

IS CRITICAL PEDAGOGY POSSIBLE? LESSONS ON THE INCORPORATION OF
CRITICAL PEDAGOGY INTO AN ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE PRE-
SERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAM

Julia Golden

A Thesis

in

The Department of Education

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of Master of Arts at
Concordia University
Montreal, Quebec, Canada

June 2010

© Julia Golden, 2010



Library and Archives
Canada

Published Heritage
Branch

395 Wellington Street
Ottawa ON K1A 0N4
Canada

Bibliothèque et
Archives Canada

Direction du
Patrimoine de l'édition

395, rue Wellington
Ottawa ON K1A 0N4
Canada

Your file *Votre référence*
ISBN: 978-0-494-71023-4
Our file *Notre référence*
ISBN: 978-0-494-71023-4

NOTICE:

The author has granted a non-exclusive license allowing Library and Archives Canada to reproduce, publish, archive, preserve, conserve, communicate to the public by telecommunication or on the Internet, loan, distribute and sell theses worldwide, for commercial or non-commercial purposes, in microform, paper, electronic and/or any other formats.

The author retains copyright ownership and moral rights in this thesis. Neither the thesis nor substantial extracts from it may be printed or otherwise reproduced without the author's permission.

In compliance with the Canadian Privacy Act some supporting forms may have been removed from this thesis.

While these forms may be included in the document page count, their removal does not represent any loss of content from the thesis.

AVIS:

L'auteur a accordé une licence non exclusive permettant à la Bibliothèque et Archives Canada de reproduire, publier, archiver, sauvegarder, conserver, transmettre au public par télécommunication ou par l'Internet, prêter, distribuer et vendre des thèses partout dans le monde, à des fins commerciales ou autres, sur support microforme, papier, électronique et/ou autres formats.

L'auteur conserve la propriété du droit d'auteur et des droits moraux qui protègent cette thèse. Ni la thèse ni des extraits substantiels de celle-ci ne doivent être imprimés ou autrement reproduits sans son autorisation.

Conformément à la loi canadienne sur la protection de la vie privée, quelques formulaires secondaires ont été enlevés de cette thèse.

Bien que ces formulaires aient inclus dans la pagination, il n'y aura aucun contenu manquant.


Canada

ABSTRACT

Is critical pedagogy possible? Lessons on the incorporation of critical pedagogy into an English as a Second Language pre-service teacher education program

Julia Golden

Critical pedagogy, an approach which offers a means of combining a critique of previously unquestioned practices with concrete ways of introducing change, has become the focus of recent pedagogy research. The approach can help teachers analyze and act on their students' knowledge and experiences to challenge hierarchical social relations and power structures (Auerbach, 1995; Pennycook, 2001). Although many researchers are advocates of incorporating critical pedagogy into English as a Second Language (ESL) teacher education programs, it tends to be applied with a language focus as ESL teacher education programs are often part of language or linguistics departments with strong attachments to language education rather than general education, sociology, or cross-cultural studies. According to Crookes (1998), the moral and philosophical development of second language teachers has not been a focus of most second language teacher education programs.

The research I report attempts to integrate a critical pedagogy and language focused approach into a pre-service teacher education program. Specifically, the student-teachers practiced three key principles of critical pedagogy: 1) draw from and validate what students already know; 2) focus on students' lived experiences and 3) question

givens. The student-teachers were divided into three groups that received varying degrees of critical awareness raising through lesson planning, materials adaptation and supervised teaching during a 13-week course.

My findings show that student-teachers incorporated the three critical principles into their teaching, albeit to a limited degree. Additionally, the student-teachers who received the most critical pedagogy feedback incorporated the three principles more readily than student-teachers who had less critical pedagogy focused feedback. From these results, I recommend that the three critical pedagogy principles be systematically integrated into general TESL pedagogy courses as well as practicum courses.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I thank my advisor, Dr, Joanna White, for her dedicated support and encouragement during the process of researching and writing this thesis. I also express my gratitude to my thesis committee members, Dr. Elizabeth Gatbonton and Dr. Marlise Horst, for their assistance. This study would not have been possible without the Bachelor of Education students enrolled in TESL 326 in the Fall of 2009 or without Teresa Hernandez Gonzales whose dedication to critical pedagogy inspired me. I must also express my appreciation for the support of fellow Applied Linguistics graduate students, the faculty members of Concordia University's Applied Linguistics program, and faculty members of Concordia University's Bachelor of Education TESL program. To my family members who have inspired and motivated me throughout this journey, I thank you all.

