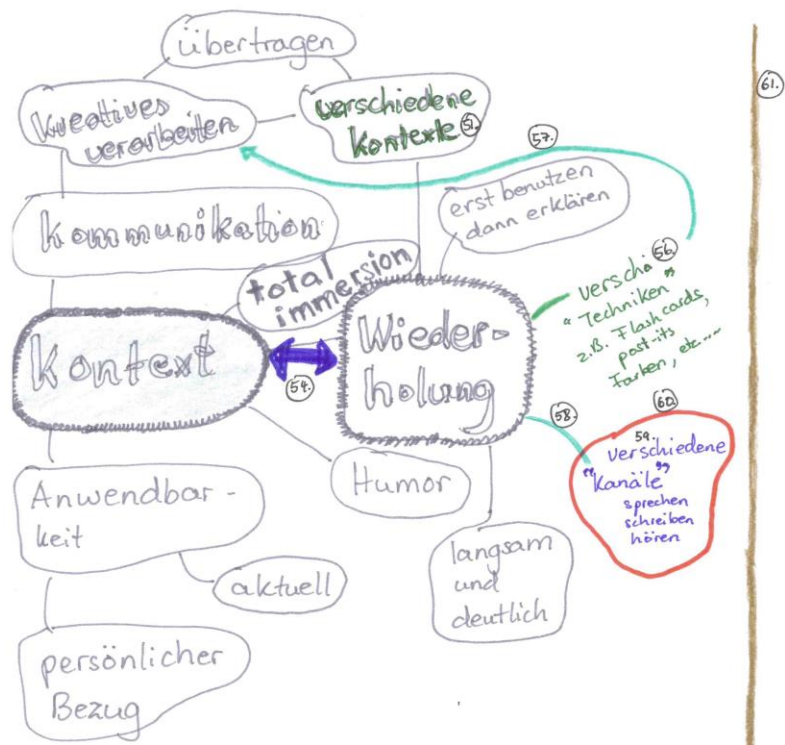





 = Lehrer

[cn-j-3]

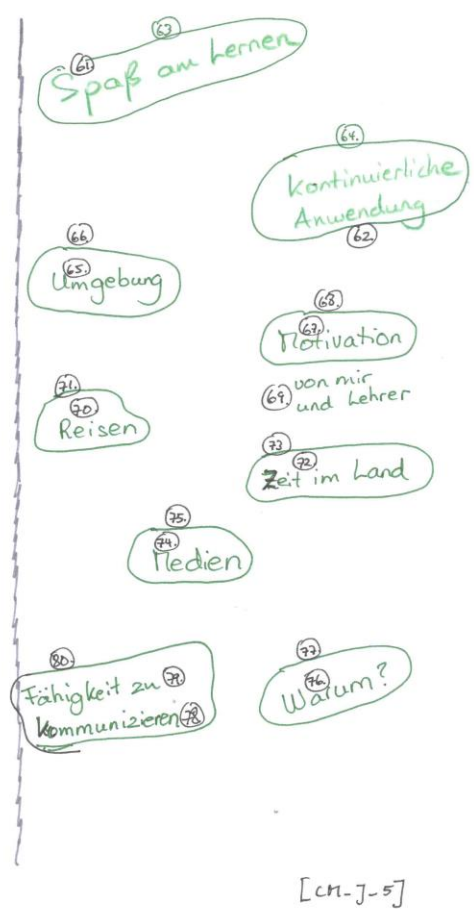
Jana, Concept map, slide 3



 = Lehrer
 = Schüler

[Ch.-] - 4]

