
Toward a Socioliterate Approach to Second Language Teacher Education

JOHN S. HEDGCOCK

Monterey Institute of International Studies

460 Pierce Street

Monterey CA 93940

Email: john.hedgcock@miis.edu

This article proposes that effective language teacher preparation should facilitate candidates' access to the shared knowledge, discursive practices, and instructional processes of language teaching (LT) as an inherently disparate discipline. Whereas the reflective orientation widely embraced in North American teacher education programs should be preserved, reflective practice should be promoted within a socioliterate framework. The author explores the position that teacher education must be grounded partly (though not exclusively) in what is commonly called "theory," but that this theoretical dimension should be developed by systematically examining socioeducational practices. A genre-based, sociorhetorical approach to LT discourse, it is argued, can build candidates' awareness of knowledge-construction practices, enhance their declarative knowledge, and develop their professional skills. By modeling analytic and reflective processes that focus on disciplinary knowledge, teacher education can help LT candidates to shape their own professional literacies, enabling them to participate meaningfully in the profession's many conversations.

THIS ESSAY EXPLORES CONFLICTS AND DISCONTINUITIES that commonly arise in language teacher preparation. Its central premise is that conceptual discontinuities can be understood and tensions reduced by framing the language teaching (LT) profession in socioliterate terms (Berkenkotter & Huckin, 1995; Johns, 1997). Aware of these discontinuities and dilemmas, teacher educators and classroom second language (L2) teachers alike can effectively assess misleading assumptions about language, language learning, and language pedagogy. Given the trend toward imparting greater autonomy to LT professionals, such an awareness is perhaps even more crucial to the process of preparing novice foreign language (FL) and L2 teachers for classroom instruction (Kramsch, 1995).

The article first examines tensions inherent in current models of language teacher education that might compromise novice teachers' appreciation and understanding of expertise in the field. Following a description of socially-constructed

models of learning and apprenticeship, it will be proposed that the demotion of declarative knowledge of language structure and use, learning processes, and the LT field's theoretical knowledge base can diminish novices' chances of achieving maximal growth as professionals. The discussion will suggest ways in which teacher educators can present the evolving expertise of the LT discipline in accessible and relevant ways by approaching the field's received knowledge more mindfully and systematically. The final section will recommend steps for preparing candidates to participate actively in a data-oriented profession that relies increasingly on classroom-based inquiry in the form of ongoing professional development and action research.

CONFLICTING AGENDAS IN TEACHER PREPARATION

Assumptions underlying FL and L2 teacher preparation have recently come under scrutiny, leading observers and critics to question the value of some time-honored teacher education practices. Teacher trainers, applied linguists, and educational researchers have challenged the pu-

tatively theory- and research-based content of certification and master's-level courses, noting the disjunctions between academic curricula on the one hand and the practical goals on the other hand, that so many LT candidates understandably seek to achieve (Brandl, 2000; Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Kramsch, 1995). Empirical evidence has substantiated anecdotal reports that pre- and inservice teachers tend to resist theory and scholarship. Rather than viewing academic inquiry in LT-related fields as useful, practicable, or applicable, candidates may resist theory, arguing that what they need most is to develop practical skills. Even when the focus of their formal preparation is heavily classroom-oriented, candidates may still insist that their chief expectation is to learn how to teach (Gaudart, 1994).

Indeed, L2 teacher preparation programs have for decades required not only intensive target language study, but also coursework in academic domains such as second language acquisition (SLA), psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, pedagogical grammar, educational psychology, educational measurement, research design, instructional methods, intercultural communication, and so on (Govardhan, Nayar, & Sheorey, 1999; Grabe, Stoller, & Tardy, 2000; Grosse, 1991, 1993; Kramsch, 2000). However, Freeman (1994) claims that "there is no evidence, apart from anecdotal reports, that knowing these things makes a person a better or more effective teacher" (p. 8). In partial response to this perceived lack of knowledge transfer from formal training to clinical praxis, recent models have called for teacher education to develop candidates' awareness and control of operational principles for planning, delivering, and evaluating instruction (Golombek, 1998; Musumeci, 1997; Numrich, 1996).

The movement away from a training perspective toward an education or development orientation features reflective practices in which teachers systematically examine their past and current experiences as learners and teachers (Freeman & Richards, 1996; Larsen-Freeman, 1983; Richards, 1998; Richards & Lockhart, 1994; Richards & Nunan, 1990; Roberts, 1998). This shift in belief and practice creates a dilemma in teacher education programs and courses with a strong academic emphasis. Designed to promote teacher self-awareness and autonomy, models that prescribe reflective practice may unintentionally underplay the need for novice L2 teachers to study language, learning, and pedagogy explicitly in their preparation courses (Carter, 1990; Gaudart, 1994; Numrich, 1996; Tyler & Lardière, 1996).

The central principles of reflective LT and

teacher education can and should be embraced, yet effective teacher preparation must strike a fair balance in weighting its emphases. That is, FL and L2 language teacher education should value declarative, critical knowledge as necessary for, and complementary to, the growth of procedural and tactical classroom skills. Excessive emphasis on procedures, techniques, and self-awareness can compromise novices' prospects for transcending their regrettably unprestigious status as practitioners (Johnson, 1997). Perhaps more important, an uncritical, wholesale adoption of any reflective model at the expense of cultivating candidates' formal knowledge of the LT field's primary content seriously compromises the chief goals of teacher education. Primary content here refers to three intersecting domains of expertise and skill: (a) practitioners' mastery of their target language(s); (b) their knowledge about language in general and their target language(s) in particular (i.e., linguistic metaknowledge); and (c) verifiable facts and insights revealed by systematic inquiry into the interplay between language learning and teaching (i.e., received knowledge accessible to the LT community at large).

LANGUAGE TEACHING AS A DISCOURSE AND A PROFESSIONAL COMMUNITY OF PRACTICE

Teacher educators face the perpetual challenge of developing candidates' teaching skills while bringing them into the LT community, a discipline that effectively constitutes numerous subdisciplines with their associated social practices and elastic boundaries (Kramsch, 2000; Markee, 1997). Crookes (1998) and Freeman (1994) characterize LT as a Discourse, which Gee (1996) defines as "a sort of identity kit" entailing "instructions on how to act, talk, and even write, so as to take on a particular social role that others will recognize" (p. 127). As a Discourse, LT engages its members in contextualized, interactional patterns that can be examined and adopted by novices, namely, preservice teachers seeking degrees, certificates, and credentials. Taking part in the LT Discourse entails not only appropriating values, concepts, and "ways of being" (Geertz, 1983) but also comprehending and interpreting received knowledge (Wallace, 1991) as embodied in "public theories" (Griffiths & Tann, 1992; Jensen, 2001). In LT, ways of being and public theories are encoded in conventionalized oral and written genres that typify the Discourse (Berkenkotter & Huckin, 1995; Johns, 1997; Swales, 1998).

An exemplification of an influential public theory in the LT Discourse is the construct of communicative competence, which has been defined, reformulated, and applied by leading experts (see, e.g., Canale, 1983; Canale & Swain, 1980; Hymes, 1971; Savignon, 1997). These scholars have explained, illustrated, and empirically tested this construct in the field's written and oral genres, including training manuals, scholarly books, articles, conference presentations, workshops, and the like. Many, perhaps most, L2 teacher candidates are introduced to this prominent public theory during their education. Apprentice teachers are often expected to master instructional techniques explicitly grounded in the precepts of communicative competence (cf. Celce-Murcia, 2001; Fox, 1993; Omaggio Hadley, 2001; Savignon, 1997; Shrum & Glisan, 2000).

Public theories and genres represent tools used by LT professionals to acquire the discipline's practices and to gain credibility as qualified participants. Geisler (1994) illuminates this apprenticeship process by proposing that, in order to penetrate a discipline or academic community, aspirants must first know three "worlds." The first world, that of "domain content," encompasses the field's essential corpus of knowledge and its logically related concepts. In LT, domain content certainly encompasses all that knowing a language entails, for language is clearly the gravitational center of the profession. Admittedly, we lack consensus on what knowing a language means. Nonetheless, most professionals would likely agree that L2 teachers should be functionally proficient—grammatically, sociolinguistically, discursively, and strategically—in the language(s) they teach (cf. Canale, 1983). Linked closely to language proficiency and also a component of LT domain content is knowledge about language, alternately labeled metaknowledge and language awareness (Andrews, 1997; Carter, 1994; Palfreyman, 1993; van Lier, 1995). Also intertwined with linguistic knowledge and metaknowledge is what is known about language learners, processes of learning, and approaches to classroom instruction.

The second of Geisler's (1994) worlds, the "narrated" world, represents participants' daily experience and practice in the discipline. Candidates' backgrounds as learners and teachers naturally figure into their narrated worlds. By accumulating experience in the classroom, receiving guidance from seasoned counterparts (role models, supervisors, mentors, peers), and exposing themselves to the narratives of fellow practitioners, novice teachers expand their own narrated worlds.

The "abstract world" of authorial conversation

makes up Geisler's (1994) third world: Here, experts produce texts that are in concert or conflict with the community's goals. Understanding a discipline's explicit and tacit rules (as expressed in oral and written conventions, shared concepts, and values) is necessary for taking part in the disciplinary dialogue. In the abstract world(s) of LT, an individual's knowledge of and about language, profoundly informed by interactions with the language education field, is analyzed and articulated through conventionalized talk and written texts that serve as vehicles for communicating with fellow LT professionals (e.g., spontaneous hallway chats, formal discussions in faculty meetings, conference presentations, email messages, official memos, newsletters, research papers submitted in graduate courses, textbooks, etc.).