TABLE OF CONTENT

LIST OF TABLES.....	ix
LIST OF APPENDICES.....	ii
CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION.....	1
CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW	4
Introduction.....	4
Critical Pedagogy.....	4
Criticisms of Critical Pedagogy.....	8
Critical Pedagogy in Action.....	9
The Post-method Approach	15
Novice Teachers.....	17
Teacher Beliefs	22
Pre-service Teacher education.....	23
Pedagogic Materials.....	31
Summary	34
Research Questions.....	36
CHAPTER 3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	39
Context of Study	39
Practicum Course Description	39
Participants.....	40
Student-teachers.....	40
Instructors	43

Instruments.....	43
Beliefs Questionnaire.....	44
Evaluation Grids	44
Video Recordings and Field Notes of Student-teachers	45
Lesson Plans.....	45
Schedule.....	45
Lesson Planning Session.....	47
Peer Evaluations and Debriefing	47
Individual Feedback Sessions.....	48
Analysis Procedure	49
Lesson Planning Session.....	52
Lesson Plans and Teaching.....	52
CHAPTER 4 RESULTS.....	55
Research Question 1	55
Research Question 2	58
Research Question 3	61
Lesson Planning Session.....	61
Lesson Plans.....	61
Lessons.....	62
Group Feedback Sessions	64
Research Question 4	64
Lesson Plans.....	65
Lessons.....	67

Lesson 1	67
Lesson 2	68
Lesson 3	71
Feedback Sessions	75
Summary of Results	78
CHAPTER 5 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION	79
Introduction	79
Student-teachers' Beliefs	79
Student-teachers' Lessons	81
Limitations	89
Pedagogic Implications	90
Summary of Discussion	91
Conclusion	92
REFERENCES	93
APPENDIX A	98
APPENDIX B	100
APPENDIX C	101
APPENDIX D	102
APPENDIX E	105

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1	Student-teachers.....	43
Table 2	Schedule.....	47
Table 3	Beliefs Questionnaires: Number of STs, out of 20, in Support of Critical Pedagogy.....	57
Table 4	Beliefs Questionnaires by Treatment.....	59
Table 5	Lesson Plans: All STs.....	62
Table 6	Lessons: Number of STs Incorporating CPP, CPLL, FA (all groups combined)	64
Table 7	Lesson plan: Number of STs Planning on Incorporating Critical Pedagogy Principles by Treatment Groups	66
Table 8	Lesson 1: Number of STs Incorporating the Three Critical Principles by Group	68
Table 9	Lesson 1: Number of STs Incorporating the Three Critical Principles by Group	70
Table 10	Lesson 3: Number of STs Incorporating the Three Critical Principles by Group	73
Table 11	Group Feedback Sessions	77

APPENDICES

Appendix A.....	98
Appendix B.....	100
Appendix C.....	101
Appendix D.....	102
Appendix E.....	105

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Political and social issues have been interests of mine since childhood.

When I was growing up, my parents' involvement in social and political activism helped develop my critical awareness and foster my interest in critical pedagogy. I learned how to integrate these different interests when one of my undergraduate sociology professors showed me how critical thinking could be applied to education through critical pedagogy. Upon completion of my undergraduate degree in 2006, I received the Cambridge English Language Teaching to Adults (CELTA) certificate and then taught English as a Second Language (ESL) for two years in Montreal, Quebec.

In the spring of 2008 I had the opportunity to apply my knowledge of critical pedagogy when I worked at a community-based language school in El Salvador. There, I facilitated lesson planning workshops for novice volunteer teachers, which encouraged the teachers to structure their lessons around themes that interested their students. For example access to drinking water, international mining projects and workers' rights were all issues that reflected the adult-students' daily realities. I saw how, by working in collaboration with their students, the novice teachers were able to analyze and act on their students' knowledge and experiences to challenge hierarchical social relations and power structures.