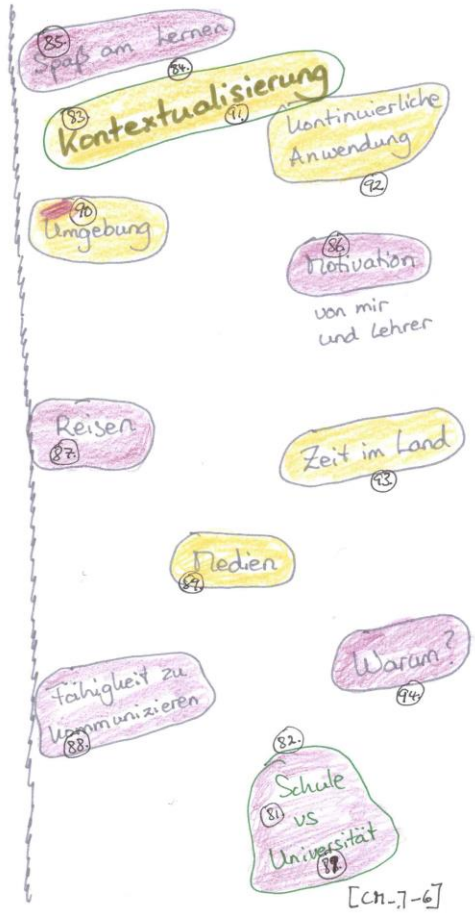
Jana, Concept map, slide 4



Jana, Concept map, slide 5



■ = Lehrer
 ■ = Schüler



[Ch.-7-6]

Jana, concept map, slide 6

Appendix N

Sofia's concept map drawing

The individual steps have been numbered. Furthermore, only the parts added on a particular slide are in colour.