Lave and Wenger (1991) argue that LT can perhaps be most fully represented as a "community of practice." Like a discourse community (Swales, 1990), a community of practice comprises "practices and values that hold communities together or separate them from one another" (Johns, 1997, p. 52), as well as specialized genres, discursive modes, and language conventions. Teacher candidates assume novice status in that they are apprentices to new practices and structures of meaning. As they take part in the discipline, novices come to understand that "different communities . . . are quite distinct, that apparently common terms have different meanings, apparently shared tools have different uses, apparently related objects have different interpretations" (Hanks, 1991, p. 13). Apprentice teachers clearly need to develop a functional awareness (if not mastery) of the LT community's core symbols, tools, and operations in order to achieve legitimate status. LT constitutes a literate community of practice where texts and other tools embody its members' collective disciplinary knowledge and skills. For LT practitioners, texts convey crucial meanings and implicit value systems that govern apprenticeship, expertise, and status (Cook-Gumperz, 1986; Gee, 1992, 1996).

Representing not just formalized vehicles of communication but all forms of participation, texts and genres constitute *artifacts* and tools used by the community's full-fledged members in their activities, interactions, and decision-making. As they gain legitimacy among old-timers, novices develop a working model of the target community's tasks, talk, tools, and value systems. Newcomers gradually come to understand

who is involved; what they do; what everyday life is like; how masters talk, walk, work, and generally con-

duct their lives; how people who are not part of the community of practice interact with it; what others learning are doing; and what learners need to learn to become full practitioners. It includes an increasing understanding of how, when, and about what old-timers collaborate, collude, and collide, and what they enjoy, dislike, respect, and admire. In particular, it offers exemplars . . . including masters, finished products, and more advanced apprentices in the process of becoming full practitioners. (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 95)

EARLY APPRENTICESHIP: EXPLORING BELIEFS AND BRIDGING KNOWLEDGE GAPS

In order to ensure their survival and renewal, communities of practice welcome and apprentice new participants. In LT and many other educational settings, a now common formalized procedure for orienting novices consists of analyzing their existing beliefs, in this case, about language, learning processes, and teaching practices. Pre- and inservice teachers can be strongly influenced by intuitions, myths, and folk theories, which at times coincide with well-informed views and which at others fly in the face of axiomatic principles widely held among LT professionals (Clark & Peterson, 1986).

Teacher educators clearly must pay attention to such beliefs and attitudes. By critically examining their educational and sociocultural histories, it is argued, apprentice L2 teachers come to appreciate the complexity of the LT enterprise and overcome the inhibitory effects of belief systems that resist change (Crookes, 1997; Cruickshank, 1987; Cruickshank & Applegate, 1981; Freeman, 1996a; Pennington, 1995). Common techniques for activating reflection in the training context include oral and written exercises such as dialogue journals, reaction papers, and introspective questionnaires, which require students to articulate their convictions about language, learning, and teaching (cf. Fox, 1993; Gebhard & Oprandy, 1999; Richards & Lockhart, 1994; Schön, 1987; Stanley, 1998). For example, simple prompts for a group discussion, class debate, or journal entry in a methods or SLA course might include: "In your opinion, what are the primary sources of error in L2 production?" or "Explain the role that grammar study has played in developing your L2 skills." Stimuli similar to these can generate insights into novices' current belief systems and ignite focused thought and dialogue. The following belief statements were drawn from a sampling of teacher candidates' journal entries based on similar prompts:

The simple and basic parts of the language are learned first and then the more complex parts follow.

Nonnatives tend to mispronounce words and occasionally so do native speakers. Nonnatives are making mistakes because of lack of knowledge. Natives are making an error because of confusion about their knowledge.

Many nonnative speakers simply haven't spent enough time memorizing the rules.

If English teachers taught grammar as they ought to, we would have a much easier time teaching foreign languages.

It is better to learn a foreign language in the target country: Classroom instruction simply can't provide the necessary input or cultural stimuli. (Excerpts reproduced verbatim with permission.)

A number of these assertions exemplify convictions and presuppositions that might limit their writers' receptivity to the LT field's received knowledge and the beliefs of old-timers vis-à-vis issues such as learning sequences, sources of L2 error, the role of grammar, and immersion education. In working with such activities, teacher educators must be alert to beliefs that might be inaccurate, prejudicial, or counterproductive to working critically with the empirical data, public theories, and practices of LT Discourse. Indeed, philosophical clashes and standoffs are not only inevitable in LT apprenticeship but critical to the discipline's survival. An unsettling consequence of *social reproduction*, the perpetuation and regeneration of a community of practice, is that "the sustained participation of newcomers, becoming old-timers, must involve conflict between the forces that support processes of learning and those that work against them" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, pp. 57–58). Like their candidates, teacher educators (old-timers) must anticipate conflicts while remaining open to perspectives and conceptions of practice that may be unfamiliar and even contradictory to their own (Wilhelm, 1997).

Although tensions may naturally emerge, adversarial relations between newcomers and old-timers are not inevitable. In order to avoid devaluing candidates' existing schemata, experts must endeavor to understand and respect novices' beliefs and emergent skills. Teacher educators must acquaint themselves with the knowledge and expectations of their student teachers, even when the latter perceive the discipline's canonical knowledge (viz., empirical models that inform and mold current LT practices) as having little or no relevance to their practical development as FL and L2 teachers (Clarke, 1994). How-

ever, to achieve status as legitimate LT practitioners, novice teachers will be expected to familiarize themselves with theories, research findings, and instructional methods. It is the responsibility of teacher educators to guide this process.

Teacher education should thus lead candidates to explore, understand, and—when appropriate—challenge the values professed and practiced by experienced LT practitioners (classroom teachers, researchers, trainers, and policy-makers). This approach would not necessarily aim to replace candidates' existing beliefs or value systems, but it might contradict the wisdom of prevailing reflective paradigms. It could be argued, however, that an emphasis on the LT community's received knowledge and values would enhance candidates' progress as thinkers, teachers, and agents of change. In fact, such an approach would set out to show candidates how to move from a primarily intrapersonal perspective to an interpersonal and procedural frame of reference with respect to the LT discipline (Antonek, McCormick, & Donato, 1997; Pennington, 1995).

Similarly, focusing intentionally on linguistic and metalinguistic expertise, disciplinary knowledge, and discursive conventions would bring new teachers into the LT community of practice by providing incentive to develop a critical allegiance to a set of meanings that LT professionals value and uphold (Pennycook, 2001). Acquiring a new professional identity must entail appropriating knowledge and behavior sanctioned by the target community of practice. For example, LT old-timers may expect novice L2 teachers to demonstrate expertise in communicative language teaching and to display the corollary skills in their classroom teaching. Fulfilling this expectation and achieving legitimate status need not threaten a newcomer's preexisting schemata, private Discourses, or identity. In describing how novice writers become proficient at producing academic written genres, Delpit (1998) pointedly reminds us that learning to function in a dominant Discourse "need not mean that one must reject one's home identity and values, for Discourses are . . . shaped—however reluctantly—by those who participate within them and by the form of their participation" (p. 215). Like novice writers, newcomers to LT should be reassured that, whereas their apprenticeship into the discipline is constructed to equip them with the requisite "tools of the trade" and "ways of being" (Geertz, 1983), the process should also make them proficient in a wider range of discursive practices (Gee, 1992, 1996).

SITUATING KNOWLEDGE OF LANGUAGE AND LEARNING: DEVELOPING TEACHER AWARENESS

The approach described below and schematized in Figure 1 aims to propose a teacher education model that views linguistic knowledge, metalinguistic awareness, theory, research, practice, and intuition as interdependent, mutually supportive, and cyclically constructed. Course designs, classroom procedures, and assignments in teacher education programs would therefore feature not only symbolic and linguistic artifacts that typify the Discourse but also processes that operate in learning and teaching environments (Lave & Wenger, 1991). The teacher education curriculum and its apprenticeship processes should close gaps between novice L2 teachers' early (mis)perceptions and classroom reality. Reflective teaching proponents hold that examining the cognitive and affective aspects of learning a language enhances teachers' clinical skills (Flowerdew, 1998; Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Gebhard & Oprandy, 1999; Schlessman, 1997; Smith, 2001). Language pervades the socioliterate model of LT sketched in Figure 1, which likewise features what novices bring to the apprenticeship effort (*viz.*, learner processing capabilities). The model transcends the participant-centered realms typical in reflective paradigms by designating an essential role for received knowledge or domain content, which shapes—and is shaped by—the community's recognized discourses, genres, and transacted texts. The field's received knowledge, or formal facts, can refer broadly to the principles, theories, and empirical evidence used by legitimate participants to shape and justify their practices, whether or not those practices are accepted by peers in the discipline. We find formal facts reflected not only in teaching and research practices but also in the LT discourse's conventionalized written and oral forms.