When I returned to Montreal, I decided to pursue an M.A. in Applied Linguistics and to do my thesis study in the area of critical pedagogy. After careful consideration of several different possibilities, I decided to work with student-teachers doing their first practicum in the Bachelor of Education (B.Ed) specialization in TESL at Concordia

University. The context was quite different, of course. The teachers I had worked with in El Salvador were volunteers with an interest in social, economic and political issues, whereas teachers at Concordia were following a structured teacher certification program. Nonetheless, both the educational program in El Salvador and the practicum at Concordia were held at community based organizations. This thesis study allowed me to build on my experience in El Salvador and implement my critical pedagogy interests in a university teacher education setting here in Canada.

The study described below examines the effects of integrating a critical pedagogy approach into a second language (L2) teacher education program, and documents the development of critical awareness in a cohort of student-teachers. Through lesson planning and materials adaptation activities, as well as peer and supervisor observations, student-teachers practiced three key principles of critical pedagogy: 1) draw from and validate what your students already know with genuine questions; 2) focus on your students' lived experiences; 3) problematize topics (question givens). The development of the student-teachers' critical awareness was assessed through questionnaires and observations. Over the course of the study, a subset of the group participated in a series of one-on-one feedback sessions focused on critical pedagogy.

The findings show that student-teachers incorporated the three critical principles into their teaching, albeit to a limited degree. Additionally, the student-teachers who received the most critical pedagogy feedback incorporated the three principles more readily than student-teachers who had less critical pedagogy focused feedback.

The first step in formulating my initial research idea was to read extensively in the areas of critical pedagogy, novice and expert teachers, teacher beliefs and teacher education. The review of literature shows that issues related to critical pedagogy have not been explored in teacher education very often. Thus, this study contributes to the small body of literature by investigating the incorporation of critical pedagogy into an ESL teacher education program.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Critical Pedagogy is not a new concept by any means; however, it has not found its way into many English Second Language (ESL) classrooms. Indeed, it is generally not explored in pre-service teacher education programs, and when it is included, critical pedagogy is typically presented as an alternative to mainstream pedagogy, added on to the standard course as a separate topic (Pennycook, 2001).

This review of the literature is in three sections. It begins with a definition of critical pedagogy in education generally, and second language education specifically, followed by a discussion of the varying ways in which critical pedagogy is interpreted in second language teaching and teacher education programs. Next, there is a review of the literature on novice teachers, teacher beliefs, pre-service training, and materials development. The chapter ends with the four research questions addressed in the study.

Critical Pedagogy

Critical pedagogy, an alternative approach to traditional pedagogic practices, has been used to promote literacy and to help people educate and organize themselves around issues such as health care, elections, and working conditions (Freire, 1970). The approach offers a way of combining a critique of previously unquestioned practices with concrete ways of introducing change through the individual teacher (Johnston, 1999). It attempts to challenge subordinate status by providing a means for students to think about their position in their communities and society and about ways of increasing their access to economic, social and personal power (Goldstein, 1994). However, when critical pedagogy is applied in second language teacher education courses, it tends to be applied

with a language focus as TESL programs are often part of language or linguistics department with strong attachments to language education rather than general education, sociology, or cross-cultural studies. Additionally, since the 1970s, second language teachers have generally been encouraged to incorporate a communicative language teaching (CLT) approach. This approach emphasizes meaning over form and fluency over accuracy. Over the years, the approach has evolved from assuming that language would be learned implicitly through meaningful comprehensible input without attention to language form or error correction to a view that comprehensible input must also include a form focused component (Spada, 1997). According to Crookes (1998), the moral and philosophical development of second language teachers has not been a focus of most second language teacher education programs. ESL teachers commonly state that their main goal is to help people learn to communicate because in general, ESL teachers have not been encouraged to address socio-political issues in their classrooms. In contrast, critical pedagogy takes as joint goals the development of English communicative abilities and the development of a critical awareness of the world.

Throughout this thesis study, the distinction between critical pedagogy as understood by Freire (1970) and critical pedagogy as applied in TESL programs will be referred to as Critical Pedagogy focused on Power (CPP) and Critical Pedagogy focused on Language Learning (CPLL), respectively. CPP corresponds to situations where the main objective is to challenge power relations within society; language instruction is secondary. CPLL uses themes from critical pedagogy such as workers' rights and access to health care, but the main goal is to help students learn language through talking,

listening, reading and writing about these issues. CPP builds on CPLL as it includes a language focus as well as a focus on challenging power relations within society.