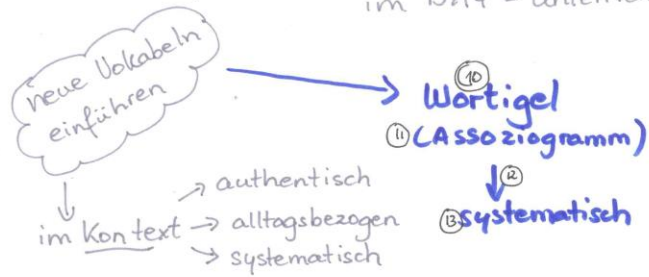
Slide 1



CH-S ①

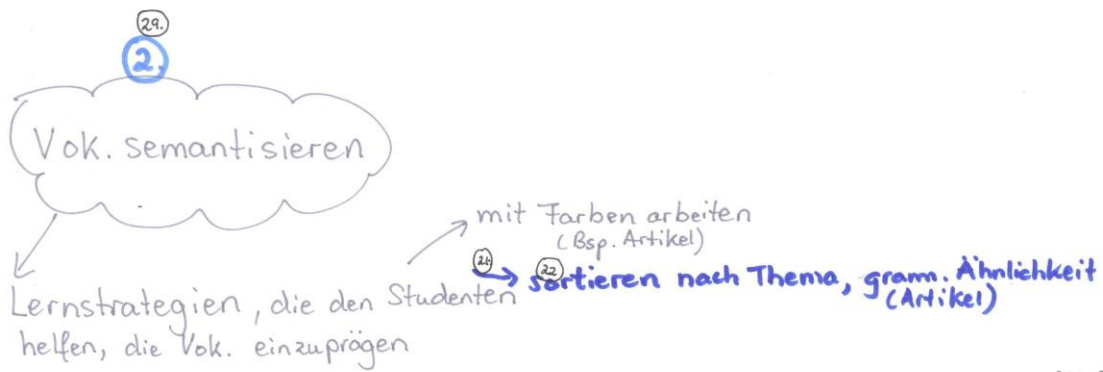
Slide 2

Vokabelarbeit
im DAF - Unterricht



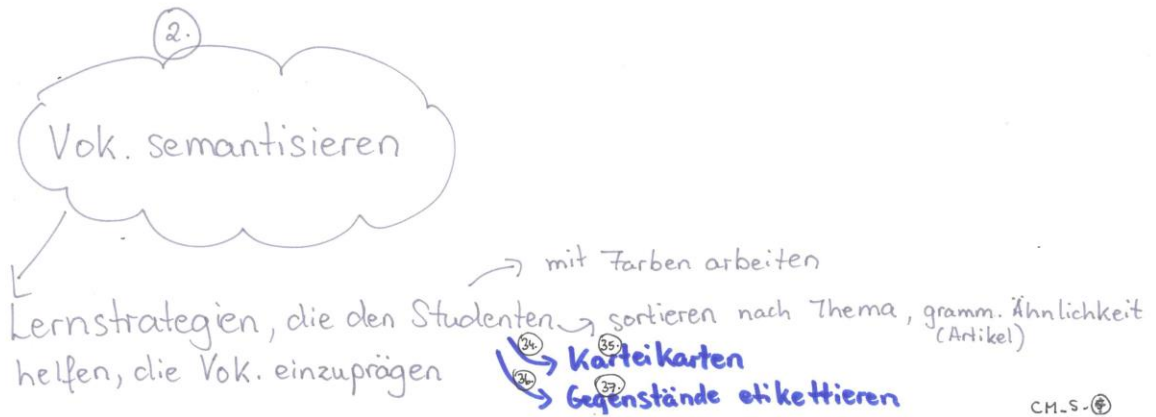
CH-S-②

Slide 3



CH 9-12

Slide 4



CM-S-Ⓢ

Appendix O

Screenshots

Stimulated recall, Jana, 19:18



Classroom observation 1 Jana, 32:48



291	32:48,7 - 32:51,8	ich möchte ein tisch kaufen [gesture: leans forward as if handing over money]	Jana
-----	-------------------	---	------

Classroom observation, Jana, the "Kijiji moment"



As the classroom interaction on buying things at a fleamarket continues, we see that the students' difficulties are only partly due to understanding the meaning of the key terms (kaufen/wo). Most likely, they result from their inability to produce a response in the target language. Furthermore, Jana is possibly triggering a schema (flea market) that some Canadian students may not share. This is supported by what I refer to as the "Kijiji-moment." As soon as Jana triggers this schema of a Canadian online site for used items only moments later, she has her students' attention. They laugh and complete the task easily.

Glossary

A

adjacency pairs

Term in conversation analysis (CA) referring to a concept of linked actions in an action sequence that provides a normative frame to aid comprehension. Seedhouse (2004) defines them as follows:

“Adjacency pairs are paired utterances such that upon production of the first part of the pair (e.g., a question), the second part becomes *conditionally relevant*” (p. 17).

apprenticeship of observation

This term goes back to Lortie (1975) who had calculated that by the time pre-service teachers enter their teacher training program they had been exposed to 13,000 hours of classroom instruction as learners

authentic language

According to Larsen- Freemann, D. & Anderson, M. (2011) language used in a real context.

B

BALLI

(Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory) This is an acronym for a survey on teacher and learner beliefs about language learning developed by Elaine Horwitz in 1985. Since then various adaptations have been designed and used in language acquisition research targeting ESL learners and teachers. I have adapted this questionnaire to provide a focus on vocabulary learning and teaching.

C

CA

conversation analysis (CA)

CA is concerned with recording, transcribing and describing naturally occurring talk in interaction and aims to understand what the organization of one's talk means. See numerous publications by Sacks, Schegloff & Jefferson. See also Seedhouse (2004) for five principles he puts forward for CA:

1. interaction is structurally organized
2. contributions are context-shaped and context-renewing (we need a reference to the sequential environment to understand utterances)
3. no detail is irrelevant
4. analysis is bottom-up and data-driven
5. if it is not in the data – we cannot discuss it in CA

Sacks et al. (1974) distinguish four types of interactional organization that can be analysed: (1) adjacency pairs, (2) preference organization, (3) turn-taking, and (4) repair.

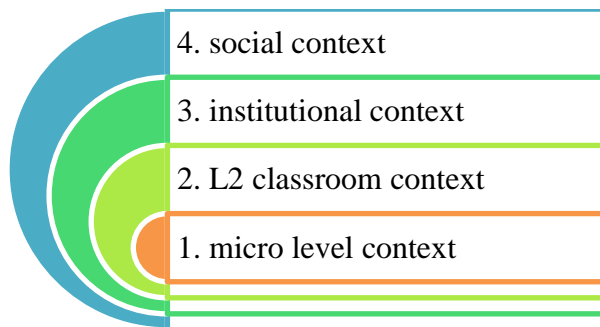
Classroom CA can be seen as a variety of institutional discourse, (Seedhouse, 2004).

choral coproduction

term used in CA refers to the matching of one's voice, words, tempo, or sentence structure in partial overlap with another speaker indicating agreement and wish to affiliate with the other speaker.

context

term used in classroom interaction. I follow Seedhouse (2004) conceptualization of context as a three-layered construct, yet prefer to add a fourth layer (social context).