COMPONENTS OF PROFESSIONAL LITERACY: KNOWLEDGE AND METACKNOWLEDGE

A formidable challenge in apprenticing newcomers to the LT community of practice involves enabling them to utilize and reproduce the discipline's artifacts—its formalized means of expression. The academic written genres that typify LT and its allied fields can be impenetrable at times, even to expert practitioners (Clarke, 1994; Crookes, 1998; Markee, 1997; Pica, 1997). In order to integrate candidates into the literate prac-

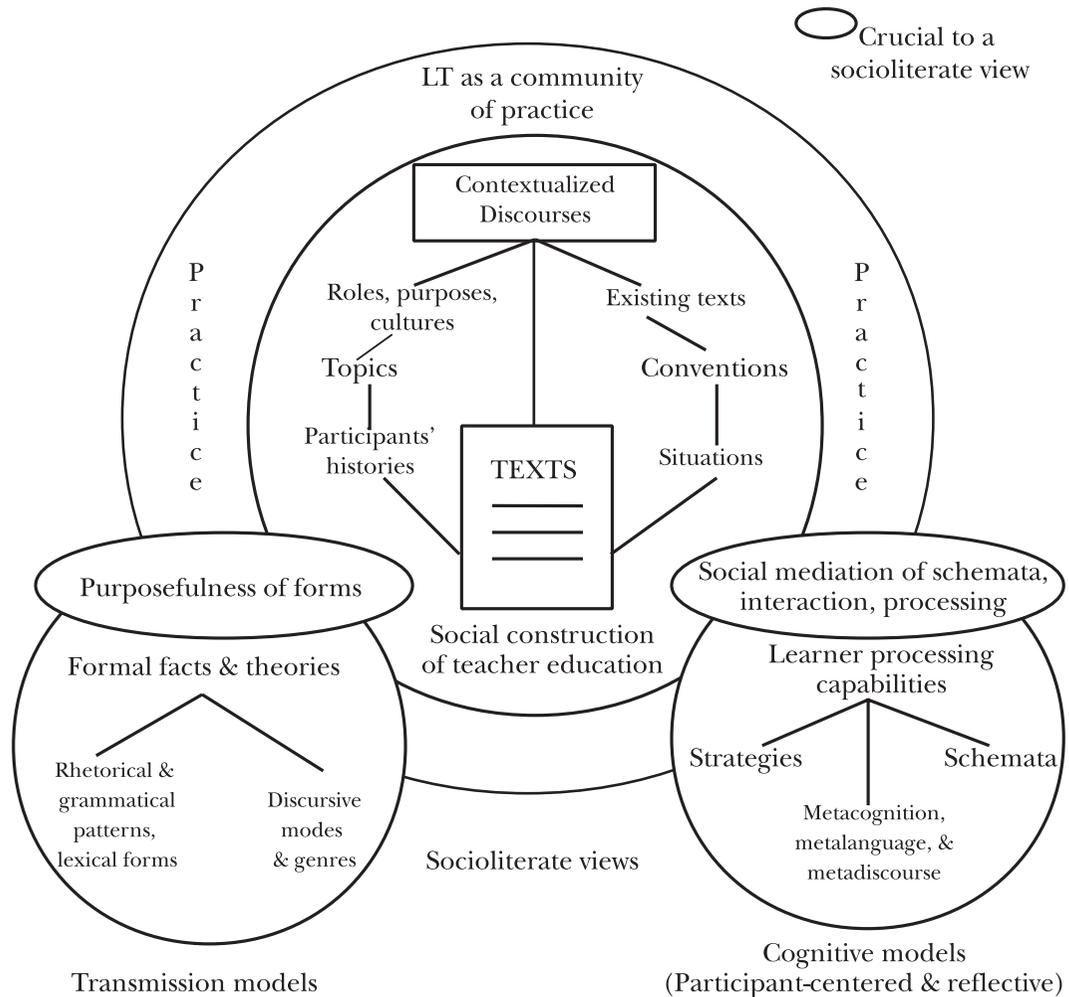
tices of the LT community, it is both useful and necessary to examine professional ideals and practices that differ from candidates' current assumptions and biases.

Teacher education sometimes fails to engage novices because old-timers and other legitimate participants tend to represent the LT knowledge base and the community's literate practices as uniform. Unfortunately, presenting any field as a stable, unified body of declarative knowledge is inadequate and misleading, because a discipline's practices, membership, and realm of knowledge are constantly in flux (Lave & Wenger,

1991). Freeman (1994) holds that to learn the behaviors and meanings of teaching as a social practice, "one must participate in it in some way. In other words, one cannot learn *about* it; one must learn *through* it" (p. 10). Freeman regrettably implies that "learning through" and "learning about" are mutually exclusive processes. A socioliterate approach, meanwhile, holds that learning about the social practices of LT precedes and co-occurs with candidates' learning through the community's contextualized discourses, as Figure 1 suggests.

Metaknowledge and practical experience, in

FIGURE 1
Schematic View of Approaches to Language Teacher Education



Note. From *Text, Role, and Context: Developing Academic Literacies*, by A. Johns, 1997, New York: Cambridge University Press. Copyright 1997 by Cambridge University Press. Adapted with the permission of Cambridge University Press.

fact, operate as complementary forms of expertise: Learning through the LT Discourse is enhanced by reflecting systematically on beliefs and prior learning, as noted in the previous section. Practice, in fact, permeates all spheres of operation in a socioliterate model (cf. Figure 1). In describing the acquisition of literate practices, Gee (1998) maintains that “teaching and learning are connected with the development of meta-level cognitive and linguistic skills” (p. 58). Elbow (1998) similarly holds that students learning to produce academic discourse “need metacognition and metadiscourse to help them understand just what these new intellectual practices are that they are being asked to learn” (p. 162). These needs are equally acute among novice LT professionals, for whom metalevel cognition and metadiscourse consist of the mental strategies and communicative tools used to think, talk, and write about language, learning, instruction, and learners (Freeman & Cazden, 1991; Ramanathan & Kaplan, 2000; Wells, 1999). Metacognition in LT may entail recognizing and evaluating cognitive processes that govern lesson sequencing, producing comprehensible classroom language, giving verbal and nonverbal feedback in teacher-student interaction, and so on. Metadiscourse refers to language used when a speaker or writer “is situated above or outside of her own discourse, and is in a position to control and manipulate it” (Fairclough, 1992, p. 122). Metadiscourse in LT can therefore include the metalanguage used to describe, teach, and exemplify language (e.g., *noun, verb, clause*, etc.) as well as the conventions we use to describe and engage with the discipline’s activities, participants, and tools. Terms such as *form-focused instruction, communicative language teaching, field-independent versus field-dependent learning styles, authentic assessment*, and so on are examples of metadiscursive forms representing some of the field’s core knowledge, including formal facts, as shown in Figure 1.

Understanding language learning and use naturally requires an appreciation of the most fundamental component of these processes: language (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1997; Carter, 1990; McCarthy & Carter, 1994; Musumeci, 1997). Nonetheless, teacher education programs may presuppose a working knowledge of how languages function or present language as a base of knowledge with distinct boundaries, far removed from the realities of how language actually functions in the classroom and the world (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Grabe et al., 2000; Johnson, 1996). In order to become truly aware of linguistic structure, knowledge, and use, apprentice

teachers must develop the performative (practical), descriptive, and metalinguistic knowledge essential for making informed decisions about curriculum, lesson content, and pedagogical procedures (Andrews, 1997; Crandall, 1999). Berry (1994) emphasizes the need for teachers to grasp the formal aspects of language so that they can cognize about what learners already know and have yet to learn: “It goes without saying that teachers need to be aware of which terminology their learners are familiar with and which they can use reliably in the classroom” (p. 63). In order to build their own and their learners’ awareness, teachers must master both the facts, or domain content (Geisler, 1994), that constitute the matrix knowledge of LT practice as well as the socially-mediated forms that encode these facts, as seen in Figure 1. Newcomers to LT must also display the knowledge that their learners expect them to have mastered. Novices must therefore be proficient in their target subjects (viz., Chinese, English, French, German, Italian, Japanese, Russian, Spanish, etc.). They must likewise become fluent with the linguistic and symbolic artifacts (the talk and metatalk) used expertly by old-timer LT practitioners (Andrews, 1997; Gee, 1996; Lave & Wenger, 1991).

In certain respects, making language study a central constituent of teacher education coincides with arguments favoring content-based language instruction (Nyikos & Hashimoto, 1997; Snow, 1998; Winer, 1992). Notwithstanding claims about the marginal contributions of academic preparation to teacher development (Clarke, 1994; Freeman, 1994, 1995a; Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Johnson, 1996, 1997), coursework that enhances candidates’ active knowledge of linguistic principles, systematic variation, cross-linguistic relationships, and learning processes can build among practice teachers a profound appreciation for the complexity of language and its use in authentic contexts (Andrews, 1997). Teachers need to be “language aware” (Carter, 1994); the field demands of them a working mastery of their target languages and an awareness of the symbolic forms transacted within the LT discipline. In other words, becoming a teacher entails acquainting oneself with the knowledge, practices, and codes of related communities that intersect with the LT discipline, namely, fellow educators, applied linguists, grammarians, rhetoricians, psychologists, and other experts (Kramsch, 1995, 2000; Yinger, 1987). McCarthy and Carter (1994) present a persuasive argument for making linguistic

and metalinguistic knowledge, in particular, central to LT apprenticeship:

Knowing how language works and how people use it is a first and *indispensable* [italics added] step towards deciding what shall be taught, and is one of the components, along with knowledge of the psychology of learning and the social and cultural contexts of learning, which feed in to how we teach languages. We cannot hope to answer basic questions about the form and content of [LT] syllabuses and materials without subjecting their raw material, the target language, to close scrutiny. (p. 3)

A call for formal study of linguistic structure, language use, and development processes should not be interpreted as an appeal for a return to a transmission model of education or L2 teacher preparation (Johnson, 1996; Wallace, 1991; cf. Figure 1). Not only do transmission approaches reduce learning to a process of content delivery, they run the risk of perpetuating intractable theory-to-practice transfer dilemmas (Edge & Richards, 1998; Freeman, 1994; Johnson, 1997; Musumeci, 1997). In a transmission paradigm, experts (masters, old-timers) transmit knowledge of a theoretical nature to novices, who transfer this reduced, declarative knowledge to practice (i.e., LT). The process of converting “knowing into doing” (Freeman, 1994, p. 5) is, of course, neither automatic nor fully understood. At the same time, LT novices require explicit and systematic exposure to fundamental dimensions of linguistic structure and use, as these areas of expertise are introduced in courses focusing on target language use, sociolinguistics, language acquisition, grammar, phonology and phonetics, lexico-semantics, pragmatics, discourse, and so on. Rigorous study of these dimensions of linguistic knowledge and use in no way precludes reflective learning or professional development (Grabe et al., 2000). As Figure 1 implies, the reflection and decision-making entailed in guiding classroom instruction depend on having knowledge of and knowledge about the subject matter, which operates in concert with the functional skills being nurtured. Meaningful reflective apprenticeship cannot take place unless teachers possess structures of knowledge on which to base their reflection, enabling them to link the emergent world of domain content with their own narrated worlds (Geisler, 1994).