In principle, critical pedagogy can be applied to L2 educational contexts as a collective effort in which educators and students work together by sharing, creating, analyzing and acting on their own experiences to bring about awareness and challenge social relations and power structures through language instruction. In such contexts, CPP within second language education can be characterized by three broad ideologies. Firstly, critical pedagogy draws from and validates *what students already know* rather than focusing primarily on what they do not know. For example, the exploration of a new culture is contextualized in relation to the learner's native culture, which can act to allow students to claim a knowledge base from which they can speak (Kumaravadivelu, 1994). Second, content focuses on *learner's lived experience* rather than on idealized projections of that experience (Auerbach, 1995). An example would be engaging in an inductive questioning process where a teacher formulates questions to encourage students to make their own conclusions about a shared concern such as inadequate working conditions. In this case, although the teacher is facilitating the conversation, students are encouraged to listen genuinely to their classmates' ideas and opinions and not treat the teacher's opinion as the only valid voice (Hooks, 1994). Third, topics are *problematized* or presented in a way that leaves problems open-ended without particular behaviours or solutions implied by the teacher or materials (Pennycook, 2001). For example, "housing" may be addressed by examining various complex and contradictory aspects of tenant rights in order for learners to understand and develop their own strategies for addressing the issue instead of

the teacher giving the learners a list of qualities that will make them good tenants in the eyes of perspective landlords (Auerbach, 1995). According to Hooks (1994) these principles can help build a classroom environment where everyone's opinion is valued and recognized.

In what I am calling CPLL, these same three critical principles are applied in order to facilitating language learning. That is, there is no specific intention to raise the learners' awareness or challenge social relations or power structures. An example of the first and second critical principles, *draw from and validate what students know* and *focus on students' lived experiences*, might be the following. The teacher would organize, and perhaps lead, short discussions about culture or personal experiences in order to contextualize the topic and introduce a language point. Here the discussion activity is used to introduce the language item, vocabulary and/or grammar, and not as a departure point to challenge power relations related to a specific topic as is the case with CPP. Additionally, the third critical principle, *problematize the topic*, can be applied from a CPLL approach when an activity that encourages students to think about problems and solutions from diverse angles is designed in such a way that specific language items must be used.

Although many definitions of critical pedagogy have been proposed, scholars have come to the realization that there does not exist one all encompassing definition. Instead, critical pedagogy is concerned with developing a contextualized, culturally specific, reflective approach. In other words, critical pedagogy does not in itself constitute a method; the micro level pedagogical implications of a critical stance often

have to be worked through by the individual teacher (Pennycook, 1989). However, the way in which teachers are supposed to incorporate critical pedagogy into the classroom remains largely theoretical. There is a tendency for critical pedagogues to engage in research and theorising that is not grounded in a particular context. The next section will explore some of the criticisms of critical pedagogy that have been raised in the literature.

Criticisms of Critical Pedagogy

While advocates of critical pedagogy emphasise the importance of contextualizing language teaching to account for students' specific needs, these notions do not often manifest themselves in the classroom (Auerbach, 1995; Clarke, 1994; Ellsworth, 1989; Pennycook, 2001; Usher & Edwards, 1994). As Clarke explains, there has been a notable increase in journal articles and conference presentations that focus on teacher empowerment and the increase of teacher participation in theory building, policy development and program planning. However, according to Clarke, this perspective has not had much impact on the daily lives of language teachers, which may be due to the fact that it is rare to find an individual who is both a language teacher and a theory builder. The theory-practice dichotomy is evident in Ellsworth's statement that critical pedagogy often assumes students will logically arrive at the understanding that they have rights, such as, a person's apparently inherent right to freedom from oppression. However, the likelihood of such a realization is negated by the use of a simplistic version of empowerment and dialogue that obscures power relationships between students and teachers (Ellsworth, 1989).