Micro-level context refers to the micro-interaction meaning a particular occurrence that can be subjected to CA analysis of its sequential environment.

The L2 classroom context broadens our perspective. We now examine the relation between pedagogical focus and organization of the task. (e.g., how will the task setup differ when I organize a focus-on-form activity compared to the task setup of a focus-on-forms activity?).

At the broader level of institutional context we realize, for example, that the interaction follows a common goal – namely, to learn/teach the target language.

At the broadest level, we acknowledge that all of our actions are mediated and positioned on a time, space, and place continuum.

See also Chapter 3 for Nation & Webb's (2011) discussion.

conversation

This work is based on Warren's (1993) understanding of conversation who distinguishes it from other discourse types as

“a speech event outside of an institutionalized setting involving at least two participants who share responsibility for the progress and outcome of an impromptu and unmarked verbal encounter consisting of more than a ritualized exchange” (p.8).

This definition is important as it is discussed in light of the question if there is such a thing as genuine conversation as prevalent discourse represented in an L2 class (see also Seedhouse, 1996, p. 18).

COG (cognitive strategies)

based on Schmitt's (1997) grouping of vocabulary learning and teaching strategies, cognitive strategies can mean, for example, labeling physical objects. See also DET (determination strategies), SOC (social strategies), MEM (memory strategies), and MET (metacognitive strategies).

conceptual gestures

This term refers to Streeck's (2010) five categorizations of gesture use. See also indexical, directive, depictive, and pragmatic-rhetorical gesture use. For example,

conceptual gestures include scenes or role-plays as the manual construct of an ideational context.

cognate

This term refers to words that are similar in the source language and the target language

DA (discourse analysis)

DA is discussed as analysis tool for classroom discourse in this study. It uses principles to map sequences of speech acts (e.g., requests or commands). Coding schemes and coding systems for L2 classroom such as the Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) by Froehlich, Spada & Allen (1985) slot teacher interactions according to a list of observation instruments into specified pedagogical moves. Seedhouse (2004), Levinson (1983) and others have criticized the DA system of analysing L2 classroom interaction as overgeneralizing and inappropriate to reveal the complexity and fluidity of L2 interaction that has language as both subject matter and medium of instruction.

display question

Display question is a term used in classroom discourse analysis. It refers to questions to which the teacher already knows the answer. See also referential question, which according to Nunan is typical of genuine communication (1988, p.139).

DET (determination strategies)

This term refers to strategies to discover the meanings of new words. It is one out of five categories based on Schmitt's taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies. See also Schmitt's other strategy groups: SOC (social strategies), MEM (memory strategies), COG (cognitive strategies), and MET (metacognitive strategies). Looking up meaning in the dictionary is an example for this strategy's use.

directive gesture

This term refers to Streeck's (2010) five categorizations of gesture use. See also indexical, conceptual, depictive, and pragmatic-rhetorical gesture use. The purpose of directive gestures is to manage the behaviour of the addressee and influence their next action. For example, a sweeping upward movement with both upward flat palms invites addressees to stand up.