An additional, though overlooked, point concerning the teacher education curriculum is that formal study may involve a delayed return on the initial investment. For example, candidates may not fully appreciate the benefits of understanding premises of linguistic description, social pragmat-

ics, or what have you, until they have worked as practitioners in the field, struggling with the day-to-day challenges of classroom teaching. Teaching learners of diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds and struggling with inadequate to inane teaching materials can bring about key discoveries, many of which can only be made in the clinical setting of the classroom. It is perhaps unreasonable to expect candidates to report “Eureka!” experiences during their formal apprenticeships, even if those apprenticeships involve extensive hands-on practice in the classroom (cf. Crandall, 1999). In fact, the realization that formal study leads to deeper awareness emerges over time, in subtle and dramatic ways, as teachers gain insights through their accumulated classroom experiences. A further benefit of involving candidates in formal study is the practice with problem-solving, critical reasoning, and analysis gained by examining linguistic structure and language behavior from the perspective of a language-aware observer (cf. Freeman & Richards, 1993; Oukada, 2000; Tyler & Lardièrè, 1996). As Carter (1994) points out, language awareness “assists in the development of interpretative [*sic*] and inferential skills” (p. 13).

Recent research unfortunately suggests that, due to insufficient linguistic and metalinguistic awareness, language teachers are often underprepared to provide the descriptive and explanatory information that so many language learners expect to gain from classroom instruction (Borg, 1998, 1999; Brandl, 2000; Crookes, 1998; Grosse, 1991, 1993; Ramanathan, Davies, & Schleppegrell, 2001). Some teacher educators attribute this shortcoming of teacher education to the absence of a singular canon of knowledge and metaknowledge. Freeman (1996a), for example, argues that teacher education needs “a *unified discourse*, a professional language . . . in constant use among members of its community” (p. 236). For Freeman, bringing candidates into the Discourse “means operating from a common view of teaching and learning—a shared set of socially constructed facts—which is made explicit in talk and action” (p. 236). Regrettably, Freeman’s appeal for a unified discourse perpetuates the myth that communities of practice and their discursive practices can be homogeneous and constant over time. In contrast, Lave and Wenger (1991) stress the dynamic and frequently unstable process of apprenticeship, which inevitably entails changes in a given community’s recurrent, core knowledge and its modes of transmission:

The diversified field of relations among old-timers and newcomers within and across the various cycles

[of apprenticeship], and the importance of near-peers in the circulation of knowledgeable skill . . . recommend against assimilating relations of learning to the dyadic form characteristic of conventional learning studies. (p. 57)

Like all communities of practice, LT constructs and regenerates itself on the basis of the “diversity of historical forms, cultural traditions, and modes of production in which apprenticeship is found” (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 63). Thanks to the complex relations among experts, peers, and novices, knowledge and expertise are not simply transmitted dyadically from old-timer to newcomer, nor is the “socially constructed” knowledge base (Freeman & Johnson, 1998, p. 400) necessarily packaged in a uniform or explicit set of forms.

Freeman’s (1996a) vision of a “unified discourse . . . in constant use” among members of the LT and teacher education community is untenable, chiefly because of the inherently dynamic properties of Discourses and disciplines that reproduce themselves. Certain practices, artifacts, and labels nonetheless tend to remain stable enough for the discipline to be recognized internally and externally as somehow cohesive. Although diverse layers of expertise and authority coexist and intersect constantly within the community, its members may share comparable reference points and social meanings for recurrent, core symbols and practices at a given time. For instance, LT practitioners of all levels of expertise may understand germane constructs such as *grammar*, *inductive learning*, *false beginner*, and the like in ways that bear a fundamental resemblance to one another. Similarly, diverse practitioners may accept mainstream practices such as creating meaningful contexts for communication in language instruction—though not everyone necessarily embraces such practices. Although subject to constant recycling and renovation, certain symbolic and behavioral referents used within the nomenclature of a community of practice constitute a matrix of shared tools and processes. At any given time, these tools and processes are liable to be acceptable to those who use them.

APPROPRIATING TOOLS: TEXTS, STRATEGIES, METACOGNITION, AND METALANGUAGE

In line with Figure 1, a primary means of developing novices’ functional awareness is to equip them with practical tools for grappling with the texts transacted by the LT community, which offer a rich yet underused repository of socially constructed facts in which values and practices

are socially reproduced. Social reproduction cycles “leave a historical trace of artifacts—physical, linguistic, and symbolic—and of social structures, which constitute and reconstitute the practice over time” (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 58). Texts for LT, such as course books, journal and newsletter articles, reviews, and so forth, represent linguistic and symbolic artifacts of LT practice, embodying genres through which professionals communicate with peers, novices, and even outsiders. Because genres “package information in ways that conform to a discipline’s norms, values, and ideology,” they pre-reveal their users and the community of practice where they emerge. “Understanding the genres of written communication in one’s field is, therefore, essential to professional success” (Berkenkotter & Huckin, 1995, p. 1).

Gaining Access to Shared Knowledge through Text: Reading with Awareness

Challenges faced by novice primary language and L2 readers parallel those confronted by newcomers to the LT Discourse as they encounter the LT literature for the first time. For example, candidates new to the matrix discipline often find written sources on theory, research, and practice to be incomprehensible and directed largely toward researchers—not toward classroom teachers (Clarke, 1994; Freeman, 1996a; Johnson, 1997; Kramsch, 1995, 2000; Markee, 1997; Pica, 1997). Newcomers to the LT community may thus be confronted with the acquisition of an entirely new literacy (Gee, 1998; Muspratt, Luke, & Freebody, 1997; Sheridan, Street, & Bloome, 2000). Although novice teachers may neither need nor wish to be apprenticed to an academic discipline as researchers, it has become increasingly important for them to become informed, critical consumers of the principles, empirical findings, and collective expertise embodied in the discipline’s literature (Crookes, 1998). Their careers may further require that at some time they participate in action research that entails working with their own operational theories (Gaudart, 1994; Gebhard & Oprandy, 1999; Rainey, 2000; Toohey, 1995).

Referring to that dimension of the LT discipline’s collective expertise known as theory, Johnson (1997) asserts that “theory can and will transform practice . . . if teachers have multiple and varied opportunities to make sense of theory” (p. 779). Congruent with the relationships sketched in Figure 1, Johnson further asserts that “theory has tremendous relevance for practice”

(p. 780). Novices should consequently be encouraged to view the LT literature not as monolithic and impenetrable but as supportive of their knowledge and practices. A means of dramatizing the research-practice connection is to expose and model for apprentices the intellectual skills that they may be expected to display for their own language learners (Horwitz, Bresslau, Dryden, McLendon, & Yu, 1997). A crucial skill for language teachers entails interpreting the texts used by legitimate members of the LT Discourse in order to perfect their craft. By reading the literature with awareness, novices progress to “higher level skills via . . . in-depth processing of information that leads to deeper understandings of theory and practice, more consistent patterns of action, and more intricate interconnections among facets of their practice” (Pennington, 1995, p. 719). The Appendix presents a sample exercise designed to activate the higher-level skills and deeper understandings described by Pennington (1995) as well as to lay groundwork for building candidates’ critical awareness of the field’s rhetorical and discursive modes (cf. Figure 1). The exercise leads participants through a series of text-analytic tasks as part of a workshop linking teacher education courses in LT methods, educational linguistics, and sociolinguistics.

Approaches to Critical Reading: Rethinking Traditional Dualisms

Leading candidates to undertake in-depth processing of information requires educators to alert candidates to obstacles that might block information processing and understanding. For example, dichotomous characterizations of knowledge, inquiry, and expertise—many rooted in the positivist tradition—pervade the LT literature. A number of these dichotomies can generate misleading assumptions, counterproductive to understanding the full complexity of linguistic form, use, and learning. The list of contrasts shown in Table 1, adapted from Carter (1994), represents a number of the overly simple dualisms that persist in the LT discourse. Such contrasts—intended to illustrate, inform, and simplify—can sometimes deter preservice teachers from learning about language and language learning processes, even though such learning may be essential to their intellectual and professional development (Carter, 1994; Freeman, 1996b).

A particularly damaging dichotomy confronted by future teachers involves the presumed tension between theory and practice, activities charac-

TABLE 1
Misleading Dualisms

Theory	Practice
Public Theory	Private Theory
Knowledge	Skill
Declarative Knowledge	Procedural Knowledge
Conscious Learning	Unconscious Learning
Explicit Instruction	Implicit Instruction
Learning	Acquisition
Performance	Competence
Product	Process
Accuracy	Fluency
Classroom Learning	Naturalistic Learning
Submersion	Immersion
Teacher-Centeredness	Learner-Centeredness
Prescription	Description
Use	Usage
Focus on Form	Focus on Meaning
Instrumental Motivation	Integrative Motivation
Etic View	Emic View
Quantitative Inquiry	Qualitative Inquiry
Hypothesis-Testing	Hypothesis-Generating
Objectivity	Subjectivity

Note: Based on Carter (1994).

terized as operating in complementary distribution or, worse yet, as antagonistic forces (Crookes, 1998; Ellis, 1995; Gaudart, 1994; Johnson, 1996, 1997). Clarke (1994) holds that the theory/practice dualism promotes a “dysfunctional” discourse between teachers and researchers that “tends to be authoritarian and prescriptive” (p. 9). Confronted with authoritative research and theory, teachers naturally align themselves with the praxis side of this putative chasm. According to Clarke, teachers are expected to take in the work of researchers and theorists as “received truth” rather than as propositions “to be examined and rejected or modified in light of their own experiences and needs” (Clarke, 1994, p. 13). This dichotomy fails to recognize the complexity of LT, leading to a tacit acceptance of relationships that are only superficially antithetical. It is no wonder that novice L2 teachers and graduate students accept the theory-practice split and similar dualisms at face value, consequently perpetuating this vexed relationship.