Critical pedagogy has also been denounced for its failure to be critical of its own set of beliefs (Gore, 1993). Some theorists (e.g. Auerbach, 1995; Gore, 1993; Johnston, 1999; Pennycook, 2001, 2004) believe that critical pedagogy has provided them with a means of critiquing mainstream pedagogy even though they do not believe critical pedagogy is in itself sufficient to invoke the change they see as necessary to empower students. For example Johnston states that:

Critical pedagogy has given me insights into and understandings of the educational process that I would not otherwise have had...but it is not enough to capture the complex essence of teaching, especially of ESL/EFL teaching in the postmodern world (p. 564).

Although critical pedagogy's grand theories of equality do not always manifest themselves in the classroom, Freirean-based approaches to language education offer some concrete examples of critical education practices.

Critical Pedagogy in Action

CPP is best illustrated by popular education, a concept put forth by the Brazilian educator Freire, which has been used throughout Latin America to promote literacy and to help people educate and organize themselves around issues such as health care, elections, and working conditions. Freire states that in times of social change and upheaval, some educators believe they must intervene on behalf of their students to help them solve their problems. Freire calls this the *banking model* of education because the teacher makes deposits which accumulate interest and value. In this approach, solutions are found by the teacher for the students in a one way process. Conversely, a *problem*

posing view of education puts the identification and analysis of problematic aspects of reality at the centre of the curriculum. Instead of transmitting knowledge, the teacher's role is to engage students in their own education by inviting them to enter into the process of thinking critically about their reality (Freire, 1970). The following examples provide some insight into the Freire- inspired view of education.

Collaboration between teachers and students, which is a key tenet of CPP, is seen in Fridland and Dalle's (2002) description of a partnership between four organizations to develop a special ESL curriculum for Somali women refugees in Memphis, Tennessee. A nonthreatening, relevant, and practical course curriculum that combined training in language, culture and social practices was designed. The goal of the project was to help the women develop basic skills that would allow them to define themselves as functioning adults within their new environment. The implementation of the project revealed that a sense of trust was needed between participants and agencies before the collaboration could take place. As the women became more comfortable, they began to take control of their learning by suggesting themes they wanted to learn about, such as doctor office vocabulary and feminine hygiene products. Fridland and Dalle state that the project was a success because the women were involved in many aspects of the curriculum; however, the authors also point to some shortcomings. For example, having a male interpreter and not getting to know the women before the implementation of the project may have been responsible for the lack of critical analysis carried out by the students and teachers.

Frye (1999) applied CPP to literacy in her development of an ESL class for local Latina women at a Latino community center in Washington DC in 1996 and 1997. The participants were 17 Latina women from Central and South America and the Caribbean. She focused on issues central to the lives of these immigrant women as defined by the participants themselves. Despite similarities in their L1 and native culture, differences such as age, marital status, social and economic class, prior English study, and L1 literacy were used as a basis for exploration and negotiation of hierarchy and inequality. Throughout the project, Frye kept a journal of classroom observations as well as her own reflections. She also used a dialogue approach by discussing data with her university adviser, fellow students, the ESL director at the community center and the women in the class. She states that these discussions were fundamental to reaching a deeper understanding of the socio-cultural phenomena of the classroom at the center.

Although empowerment was one of the main goals of the class, in reality it manifested itself as a central problem. Frye did not anticipate that the women's different socio-economic backgrounds would result in contrasting definitions of empowerment. Frye's definition of empowerment as "one's ability to make decisions and carry out actions independent of the coercion of others", which emerged from her privileged upbringing that stressed individual rights to power, contrasted with the students' definition of empowerment (Frye, 1999, p. 510). Many of the women in the class came from societies where equal access to power was not the norm and thus many of them were not comfortable discussing empowerment from a political perspective. Yet, when empowerment was discussed on a more personal level through the participants' own

experiences and achievements, they saw the power they had to make changes in their lives.

Even though the studies by Fridland and Dale (2002) and Frye (1999) were both successful in some ways, each had difficulty moving from theory to application, illustrating Ellsworth's (1989) critique discussed earlier. That is, the program leaders may have assumed that students would come to the conclusion that they were entitled to empowerment based on the activities they engaged in although it is evident empowerment did not manifest itself as clearly or directly as the leaders may have hoped. Additionally, these studies that incorporate CPP do not include a language focus. The next two studies illustrate how critical pedagogy can be applied from the CPLL perspective which emphasises a more language focused approach to critical pedagogy.