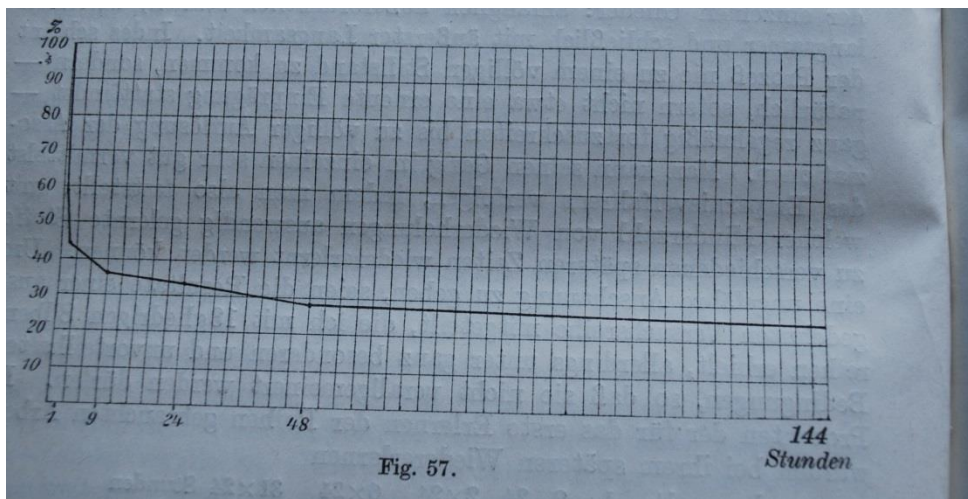
deictive gesture

This term refers to Streeck's (2010) five categorizations of gesture use. See also indexical, conceptual, directive, and pragmatic-rhetorical gesture use. The purpose of depictive gestures is to provide visual mock-ups of non-present objects, actions, relationships, and events. As such it is part of the narrated world (e.g., miming the actions of a server to allow students to understand the meaning of pouring a coffee).

E

Ebbinghaus' learning curve

Figure: Ebbinghaus' Forgetting Curve as shown in Ebbinghaus (1913, p.722)



exposed correction

term in DA used by Jefferson (1987) to describe a repair with the explicit interactional intention to correct. Often part of an IRE/IRF cycle. See Jefferson for more. Jefferson, G. (1987). On exposed an embedded correction in conversation. In G. Button and J.Lee (Eds). *Talk and social organisation* (pp. 86-100). Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.

embedded correction

term used by Jefferson (1987) to describe a correction within the context of a social interaction without drawing attention to the initiated correction. This also reminiscent to adult-child interactions

F

false friends

Sometimes, a word in the target language looks or sounds similar to a word or phrase in our source language but actually has a different meaning.

FFI

acronym for Form-Focused Instruction. See Ellis (2012) comprehensive overview of studies addressing research on focus-on-form and focus-on-forms. Ellis (2012) refers to his own definition from 2001a and describes FFI as

“any planned or incidental instructional activity that is intended to induce language learners to pay attention to linguistic form” (p.16).

See also VanPatten’s (1996) information processing theory that claims that drawing attention to language features in FFI activities would allow students to process aspects they would otherwise overlook. In the past, the distinction between focus-on-form and focus-on-forms has been widely discussed. Ellis (2012) now sees this distinction as problematic and suggests a broader definition for focus-on-form activities instead as

“the extent to which the instruction is based on a structural syllabus and employs traditional type exercises or is based on a task-based syllabus containing focused

tasks that induce attention to the target forms while the learners are primarily meaning oriented” (p.17).

G

graphic organizers

A term used by Freeman & Anderson (2011) referring to e.g., mindmaps, lists, and tables which structure and organize lexical items using semantic, morphological, and grammatical similarities and features.

gesture

In this text, any bodily movement that in some way conveys meaning either before, after, or during the speech act. See also the description of the five classifications by Streeck (2010): indexical, directive, depictive, conceptual, and pragmatic-rhetorical.