Whereas “there is a place for both theory and practice” (Gaudart, 1994, p. 96) in teacher education, the frequent call to “merge theory and practice” (p. 87) not only reinforces the duality myth but overlooks the underlying tensions of the teacher-researcher discourse (Crookes, 1998). In introducing the LT literature, apprenticeship to LT should encourage novices to challenge artificial dualisms and to “resist the advice of ‘experts’

except on their own terms” (Clarke, 1994, p. 19). Teacher education should similarly expose the ways in which LT professionals and the subdisciplines in which they take part conceal insider knowledge (cf. Giltrow & Valiquette, 1994). Critical reading, scaffolded by exercises like the sample in the Appendix, can demystify the field’s abstract world (Geisler, 1994). An explicit focus on the tenuous nature of theory can likewise enable novice teachers to approach theoretical and methodological texts not as definitive or authoritative but as resources for constructing their own operational theories of classroom practice (Almarza, 1996; Bardovi-Harlig, 1994; Pennycook, 2001). Freeman (1994) reminds us that “teachers need a mental basis for what they do” (p. 7). Because “teaching combines thinking and doing” (Freeman, 1994, p. 7), novices must therefore develop an explicit awareness of the principles on which praxis is based (Ellis, 1995; James & Garrett, 1991). The corpus of writings in applied linguistics, education, and allied fields offers a rich resource for teacher education, although this “disciplinary knowledge” admittedly does not automatically convert into “teaching knowledge” (Freeman, 1994, p. 8).

Genre: A Means of Access to the Language Teaching Discourse

A mechanism for stimulating mediation between the LT community’s writers and novice teachers is to equip newcomers with tools for predicting and comprehending the contents, agendas, and rhetorical structures of the materials they read as part of their coursework and apprenticeships (e.g., field practica, internships, student teaching assignments). The exercise outlined in the Appendix represents an attempt to expose and practice some of these tools. Although novice L2 teachers are sometimes exposed to principles of content- and genre-based LT (Snow, 1998; Snow & Brinton, 1997; Stryker & Leaver, 1997), seldom do we see these precepts applied to teacher education. However, a socioliterate, genre-based approach to LT texts can pre-reveal their rhetorical, linguistic, and lexical conventions, thus facilitating and enhancing novices’ reading processes (Berkenkotter & Huckin, 1995; Johns, 2002; Swales, 1990, 1998; Ramanathan & Kaplan, 2000). Congruent with the model sketched in Figure 1, genre analysis more broadly highlights the relationships among participants in the LT community of practice, opening a window into domain content that teachers can deploy in their own practice (Geisler, 1994). “Gen-

res provide ways for getting things done among readers and writers whose cultures and communities mold their literacy practices” (Johns, 1997, p. 15).

As a discipline, LT also constitutes a distinct academic literacy, complete with unique codes of communication that socialize new members into its literate practices. Purves (1991) emphasizes that “a great part of becoming literate is learning not only the textual conventions but also the conventional acts of a particular community and thus becoming a part of that community as it engages in the activity of literacy” (p. 62). Teacher education can initiate candidates into the literate processes of LT by examining recurrent, prototypical texts explicitly, as the genre analysis exercise in the Appendix attempts to do. Teacher education can likewise situate prototypical texts with respect to their writers, audiences, and contexts—in line with Figure 1 (cf. Benson & Greaves, 1981; Bhattia, 1993; Caldas-Coulthard & Coulthard, 1996; Hyland, 2000; Miller, 1984; Prior, 1998).

Common, accessible written text types in the LT literature can be used to alert newcomers to generic features. For example, whereas pre- and inservice FL and L2 teachers are usually familiar with the textbook as a genre, they may not have fully developed schemata for the rhetorical, linguistic, or lexical conventions of scholarly texts that treat LT subdisciplines such as language pedagogy, curriculum design, language assessment, educational research design, linguistics, language acquisition, and so on. Novices may be even less comfortable with the genres that LT professionals regularly consume and produce. These generic categories include abstracts, annotated bibliographies, research articles, literature reviews, monographs, textbooks, book reviews, conference proposals, grant proposals, position statements, and so forth. In order to break down affective and cognitive barriers to understanding and valuing these texts, teacher education should use them not merely to transmit representations of language, learning, and teaching but also to support and guide novices as they develop their own conceptions and meanings (Cope & Kalantzis, 2000; Rogoff, 1990).

Appropriating the formal components of professional texts is part of this development process, which entails building one’s rhetorical, syntactic, and lexico-semantic awareness, as hinted in Figure 1. Kent (1993) maintains that a text “provides clues to its own meaning, so when we anticipate a text’s genre, we begin to know how to interpret it” (p. 127). In order to adopt formal conventions and learn from them, novices clearly must engage

with and reproduce texts that approximate those that enable old-timers and experts to claim legitimacy in the LT community. Teacher education should therefore draw on these genres in designing tasks and assignments like the one in the Appendix, which aims to ground novices' learning activities explicitly in a socioliterate context, framed with respect to a specific audience, and presented with informed textual expectations in mind. This sample exercise, which focuses on a published LT text, might constitute a step toward ultimately constructing an authentic product such as a case study analysis for a language acquisition course, a data analysis report for a research design course, or a publishable quality book review for a pedagogy course. One of the exercise's central purposes is to highlight recurrent patterns of writing in LT; another consists of presenting ways in which novices might incorporate repeated conventions into their own assigned writing for the field. An additional, tangible benefit of interacting dynamically with texts is that the procedure helps newcomers to build and use their field-specific schemata and vocabularies. Freeman (1996a) appropriately observes that "using the jargon makes you part of the group that thinks about and acts upon things in a particular way" (p. 236). Like the sample task in the Appendix, bibliographic assignments, argumentative essays, research assignments, and exit assignments, such as comprehensive exams, theses, and professional portfolios, should not serve merely as gate-keeping tools; they should also be transparently linked to authentic functions outside the teacher education program in order to socialize novices into the discipline's practices. By collaborating with their fellow novices and engaging in collaborative inquiry, candidates can recognize options for participating in the disciplinary dialogue—at first peripherally, and eventually as legitimate peers (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Nyikos & Hashimoto, 1997).

The patterns exemplified in the field's textual prototypes "are social constructs, fashioned out of the . . . ongoing need of people to organise, control and hence make sense of their world" (Christie & Rothery, 1989, cited in McCarthy & Carter, 1994, p. 29). As such, these prototypes constitute building blocks for understanding and appropriating the written and oral genres of the field. Knowing the components of these genres permits apprentices to formulate inferences about the ideologies that drive them, to contribute to the community dialogue, and even to reshape discursive modes and prototypes (cf. Figure 1). "Learning the genres of one's culture,"

writes Christie (1985), "is both part of entering into it with understanding, and part of developing the necessary ability to change it" (p. 22). Precipitated by the integration of new members into the discipline, such change often contributes to the dynamism of genre, which "never remains fixed" (Kent, 1993, p. 127).

Genre Knowledge, Resistance, and Renovation in the Language Teaching Discipline

Challenging, subverting, and renovating the discursive code of a literacy or discipline first necessitates mastery of normative, prototypical patterns of meaning construction and communication. In order to engage in the disciplinary dialogue and transgress rules, should one choose to take that risk, one must first understand those rules as expressed in oral and written conventions, overt and covert. Johns (1997) describes rule breaking as a "minefield," because novices "first need to understand some of the basic conventions, concepts, and values of a community's genres" (p. 68) before they can transgress a discipline's code of conduct. Although few novice teachers may dare to stretch disciplinary boundaries, enabling newcomers to engage in the broader LT discourse should be a basic objective of teacher education. Genre analysis offers teacher education a concrete pedagogical tool for characterizing the dynamic ways of representing and transmitting knowledge in the field (Kress, 1987). Examining LT texts through the generic lens offers newcomers a means of participating in the LT Discourse and of revising their genre theories as they evolve. Novices thereby link the transmission and cognitive processes presented in Figure 1 (Dias & Paré, 2000; Kent, 1993). In describing genre-based writing pedagogy, Coe (1994) observes that apprentice writers must first learn that genres are "socially real." Furthermore, "one must usually adapt to (or around) readers' generic expectations" to participate fully in a Discourse. Novices should therefore "learn to notice genres, to make sense of genres, and even to renovate genres" (p. 165).

The complex process of appropriating genres does not come without a price, particularly when newcomers resist or renovate norms. The LT community's collective expertise is interpreted idiosyncratically by its diverse participants: "Knowers come in a range of types, from clones to heretics" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 116). The fluid, discontinuous character of expertise and its variable forms presents novices with serious challenges, which should be exposed openly by ex-

perts, including teacher educators. Newcomers face a curious dilemma:

On the one hand, they need to engage in the existing practice, which has developed over time: to understand it, to participate in it, and to become full members of the community in which it exists. On the other hand, they have a stake in its development as they begin to establish their own identity in its future. (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 115)

Through guided participation (Rogoff, 1990), novices to LT become alert to the ways in which genres reflect this dilemma. Newcomers must establish for themselves a successful means of reproducing and revising texts and genres. As novices develop their expertise, L2 teacher educators can create an environment suitable for guided participation by scaffolding academic and pre-professional tasks such as the exercise presented in the Appendix. In that sample activity, novices think, talk, and write about genres and are encouraged to participate in the field's renewal. Interpreting, questioning, and challenging—processes of social interaction and reproduction mediated by experts, novices, and texts—thus become Discourses and counter-Discourses in themselves, enabling apprentice L2 teachers to take in knowledge of the field for future activation.