Morgan (1998) employs a CPLL approach that emphasizes the importance of extralinguistic variables and grammar as social practice in his community ESL class in Toronto. He uses the context of the 1995 referendum on sovereignty in Quebec to show how a constant focus on broader critical concerns (comparing the referendum with the political change manifesting itself in Hong Kong, the students' place of origin) can be interwoven with standard elements of ESL pedagogy such as modal tenses. Morgan states that feelings of ambivalence, apprehension and possible anxiety towards the future can be expressed in reference to the political contexts used in the class. He shows how the grammar lessons can be organized in such a way as to link the microstructures of text with the macrostructures of society.

An example from Canagarajah (1999) is also relevant here to illustrate CPLL. He presents an example of incorporating critical pedagogy into Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT), a pedagogical approach that focuses on having students complete meaningful tasks using target language. His observation of two teachers working at a Sri Lankan university reveals that only one of the teachers was able to successfully adopt a task-based approach at a school that had previously used grammar-oriented, teacher-fronted instructional strategies. Rani, the more successful teacher, used an interpersonal approach which focused on student involvement and empathy. By promising to deal with grammar at the end of the lesson, she won the students' trust and ensured involvement in the activity. The students were able to have fun and participate in the activity while still maintaining their form-focused motivation to which they were accustomed. Rani was able to encourage critical thinking by introducing the topic through a discussion of differences between lifestyles of people living in the East and West and possible stereotypes that exist.

Conversely, Malathy, the less successful teacher, introduced the new method into the classroom by focusing on grammar, rather than student interaction. She felt that without the linguistic component, the students would consider the lesson a waste of time. Like Rani, Malathy's original lesson plan included a warm up activity to orientate the students to the task and have students work in groups. However, she replaced the warm-up task with a mini lecture and the group work with a teacher-fronted approach because she felt students were getting restless.

From these examples it would appear that Rani's success can be attributed to her bottom-up approach that focuses on classroom situations rather than on the features and activities prescribed by the method. Interestingly, Canagarajah (1999) notes that Malathy had less teaching experience than Rani and states that it is common for less experienced teachers to employ a more grammar-oriented, teacher-fronted approach. In contrast, due to her experience, Rani was able to adopt a more creative process of pedagogic negotiation, which is in line with the principles of critical pedagogy. This example points to the differentiation between novice and experienced teachers, an area I will come back to later.

Along with differences between experienced and novice teachers, the previous example demonstrates the complexities of teaching in the classroom context. When a teacher successfully incorporates an approach such as task-based learning in the above example, s/he can help to empower students by exploring issues that are pertinent to their lives. It is also apparent that the integration of a given method depends on the context, and no one method can provide teachers with ready-made ways of dealing with the complexities of particular student populations or socio-cultural contexts (Canagarajah, 1999). Furthermore, the idea of "method" has recently come under criticism as many scholars realize that, from a pedagogic point of view, what teachers practice in the language classroom rarely resembles any specific method as it is prescribed in manuals. The following section will describe a more comprehensive approach to methods that advocates concepts that are similar to those of the critical pedagogy approach.

The Post-method approach

As we have seen, a critical pedagogy approach is not restricted to one method; instead, critical pedagogy emphasizes the importance of local context and critical thinking skills. In a similar vein, scholars have begun to argue that we are in a post-method period, that is, a period beyond the use of overarching terms such as *Audiolingualism*, *CLT* and *TBLT*. Post-method pedagogy assigns the teacher a more important role than does *CLT* and refers to teaching that is particular to specific contexts and encompasses many different teaching strategies and techniques. However, an actual post-method pedagogy as exemplified by the post-method theorists discussed below has to be constructed by teachers themselves by taking into consideration specific linguistic, social, cultural and political particularities, as well as a variety of possible pedagogical practices (Kumaravadivelu, 2006a).