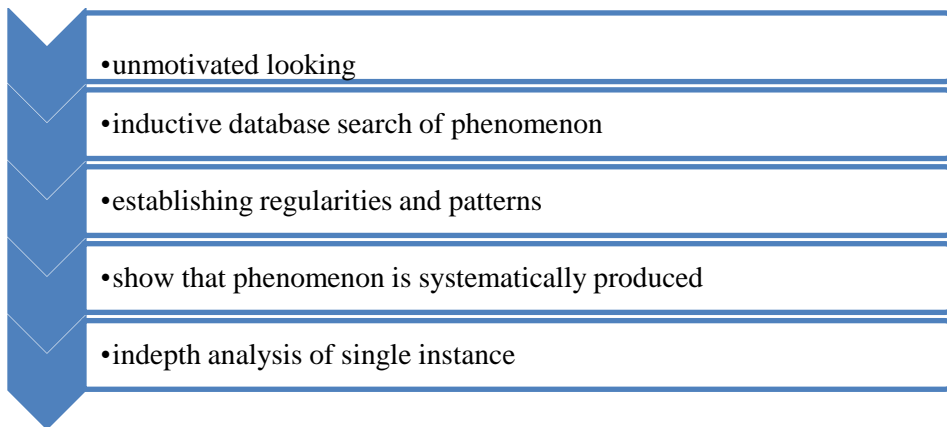
I

intersubjectivity

In this context, this term refers to a key concept of CA (conversation analysis), meaning “a mutual understanding or interpersonal alignment”, so that “we are able to orient ourselves by normative reference to interactional organizations”, Seedhouse, 2004, p.22.

inductive database search

This term is used in CA (conversation analysis) and refers to the scanning of a database in order to collect instances of a linguistic or interactional phenomenon. It is one of the following sequential steps.



interpersonal gesture use

This term refers to the use of gestures between two or more participants in an interaction. The gesture use can for example direct, refer to other objects or concepts, substitute meaning, or clarify relations. (See also intrapersonal gesture use.)

intrapersonal gesture use

This term refers to gestures a person uses that are not directed at another person. Instead she uses them to organize her own thoughts. For example, we gesture while speaking on the phone even though the other person cannot see us.

IRF – IRE

IRF – initiation- response- feedback (British term)

IRE – initiation – response – evaluation (American term)

According to Sinclair & Coulthard (1975), these terms are used to describe a typical three-part sequence in teacher student interaction.

instructional activity in L2

In this context, this term is based on Ellis' (2012) definition which refers to both materials and procedures in class. Ellis defines four “macrooptions” and differentiates them as follows

- input-based options (e.g., input has been manipulated to target the feature by stressing or highlighting)
- explicit options (e.g., if the goal is the explicit knowledge of a certain linguistic feature achieved by either instructing it explicitly or implicitly)
- production options (e.g., fill-in-the-blank exercises: Das Kind spiel_ im Haus)
- corrective feedback options
 - implicit as recast
student: *Er ist gekommen Montag*
teacher: *Ja, das stimmt. Er ist Montag gekommen*
 - explicit as error correction
teacher: *Man sagt: „Er ist Montag gekommen*
 - input providing (e.g., metalinguistic explanation)
teacher: The past participle must be at the end
 - output prompting
Wie sagt man das richtig?[how do we say this correctly?]

inferencing

This term refers to the process of identifying unfamiliar lexical units. Haastrop expands on this and defines inferencing as follows: “The procedures of inferencing involve making educated guesses as to the meaning of a word in light of all available cues in combination with the learner’s general knowledge of the world, her awareness of the co-text and her relevant linguistic knowledge” (1991, p.13).

institutional discourse

This term is used in classroom discourse. Based on Drew & Heritage (1992) Seedhouse (2004) assigns it the following characteristics. How participants interact, what they can say, must say, and should not say, is conventionally associated with the institution. At least one of the participants adheres to these conventions.

input

I am using this term in the sense of Kumaravadivelu’s (2005) definition as the “oral and/or written corpus of the target language (TL) to which L2 learners are exposed

through various sources” (p.26). These possible sources can be *interlanguage input* of peers using the developing TK at various proficiency levels, the *simplified input* (e.g., as in textbooks) that has been grammatically or lexically changed to accommodate learners’ competence and the *non-simplified input* (also *non-modified input*) usually attributed to competent speaker exchange (e.g., TV, radio). Sometimes, the latter is also referred to as authentic language input (see authentic). Kumaravadivelu explicitly points out that input is not equal to intake.

indexical gesture

This term is based on Streeck’s (2010) categorization of gestures. The purpose of these gestures is to select, interpret, elaborate, and mark-up a perceptually accessible part of the world. Their reference is the world at hand, the world in sight or an ongoing action (For example: pointing at a cake “*Den nehme ich* “[I am taking this one])

See also the Streeck’s definitions for directive, depictive, conceptual, and pragmatic-rhetorical gestures.