BEYOND TEXTS: ENHANCING TEACHER EFFECTIVENESS AND DEVELOPMENT

The preceding discussion has explored the proposition that acquiring the matrix knowledge and discursive practices of LT can be enhanced by an explicit, interactive approach to the texts and genres that typify the discipline. Viewing the profession and its knowledge base as embedded in social practices represents a teacher education model that connects internal schemata with external texts, practices, and “ways of being in the world” (Geertz, 1983, p. 155). In apprenticing themselves to the discipline, novices scrutinize, reshape, and even rename the knowledge, beliefs, and practices that they themselves bring to it (Freeman, 1996a; Lave & Wenger, 1991). This mediational orientation is congruent with a reflective approach to teacher education and to LT praxis: It “goes hand-in-hand with critical self-examination and reflection as a basis for decision making, planning, and action” (Richards & Lockhart, 1994, p. ix). The following sections will outline ways in which a text-based, socioliterate approach to preparing LT candidates can promote their autonomy as learners, classroom teachers,

and action researchers, bringing them from peripheral participation into fully legitimate participation.

Classroom Practice and Teacher Development beyond the Teacher Education Course

It has become almost axiomatic that teacher preparation can be worthwhile only if its effects transcend the teacher education program to influence candidates' classroom performance and long-term professional growth. Freeman (1994) observes that “classrooms and students are not just settings for implementing ideas; they are the frameworks which teachers use for figuring out what to do” (p. 9). The L2 classroom and its learners provide a context in which candidates must ultimately act autonomously, deploying their disciplinary knowledge according to the parameters and constraints of the classroom ecology (Berliner, 1988). Transferring abstract, discipline-specific knowledge into the practices and transactions of the field is admittedly not automatic (Freeman, 1994). It can nonetheless be argued that producing text can serve as a vehicle for such transfer if we understand transfer as entailing two crucial factors: (a) adopting new meanings for what happens in the world (i.e., the classroom, the teacher education program, the profession; Freeman, 1994); and (b) renaming, a process wherein candidates “renegotiate the meaning of their actions and the teacher education program and . . . construct different, more critical, ways of understanding what they are doing in their classrooms” (Freeman, 1996a, p. 222).

Teacher education must minimally provide the disciplinary knowledge that will be transformed into praxis—that is, the formal facts to which Figure 1 refers. This disciplinary knowledge, or domain content (Geisler, 1994), should equip candidates with the means of transforming this knowledge into uptake (Pennington, 1996). Preparation courses and programs should, in addition, equip novices with strategies for reflection on concepts that “may lead back into other parts of the change cycle, to a consideration of interpersonal or procedural concerns, but at a higher level of awareness and understanding” (Pennington, 1995, p. 723). This recursive dimension of teacher development differs from prevailing currents in the teacher education discourse that downplay, and even explicitly minimize, the role of disciplinary content and declarative knowledge in favor of reflection, self-awareness, procedural autonomy, and decision-making (Freeman,

1994, 1995b; Gebhard & Oprandy, 1999; Grimmett & Neufeld, 1994; Li, Mahoney, & Richards, 1994; Moore, 1996; Richards, 1998; Richards & Lockhart, 1994; Stanley, 1998). In contrast, the approach to apprenticeship described here requires ongoing retrospective assessment of disciplinary knowledge (formal facts as well as domain content) as represented in sound instructional praxis and in the transaction of field-specific texts. A socioliterate approach also involves exploring the emergence of individual teachers' operational theories of teaching as they mature through experience (Freeman, 1989, 1994; Pennington, 1995, 1996; Roberts, 1998; Schleppegrell, 1997; van Lier, 1994). Retrospective and prospective reflection focusing systematically on declarative knowledge and clinical experiences can lead to a balanced integration of public and personal theory in the individual's professional value system (Freeman, 1995a, 1995b; Gatbonton, 1999; Gaudart, 1994; Golombek, 1998). It is through reflection, critical review, and assessment of the field's expertise that practitioners can confidently position themselves within the Discourse.

Contributing to Public Language Teaching Discourse

A major incentive for extending novices' formal and clinical preparation beyond providing compartmentalized disciplinary knowledge and mechanical teaching skills lies in the domain of action research, whose fundamental objectives are to expand teachers' understanding of classroom processes and facilitate positive change in classroom practice (Bailey & Nunan, 1996; Burton, 1998; Crookes, 1993; Ellis, 1998; Johnson, 1999; Kember & Kelly, 1992; Pennycook, 2001; Rainey, 2000; Wallace, 1998). Ultimately, participation in such inquiry propels teachers into fuller membership in a Discourse that values the sharing of discoveries and the crossing of historic boundaries between research and teaching. Texts seen with increasing frequency include teacher research reports appearing in classroom-oriented L2 publications. These emergent artifacts represent vehicles through which teachers may take charge of "creating a Discourse" (Freeman, 1994, p. 16). Such a Discourse, with its attendant generic innovations, may include a more varied membership than the current LT Discourse. Teachers have already begun to establish a Discourse within a Discourse (a community within a community of practice) where they are entitled not only to receive and apply new knowledge, but to generate and transmit novel findings them-

selves (Crookes, 1998; Johnson, 1997). Text production and dissemination represent only two means available to novice and expert teachers for constructing the new community of practice and for contributing more fully to the global Discourse of language professionals.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This article has proposed that effective teacher preparation should provide preservice teachers with a means of access to the shared knowledge and patterns of communication that typify the LT community of practice and underlie its processes of knowledge transaction. An approach to the discipline's expertise and practices that exposes and explicates textual patterns and conventions can enable candidates to develop an awareness of how old-timers—including theorists, researchers, and veteran L2 teachers—convey knowledge through print and oral media. By comprehending and reflecting on how the formal, conventionalized patterns of language, discourse, and genres reflect beliefs and ideologies, novices can more easily make sense of the LT community of practice, its participants, and its practices. Because the LT Discourse now appears ready to welcome and accommodate teacher-researchers, it is time for teachers to equip themselves with a broader array of tools for comprehending and appropriating discipline-specific information and for contributing to inquiry themselves.

REFERENCES

- Almarza, G. G. (1996). Student foreign language teachers' knowledge growth. In D. Freeman & J. C. Richards (Eds.), *Teacher learning in language teaching* (pp. 50–78). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- American Psychological Association. (2001). *Publication manual of the American Psychological Association* (5th ed.). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Andrews, S. (1997). Metalinguistic awareness and teacher explanation. *Language Awareness, 6*, 147–161.
- Antonek, J. L., McCormick, D. E., & Donato, R. (1997). The student teacher portfolio as autobiography: Developing a professional identity. *Modern Language Journal, 81*, 15–27.
- Bailey, K., & Nunan, D. (Eds.). (1996). *Voices from the language classroom*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Bardovi-Harlig, K. (1994). Viewing the student as a learner: Two perspectives for language teacher education. In D. Li, D. Mahoney, & J. Richards

- (Eds.), *Exploring second language teacher development* (pp. 71–83). Hong Kong: City Polytechnic of Hong Kong.
- Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Hartford, B. (Eds.). (1997). *Beyond methods: Components of second language teacher education*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Benson, J. D., & Greaves, W. S. (1981). Fields of discourse: Theory and application. *Applied Linguistics*, 2, 45–55.
- Berkenkotter, C., & Huckin, T. (1995). *Genre knowledge in disciplinary communities*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Berliner, D. (1988). *The development of expertise in pedagogy*. Washington, DC: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education.
- Berry, R. (1994). Grammatical terminology: Is there a student/teacher gap? In D. Nunan, R. Berry, & V. Berry (Eds.), *Language awareness in language education: Proceedings of the International Language in Education Conference, Vol. 2* (pp. 51–68). Hong Kong: Department of Curriculum Studies.
- Bhatia, V. J. (1993). *Analyzing genre: Language use in professional settings*. London: Longman.
- Borg, S. (1998). Teachers' pedagogical system and grammar teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*, 32, 9–38.
- Borg, S. (1999). Studying teacher cognition in second language grammar teaching. *System*, 27, 1–18.
- Brandl, K. K. (2000). Foreign language TAs' perceptions of training components: Do we know how they like to be trained? *Modern Language Journal*, 84, 355–371.
- Burton, J. (1998). A cross-case analysis of teacher involvement in TESOL research. *TESOL Quarterly*, 32, 419–446.
- Caldas-Coulthard, C. R., & Coulthard, M. (Eds.). (1996). *Texts and practices: Readings in critical discourse analysis*. London: Routledge.
- Canale, M. (1983). From communicative competence to communicative language pedagogy. In J. Richards & R. Schmidt (Eds.), *Language and communication* (pp. 2–27). London: Longman.
- Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics*, 1, 1–47.
- Carter, R. (Ed.). (1990). *Knowledge about language and the curriculum*. London: Hodder and Stroughton.
- Carter, R. (1994). How aware should language aware teachers and learners be? In D. Nunan, R. Berry, & V. Berry (Eds.), *Language awareness in language education: Proceedings of the International Language in Education Conference, Vol. 2* (pp. 1–15). Hong Kong: Department of Curriculum Studies.
- Celce-Murcia, M. (Ed.). (2001). *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (3rd ed.). Boston: Heinle.
- Christie, F. (1985). Language and schooling. In S. Tchudi (Ed.), *Language, schooling and society* (pp. 1–34). Portsmouth, NH: Boynton-Cook.
- Christie, F., & Rothery, J. (1989). Genres and writing: A response to Michael Rosen. *English in Australia*, 90, 3–13.
- Clark, C. M., & Peterson, P. L. (1986). Teachers' thought processes. In M. Wittrock (Ed.), *The handbook of research on teaching* (3rd ed., pp. 255–296). New York: Macmillan.
- Clarke, M. (1994). The dysfunctions of the theory/practice discourse. *TESOL Quarterly*, 28, 9–26.
- Coe, R. M. (1994). Teaching genre as process. In A. Freedman & P. Medway (Eds.), *Learning and teaching genre* (pp. 157–169). Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann/Boynton-Cook.
- Cook-Gumperz, J. (Ed.). (1986). *The social construction of literacy*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Cope, B., & Kalantzis, M. (Eds.). (2000). *Multiliteracies: Literacy learning and the design of social futures*. London: Routledge.
- Crandall, J. (1999). Preparing teachers for real classrooms: Aligning teacher education with teaching. *TESOL Matters*, 9 (3), 1, 21.
- Crookes, G. (1993). Action research for second language teachers: Going beyond teacher research. *Applied Linguistics*, 14, 130–144.
- Crookes, G. (1997). What influences what and how second and foreign language teachers teach? *Modern Language Journal*, 81, 67–79.
- Crookes, G. (1998). On the relationship between second and foreign language teachers and research. *TESOL Journal*, 7 (3), 6–11.
- Cruickshank, D. R. (1987). *Reflective teaching: The preparation of students of teaching*. Reston, VA: Association of Teacher Educators.
- Cruickshank, D. R., & Applegate, J. H. (1981). Reflective teaching as a strategy for teacher growth. *Educational Leadership*, 38, 553–554.
- Delpit, L. (1998). The politics of teaching literate discourse. In V. Zamel & R. Spack (Eds.), *Negotiating academic literacies: Teaching and learning across languages and cultures* (pp. 207–218). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Dias, P., & Paré, A. (Eds.). (2000). *Transitions: Writing in academic and workplace settings*. Cresskill, NJ: Hampton Press.
- Edge, J., & Richards, J. (1998). Why best practice is not good enough. *TESOL Quarterly*, 32, 569–576.
- Elbow, P. (1998). Reflections on academic discourse: How it relates to freshmen and colleagues. In V. Zamel & R. Spack (Eds.), *Negotiating academic literacies: Teaching and learning across languages and cultures* (pp. 145–169). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Ellis, R. (1995). Appraising second language acquisition theory in relation to language pedagogy. In G. Cook & B. Seidlhofer (Eds.), *Principle and practice in applied linguistics: Studies in honour of H. G. Widdowson* (pp. 73–89). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. (1998). Teaching and research: Options in grammar teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*, 32, 39–60.
- Fairclough, N. (1992). *Discourse and social change*. Cambridge, UK: Polity Press.
- Flowerdew, J. (1998). Language learning experience in L2 teacher education. *TESOL Quarterly*, 32, 529–536.
- Fox, C. (1993). Communicative competence and beliefs about language among graduate teaching assis-