Kumaravadivelu states that “the concept of method has only had a limited and limiting impact on language learning and teaching...what is needed is not an alternative method rather an alternative to methods” (2006b, p.67). Likewise, Kumaravadivelu stresses the importance of local context; furthermore, he believes that teaching must address the socio-political realities of language learning. To account for this, he put forth his *macrostrategic framework*, which is based on the notion that language learning is unpredictable and therefore, teachers should develop a capacity to generate varied situation-specific ideas within a general framework. His framework is comprised of three operating principles, which he calls *particularity*, *practicality* and *possibility*. Particularity addresses context, emphasizing location-specific pedagogy based on an

understanding of local linguistic, social, cultural and political particularities, while practicality refers to teachers theorizing from what they practice, and possibility is related to the socio-political consciousness that students bring with them to the classroom.

From these parameters, Kumaravadivelu developed ten macrostrategies, including negotiating interaction, promoting learner autonomy and raising cultural awareness, which teachers can use as guidelines to design their own *microstrategies* or classroom activities (Kumaravadivelu, 2003). For example, to foster critical language awareness, Kumaravadivelu describes an activity where learners are presented with doublespeak or deceptive language by reading a paragraph that includes examples of doublespeak that make negative government actions seem favourable. While students discuss what they have read, they are asked to think about critical questions such as: *What is achieved by the use of such doublespeak? At what cost? At whose cost?* Then students are asked why they think many people fail to notice doublespeak even when it is so common. As a homework assignment, they are asked to read a newspaper for one full week and make a list of what they consider to be doublespeak and draft a letter to the editor of the paper expressing their concerns (Kumaravadivelu, 2003). This example points to the importance of considering specific contexts and developing critical thinking skills in line with both CPP and CPLL.

The next sections will explore the characteristics of novice teachers, pre-service training programs and materials adaptation to demonstrate how both CPP and CPLL can be incorporated into novice teacher training programs.

Novice Teachers

An important dimension of teacher development is the differentiation between novice and expert teachers. According to Gatbonton (2008), experienced teachers are those with more than four years experience. Novice teachers, conversely, are those who are still undergoing training, or who have recently completed their training. Tsui (2003) points out that teacher development can be considered as a continuum with novice teachers situated at the early stages of the continuum and more experienced teachers at the later stages. At later stages, teachers' pedagogical knowledge can be characterised as having more stable elements as they have had opportunities to deal with reoccurring issues and have been able to retain what works and discard what does not work for them. The pedagogical knowledge of novice teachers, on the other hand, can be characterized as having more variable elements than stable ones because they are in the beginning stages of testing out many different theories and teaching strategies (Tsui, 2005).

Gatbonton (2008) compared the pedagogic knowledge of novice teachers, who had just completed a teacher-training program, with that of teachers with at least five years teaching experience from an earlier study (Gatbonton, 1999). She defined pedagogic knowledge as a teacher's theory and beliefs about the act of teaching and the process of learning that inform his or her behaviours in the classroom. The novice and experienced teachers' pedagogic knowledge was examined in terms of language management (how to handle language input and student output), procedural issues, and handling student reactions and attitudes. In both studies, she used stimulated recall,

asking teachers what they were thinking as they watched a video tape of themselves teaching.

Gatbonton (2008) found that the pedagogic knowledge of novice teachers is comparable to that of experienced teachers in terms of major categories (language management, procedure check and progress review), but not in terms of details within these categories. For example, much of the pedagogic knowledge of novice teachers can be characterised as passive teaching activities, such as noting the amount of language students produce; additionally, they seem to have acquired less active manipulation of classroom events, such as listening to, waiting, and expecting students to demonstrate knowledge. This analysis shows that novice teachers focused more on students' negative reactions, such as when the students were unhappy or frustrated, possibly because they tended to be less secure about themselves as teachers. Although experienced teachers also notice students' negative reactions, Gatbonton believes they may be more focused on ensuring that learning is taking place rather than on students' negative feelings.

In a similar vein, Richards (1998) and Senior (2006) found that novice teachers are more likely to focus on how effective they are at implementing their lesson plans, rather than focusing on the students and how much they are learning. In his case study of four first year teachers in Hong Kong, Richards (1998) states that the primary orientation of the teachers he studied shifted from classroom discipline to motivation and responding to their students' needs in their first year of teaching. Senior describes a trainee in the Cambridge English Language Teaching to Adults (CELTA) program who said she literally tried to block the students from her mind when she taught:

I'd prepare, prepare, prepare, and probably learn by rote how it was going to be. I didn't want to allow the students to interrupt, because it was like, this is what I have to do. How can I fit students around it? (Senior, 2006, p. 46).