ISH

This is an acronym for the International School of Helsinki (ISH). It is an international school authorized to offer an International Baccalaureate program for students aged 4 to K12. The student body represents more than 40 nationalities. Most students have experienced living in a country and culture other than their own. The language of instruction and the interlanguage between students is English.

L

language-centered interaction

This term in classroom discourse analysis goes back to Kasper (1986) who uses this term for actions aimed at identifying or practicing a linguistic form. They are also called form-focused or accuracy-focused classroom activities in contrast to content-

centered activities. The rigid lockstep approach of language-centered interaction with its pedagogical focus on the linguistic form leads to sharply defined communication procedures.

learning burden

I am using this term in the sense Paul Nation (1990, 2001) describes as the amount of effort required to learn a word.

“Different words have different learning burdens for learners with different language backgrounds and each of the aspects of what it means to know a word can contribute to its learning burden. The general principle of learning burden (1990) is that the more a word represents patterns and knowledge that learners are already familiar with, the lighter its learner burden” (Nation, 2001, p. 24).

lexicogrammatical feature

refers to the interdependence of grammar and lexis (Schmitt, 2002)

M

method

In the definition of this term; I follow Larsen-Freeman & Anderson’s (2011) conceptualization of method as “not a formulaic prescription, but rather a coherent set of principles linked to certain techniques and procedures (..) that have both a conceptual and an operational component” (p.XVI).

MEM

This term is based on Schmitt’s (1997) grouping of vocabulary learning and teaching strategies. MEM refers to memory strategies. For example, using semantic maps is considered a memory strategy. See also DET (Determination strategy); SOC (social strategy); COG (cognitive strategies, and MET (metacognitive strategies).

MET

This term is based on Schmitt's (1997) grouping of vocabulary learning and teaching strategies. MET (metacognitive) strategies improve the intake of vocabulary by planning and evaluating best practices (e.g., evaluating and deciding on spaced rehearsal patterns). See also DET, SOC, COG, and MET strategy groupings.

multi-word phrase (multi-word unit)

Schmitt (2000) uses this term to describe an item that functions as a single meaning unit. It is also used interchangeably with the terms lexeme, lexical unit or lexical item.

O

overlap

This term is from CA and refers to the condition when two speakers speak simultaneously for part of their conversation. See Schegloff (2000a) for the organisation of overlap and the rules on resolving overlap in the turn-taking.

P

preference organization

This term is used in CA as one of the four principles governing conversations ; (1) adjacency pairs, (2) turn-taking, (3) repair, and (4) preference organization. In CA it refers to issues of affiliation and disaffiliation in relation to social actions. Interaction can therefore be seen as trying to achieve social goals by affiliating with perspectives of the interactional partner with agreement being the preferred action and disagreement the dispreferred action. (See Seedhouse (2004, p. 25) for more information).

pragmatic-rhetorical gesture

Based on Streeck's (2010) categorization of gestures (See also indexical, directive, depictive, and conceptual gestures). Their purpose is to visually display and /or perform a communicative act (e.g., shaking one's head as a way of saying no).

pedagogical landing-ground perspective

I use this term according to the definition of Seedhouse (2004). It refers to the misconception that pedagogical aims are directly transferable into classroom actions.

PAD

This is an acronym for a German term *Pädagogischer Austausch Dienst*. This institution organizes teacher assistantships in other countries. Usually, these TAs teach in the public school system. In the context of this research, they refer to teaching assistants from Germany teaching at a Canadian university.

R

referential question (or open question)

This term is used in classroom discourse analysis and refers to a question for which the teacher does not know the answer. According to Nunan, (1988), it is typical of genuine communication. (See also the opposite: display questions).

recast

This term refers to implicit means to correct an error. See also Ellis (2012) on corrective feedback. The following example is a typical recast as error correction:

Student: He is come Monday.