- tants in French. *Modern Language Journal*, 71, 313–324.
- Freeman, D. (1989). Teacher training, development and decision making: A model of teaching and related strategies for language teacher education. *TESOL Quarterly*, 23, 27–45.
- Freeman, D. (1994). Knowing into doing: Teacher education and the problem of transfer. In D. Li, D. Mahoney, & J. Richards (Eds.), *Exploring second language teacher development* (pp. 1–20). Hong Kong: City Polytechnic of Hong Kong.
- Freeman, D. (1995a). Asking “good” questions: Perspectives from qualitative research on practice, knowledge, and understanding in teacher education. *TESOL Quarterly*, 29, 581–585.
- Freeman, D. (1995b). Educational linguistics and the education of second language teachers. In J. Alatis (Ed.), *Proceedings of the 1994 Georgetown University Roundtable on Languages and Linguistics*. Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press.
- Freeman, D. (1996a). Renaming experience/reconstructing practice: Developing new understandings of teaching. In D. Freeman & J. Richards (Eds.), *Teacher learning in language teaching* (pp. 221–241). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Freeman, D. (1996b). The “unstudied problem”: Research on teacher learning in language teaching. In D. Freeman & J. Richards (Eds.), *Teacher learning in language teaching* (pp. 351–378). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Freeman, D., & Cazden, C. (1991). Learning to talk like a professional: Some pragmatics of foreign language teacher training. In L. Bouton & Y. Kachru (Eds.), *Pragmatics and language learning* (Vol. 2, pp. 225–245). Champaign-Urbana, IL: University of Illinois.
- Freeman, D., & Johnson, K. E. (1998). Reconceptualizing the knowledge-base of language teacher education. *TESOL Quarterly*, 32, 397–417.
- Freeman, D., & Richards, J. C. (1993). Conceptions of teaching and the education of second language teachers. *TESOL Quarterly*, 27, 193–216.
- Freeman, D., & Richards, J. (Eds.). (1996). *Teacher learning in language teaching*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Gatbonton, E. (1999). Investigating experienced ESL teachers’ pedagogical knowledge. *Modern Language Journal*, 83, 35–50.
- Gaudart, H. (1994). Merging theory and practice in pre-service language teacher education. In D. Li, D. Mahoney, & J. Richards (Eds.), *Exploring second language teacher development* (pp. 85–100). Hong Kong: City Polytechnic of Hong Kong.
- Gebhard, J. G., & Oprandy, R. (1999). *Language teaching awareness: A guide to exploring beliefs and practices*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Gee, J. P. (1992). *The social mind: Language, ideology, and social practice*. New York: Bergin & Garvey.
- Gee, J. P. (1996). *Social linguistics and literacies: Ideology in Discourses* (2nd ed.). London: Taylor & Francis.
- Gee, J. P. (1998). What is literacy? In V. Zamel & R. Spack (Eds.), *Negotiating academic literacies: Teaching and learning across languages and cultures* (pp. 51–59). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Geertz, C. (1983). *Local knowledge: Further essays in interpretive anthropology*. New York: Basic Books.
- Geisler, C. (1994). Literacy and expertise in the academy. *Language and Learning Across the Disciplines*, 1, 35–57.
- Giltrow, G., & Valiquette, M. (1994). Genre and knowledge: Students’ writing in the disciplines. In A. Freedman & P. Medway (Eds.), *Learning and teaching genre* (pp. 47–62). Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann/Boynton-Cook.
- Golombek, P. R. (1998). A study of language teachers’ personal practical knowledge. *TESOL Quarterly*, 32, 447–464.
- Govardhan, A., Nayar, B., & Sheorey, R. (1999). Do U.S. MATESOL programs prepare students to teach abroad? *TESOL Quarterly*, 33, 114–125.
- Grabe, W., Stoller, F., & Tardy, C. (2000). Disciplinary knowledge as a foundation for teacher preparation. In J. K. Hall & W. G. Eggington (Eds.), *The sociopolitics of English language teaching* (pp. 178–194). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Griffiths, M., & Tann, S. (1992). Using reflective practice to link personal and public theories. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 18, 69–84.
- Grimmett, P. P., & Neufeld, J. (Eds.). (1994). *Teacher development and the struggle for authenticity*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Grosse, C. U. (1991). The TESOL methods course. *TESOL Quarterly*, 25, 29–49.
- Grosse, C. U. (1993). The foreign language methods course. *Modern Language Journal*, 77, 303–312.
- Hanks, W. F. (1991). Foreword. In J. Lave & E. Wenger, *Situated learning: Legitimate peripheral participation* (pp. 1–24). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Horwitz, E. K., Bresslau, B., Dryden, M., McLendon, M. E., & Yu, J-F. (1997). A graduate course focusing on the second language learner. *Modern Language Journal*, 81, 518–526.
- Hyland, K. (2000). *Disciplinary discourses: Social interactions in academic writing*. Essex, England: Pearson Education.
- Hymes, D. (1971). *On communicative competence*. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.
- James, C., & Garrett, P. (Eds.). (1991). *Language awareness in the classroom*. London: Longman.
- Jensen, G. H. (2001). *Identities across texts*. Cresskill, NJ: Hampton Press.
- Johns, A. (1997). *Text, role, and context: Developing academic literacies*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Johns, A. (2002). *Genres in the classroom: Relating theory and research to practice*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Johnson, K. E. (1996). The role of theory in L2 teacher education. *TESOL Quarterly*, 30, 765–771.
- Johnson, K. E. (1997). The author responds. *TESOL Quarterly*, 31, 779–781.

- Johnson, K. E. (1999). *Understanding language teaching: Reasoning in action*. Boston: Heinle.
- Kember, D., & Kelly, M. (1992). *Using action research to improve teaching*. Hong Kong: Hong Kong Polytechnic.
- Kent, T. (1993). *Paralogic rhetoric: A theory of communicative interaction*. London: Associated University Presses.
- Kramsch, C. (1995). The applied linguist and the foreign language teacher: Can they talk to each other? In G. Cook & B. Seidlhofer (Eds.), *Principle and practice in applied linguistics: Studies in honour of H. G. Widdowson* (pp. 43–56). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Kramsch, C. (2000). Second language acquisition, applied linguistics, and the teaching of foreign languages. *Modern Language Journal*, 84, 311–326.
- Kress, G. (1987). Genre in a social theory of language: A reply to John Dixon. In I. Reid (Ed.), *The place of genre in learning: Current debates* (pp. 35–45). Victoria, Australia: Deakin University Press.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. (1983). Training teachers or educating a teacher? In J. Alatis, H. H. Stern, & P. Strevens (Eds.), *Georgetown University Roundtable on Language and Linguistics: Applied linguistics and the preparation of second language teachers* (pp. 264–274). Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press.
- Lave, J., & Wenger, E. (1991). *Situated learning: Legitimate peripheral participation*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Li, D., Mahoney, D., & Richards, J. C. (Eds.). (1994). *Exploring second language teacher development*. Hong Kong: City Polytechnic of Hong Kong.
- Markee, N. (1997). Second language acquisition research: A resource for changing teachers' professional cultures. *Modern Language Journal*, 81, 80–93.
- McCarthy, M., & Carter, R. (1994). *Language as discourse: Perspectives for language teaching*. London: Longman.
- Miller, C. (1984). Genre as social action. *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, 70, 151–167.
- Moore, Z. (Ed.). (1996). *Foreign language teacher education: Multiple perspectives*. Lanham, MD: University Press of America.
- Muspratt, S., Luke, A., & Freebody, P. (Eds.). (1997). *Constructing critical literacies: Teaching and learning textual practice*. Cresskill, NJ: Hampton Press.
- Musumeci, D. (1997). *Breaking tradition: An exploration of the historical relationship between theory and practice in second language teaching*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Numrich, C. (1996). On becoming a language teacher: Insights from diary studies. *TESOL Quarterly*, 30, 131–151.
- Nyikos, M., & Hashimoto, R. (1997). Constructivist theory applied to collaborative learning in teacher education: In search of ZPD. *Modern Language Journal*, 81, 506–517.
- Omaggio Hadley, A. (2001). *Teaching language in context* (3rd ed.). Boston: Heinle.
- Oukada, L. (2000). Teaching: An interplay of aims, constraints, conflicts, and compromises. *Modern Language Journal*, 84, 327–338.
- Palfreyman, D. (1993). "How I got it in my head": Conceptual models of language and learning in native and non-native trainee EFL teachers. *Language Awareness*, 2, 209–223.
- Pennington, M. (1995). The teacher change cycle. *TESOL Quarterly*, 29, 705–731.
- Pennington, M. (1996). When input becomes intake: Tracing the sources of teachers' attitude change. In D. Freeman & J. Richards (Eds.), *Teacher learning in language teaching* (pp. 320–348). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Pennycook, A. (2001). *Critical applied linguistics: A ^critical^ introduction*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Pica, T. (1997). Second language teaching and research relationships: A North American view. *Language Teaching Research*, 1, 48–72.
- Prior, P. (1998). *Writing disciplinarity: A sociohistoric account of literate activity in the academy*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Purves, A. (1991). The textual contract: Literacy as common knowledge and conventional wisdom. In E. M. Jennings & A. C. Purves (Eds.), *Literate systems and individual lives: Perspectives on literacy and schooling* (pp. 51–72). Albany, NY: State University of New York.
- Rainey, I. (2000). Action research and the English as a foreign language practitioner: Time to take stock. *Educational Action Research*, 8, 65–91.
- Ramanathan, V., Davies, C. E., & Schleppegrell, M. J. (2001). A naturalistic inquiry into the cultures of two divergent MA–TESOL programs: Implications for TESOL. *TESOL Quarterly*, 35, 279–305.
- Ramanathan, V., & Kaplan, R. (2000). Genres, authors, discourse communities: Theory and practice for (L1 and) L2 writing instructors. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 9, 171–191.
- Richards, J. C. (1998). *Beyond training*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J. C., & Lockhart, C. (1994). *Reflective teaching in second language classrooms*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J. C., & Nunan, D. (Eds.). (1990). *Second language teacher education*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Roberts, J. (1998). *Language teacher education*. London: Arnold.
- Rogoff, B. (1990). *Apprenticeship in thinking*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Savignon, S. J. (1997). *Communicative competence: Theory and classroom practice* (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Schleppegrell, M. J. (1997). Problem-posing in teacher education. *TESOL Journal*, 6 (3), 8–12.
- Schlessman, A. (1997). Comments on Karen E. Johnson's "The role of theory in L2 teacher education": Reflective experience as a foundation for intelligent L2 teacher education. *TESOL Quarterly*, 31, 775–778.

- Schön, D. A. (1987). *Educating the reflective practitioner*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Sheridan, D., Street, B., & Bloome, D. (2000). *Writing ourselves: Mass-observation and literacy practices*. Cresskill, NJ: Hampton Press.
- Shrum, J. L., & Glisan, E. W. (2000). *Teacher's handbook: Contextualized language instruction* (2nd ed.). Boston: Heinle.
- Smith, J. (2001). Modeling the social construction of knowledge in ELT teacher education. *ELT Journal*, 55, 221–227.
- Snow, M. A. (1998). Trends and issues in content-based instruction. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 18, 243–267.
- Snow, M. A., & Brinton, D. M. (Eds.). (1997). *The content-based classroom: Perspectives on integrating language and content*. New York: Longman.
- Stanley, C. (1998). A framework for teacher reflectivity. *TESOL Quarterly*, 32, 584–591.
- Stryker, S. B., & Leaver, B. L. (Eds.). (1997). *Content-based instruction in foreign language education: Models and methods*. Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press.
- Swales, J. M. (1990). *Genre analysis*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Swales, J. M. (1998). *Other floors, other voices: A textography of a small university building*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Toohy, K. (1995). From the ethnography of communication to critical ethnography in ESL teacher education. *TESOL Quarterly*, 29, 576–581.
- Tyler, A., & Lardièrre, D. (1996). Beyond consciousness-raising: Re-examining the role of linguistics in language teacher training. In J. Alatis (Ed.), *Georgetown University Roundtable on Language and Linguistics 1996: Linguistics, language acquisition, and language variation* (pp. 270–287). Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press.
- van Lier, L. (1994). Some features of a theory of practice. *TESOL Journal*, 4 (1), 6–10.
- van Lier, L. (1995). *Introducing language awareness*. Harmondsworth, UK: Penguin.
- Wallace, M. J. (1991). *Training foreign language teachers: A reflective approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Wallace, M. J. (1998). *Action research for language teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Wells, G. (1999). *Dialogic inquiry: Toward a sociocultural practice and theory of education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Wilhelm, K. H. (1997). Sometimes kicking and screaming: Language teachers-in-training react to a collaborative learning model. *Modern Language Journal*, 81, 527–543.
- Winer, L. (1992). “Spinach to chocolate”: Changing awareness and attitudes in ESL writing teachers. *TESOL Quarterly*, 26, 57–79.
- Yinger, R. (1987). Learning the language of practice. *Curriculum Inquiry*, 17, 292–318.

APPENDIX

Tasks and Assignments for Developing Genre Awareness

Text Analysis Task

Directions: With a partner, select a sample article or chapter from an applied linguistics source you know. Refer to the following prompts as you analyze your text.

1. Scan your text carefully. What are your best guesses about its
 - a. topic?
 - b. *genre*, or textual category (e.g., research report, review article, essay, etc.)?
 - c. primary argument(s) (i.e., thesis/es or central claim[s])?
 - d. conclusions (including findings for/against research questions or hypotheses, support for a theory, implications, etc.)?
2. Identify specific textual clues that you used to make the inferences you drew in a, above. Consider features such as the sample's topic and focus, the arrangement of its content, its formatting, and so on.
3. How would you describe the text's rhetorical structure (how the author chose to sequence information)?
4. What do textual signals tell you about the text's structure? Consider elements such as the abstract, headings, topic sentences, tables, figures, and so on.
5. For what audience(s) is the text written? How do you know? Consider these formal elements: specialized terminology, reliance on the existing literature (bibliographic resources), style sheet, typographic conventions, and so on.

Discussion: Genres and Communities of Practice

An individual's abstract genre knowledge is: (a) complex and sometimes contradictory; (b) cognitive and integral to schemata (prior knowledge); (c) inherently social (shared with other readers and writers familiar with the genre); (d) "repeated"—it evokes previous, analogous contexts where similar texts were processed (Miller, 1984); (e) constantly evolving—few, if any rhetorical situations are exactly the same (Berkenkotter & Huckin, 1995); (f) systematic

and conventional—form and style may be repeated (Bhatia, 1993; Kay, 1993); (g) permeable and subject to revision as situations warrant.

Why do you think genre knowledge might be important for you as a graduate student? As a teacher? Why is it useful for learners and teachers to become aware of genres?

Applications

General Academic Literacy Goals

1. Draw from knowledge of genres, applying this knowledge to analysis and critique of known and unfamiliar texts.
2. Revise and refine genre theories.
3. Assess, expand, and revise strategies for approaching academic literacy tasks.
4. Develop competencies to investigate and critique texts, roles, and contexts.
5. Cultivate a useful metalanguage about texts and textual experiences.
6. Reflect on experiences with texts, their writers and readers, and the situations where texts are transacted. (Based on Johns, 1997)

Suggested Practices

1. When reading, consider the text's intended audience, the writer's purposes, and your own purposes. What features make a text comprehensible and reader-centered?
2. As you read, note familiar and unfamiliar rhetorical, stylistic, lexical, and mechanical features. Try to figure them out. Use your assigned sources as models for writing.
3. In your encounters with field-related texts, try to identify "repeated" conventions (Miller, 1984) that might be useful to incorporate into your own writing. Familiarize yourself with basic tools of the trade, for example, a current manual of style and usage, the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (2001). Use them mindfully when undertaking formal writing assignments.

Examples

1. In social science texts, authors operationally define key terms, constructs, and variables.
2. Academic writers often use headings as a means of rhetorical "signposting."
3. In academic prose, claims are conventionally supported with specific evidence (e.g., references to the existing literature, empirical data, anecdotal accounts, etc.). In social science writing, these references appear parenthetically within the text to provide the reader with easily accessible background information.
4. To make a point, authors may recycle arguments and evidence.
5. Published works adhere to a prescribed style sheet and bibliographic system (e.g., leading applied linguistics journals and books in North America use APA style as a guideline).

Forthcoming in *The Modern Language Journal*

Sharon Lapkin, Merrill Swain, & Monika Smith. "Reformulation and the Learning of French Pronominal Verbs in a Canadian French Immersion Context"

Sandra J. Savignon & Pavel V. Sysoyev. "Sociocultural Strategies for a Dialogue of Cultures"

Dwight Atkinson. "Toward a Sociocognitive Approach to Second Language Acquisition"

Linda C. Jones & Jan L. Plass. "Supporting Listening Comprehension and Vocabulary Acquisition in French with Multimedia Annotations"

Tammy Gregersen & Elaine Horwitz. "Language Learning and Perfectionism: Anxious and Non-Anxious Language Learners' Reactions to Their Own Oral Performance"

Bryan Smith. "Computer-Mediated Negotiated Interaction: An Expanded Model"

Miyoko Kobayashi. "Cloze Tests Revisited: Exploring Item Characteristics with Special Attention to Scoring Methods"

Perspectives

The Issue: "Encouraging the Growth of Foreign Language Study" by Anita Bruce. Commentaries by Leslie L. Schrier, Paul Sandrock, John Webb, Katherine H. Gori, and Nancy Rhodes and Donna Christian.