Instructor: Oh, I didn't know that. So, he came Monday?

repair

This term is used in CA. Seedhouse broadly defines it as “treatment of trouble occurring in interactive language use” (2004, p. 34). CA distinguishes between

1. self-initiated repair (speaker prompts repair)
2. other-initiated repair (other interactant proposes repair)

This prompting then leads to either a self-repair or an other-repair.

Seedhouse points out that there is a reflexive relationship between how repair is used and what the pedagogical focus is. He therefore suggests to look at the other factors in

this interaction as well: (a) who is involved, (b) what triggers repair, (c) what are typical types of repair in this interaction, and (d) what is being corrected. In my analysis of the classroom observations these are important factors characterizing the teacher/student interaction.

repairable “trouble”

This term is used in CA and refers to anything participants think impedes communication. In L2 classroom discourse what is considered necessary to correct depends on the pedagogical focus of the activity. For example, an instructor may think it is not necessary to correct the wrong pronunciation of a word if the incorrect pronunciation is not impeding communication.

S

schema (schemata)

My use of this term was informed by Rost (2011). In the *Handbook of Research in Second Language Teaching and Learning* he defines schemata as “‘psychological anchors’, which create biases in the comprehension process. Unless strong enough evidence is presented to motivate the listener to ‘move the anchor’ the listener will assume that the speaker’s meaning is consistent with the schema the listener has (..)” (p.513).

SILL

This acronym refers to Rebecca Oxford’s Strategy Inventory for Language Learning designed in 1990.

SOC

This acronym refers to social strategies. It is based on Schmitt’s (1997) grouping of vocabulary learning and teaching strategies. Social strategies use interaction between

learner and peers or learner and instructor to improve vocabulary learning. For example, asking an instructor to repeat or paraphrase is a social strategy.

speech community

The use of this term in the present study is based on Claire Kramsch' definition as "a social group that shares knowledge of one linguistic code and knowledge also of its patterns of use. (1998, p. 131).

T

turn-taking

This term is used in CA. See Sacks et al. (1974) for a comprehensive overview of the organization of turn-takes. Generally speaking, turn-takes describe the sequence with which speakers organize their interaction. Sacks et al. have looked at the rules governing how people organize their speaker change as (a) turn-constructive units *TCU* (e.g., a phrase such as 'it is your turn') and (b) as a transition relevant place *TRP* (e.g., a longer pause). According to Sacks et al. every turn has the aspects of past (what led to the turn); present (its own social contribution; and future (providing a context for the next partner in interaction).

The end of a turn can be signaled by syntactic cues, intonational indicators, and pragmatic conventions. See also the implications an analysis of turn-takes has in the realm of classroom discourse analysis (Rymes, 2009).

target language

In this research I prefer to use the term target language to mean the language German being taught in the context of the language class. This acknowledges that instructors and students may be plurilingual (and German not their first, second, or foreign language). If I use the term foreign language, I do so from the perspective of the person I am describing (and only if I am knowledgeable of this circumstance). I refer to the common vernacular (English) spoken at this university as the source language unless I relate the language English to a specific speaker. Again, I do so, because this

Canadian university has a high percentage of international students whose first language is not English. See also Freeman-Larsen and Anderson (2011, p. XVI) for more on this issue.

textuality

Within the context of this research, the term refers to a poststructuralist's view of narrative inquiry not as the study of experience but rather as study of lived 'textuality'. See also Elbaz-Luwisch (2005) and Denzin (2007) for more on this.

W

word family

This term is based on Schmitt's (2000) definition as a set of words closely related in meaning. Usually, a word family contains a base word with inflections (grammatical affixes) and derivatives (affixes that change word class) (Schmitt, 2000, p.2).

Z

ZfA

Acronym for *Zentralstelle für das Auslandsschulwesen*, the „German Central Agency for Schools Abroad“. The ZfA is under the jurisdiction of the German Federal Office of Administration [*Bundesverwaltungsamt*].