Although this may be an extreme example, it illustrates that novice teachers' tend to be more concerned with their own performance than what their students are learning.

Edge and Wharton (1998) assert that new teachers typically approach books by adopting the given methodology behind activities; experienced teachers, on the other hand, may recognize a book's theoretical position more quickly and interpret it more critically. Experienced teachers also tend to add, delete, and change tasks at the planning stage and reshape their plans during the lesson in response to the interactions taking place.

Richards (1998) describes differences between novice and expert teachers in Asia to illustrate this point. The teachers in his study taught a lesson that centers on a story about problems encountered by a handicapped boy the first time he leaves home alone and travels by bus. On his journey, the boy is tricked into carrying a package on the bus by a stranger. The boy becomes confused and decides to report the package to the police, who discover it contains drugs. The police believe the boy is faking his mental illness and the story ends with a discussion of whether or not the boy should be sent to prison.

Although the story involves a moral dilemma, the novice teachers plan a teacher-centered lesson around language and literature meanings. As planned, students are not asked to relate the story to their own lives or discuss moral/ ethical issues. In contrast, the expert teachers plan a more flexible lesson that allows the students to consider moral/ ethical

issues in addition to language (Richards, 1998). This is in line with a CPLL perspective, as outlined above.

The literature reviewed thus far points to three main differences between novice and experienced teachers. Firstly, novice teachers generally focus more on their own performance than on their students' learning. Second, novice teachers have mostly language-focused objectives while experienced teacher also include broader objectives. Third, experienced teachers tend to be more flexible than novice teachers in terms of lesson planning. Evidently, some differentiations are normal, and perhaps teachers need to learn from their teaching experience; however, a relatively unexplored area is that of incorporating a critical pedagogy approach into teacher education programs (Richards & Crookes, 1988). The following two examples show that novice teachers can begin their teaching careers with a critical stance; however, sometimes the education programs themselves discourage this critical position.

Through his experience working as an ESL teacher, Graman (1988) provides insight into how education can be both transformative and genuinely educative when it is based on real human needs and concerns. As a novice teacher who had not had much formal training in ESL methodology, he initially used a CPP approach centered on student-generated discussion topics. Although Graman saw the potential offered by the discussions, he opted to incorporate some of the activities provided by the language teaching textbooks that were available to him. However, he immediately realized that his initial approach produced better results. This was confirmed when he read Freire's *Pedagogy of the Oppressed* (1970) soon afterwards. For example he found that the notion

that learning was self-generated, rather than merely receptive, was very relevant to his teaching situation. This example is contrary to the one about the handicapped boy that Richards describes above. In Graman's case, his critical questioning was present even before he found a theory to support it. Although he did not believe the drilling exercises promoted in the textbook worked well in his class, it is difficult to say whether Graman would have adopted a more critical stance without having read Freire.

Another example is presented in Johnson's (1996) report on the initial training experience of a pre-service teacher, Maja, during her 15-week Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) practicum in a US high school. Johnson discusses the mismatch between Maja's vision of what teaching should be (from information obtained in her university methodology courses) and her discovery of the realities of high school classrooms. For example, Maja emphasises the importance of getting to know the students to be able to tailor activities to fit their specific needs. In her methods courses, Maja states that students were always referred to as "generic things, like faceless blobs, that are always out there waiting for us to teach them" (Johnson, 1996, p. 46). However, through the practicum experience, Maja began to think of the students as individuals with personalities and real life experiences, which helped her structure her teaching and anticipate potential problems. Johnson states that the discrepancies between theory and practice that came out during Maja's case study are often ignored in second language teacher preparation programs. Kagan (1992) rationalizes this practice by arguing that it may be necessary for teachers to experience a discord between their idealized conception of teaching and the day-to-day operations of managing and teaching in real classrooms.

However, Johnson's case study demonstrates that Maja would have appreciated information on the realities of classroom teaching in her methodology courses instead of learning through trial-and-error. Johnson concludes that pre-service teacher education needs to move away from its pre-packaged bits of knowledge delivered in a series of courses and instead provide pre-service teachers with realistic expectations about the practicum teaching experience. Teacher beliefs, as well as education programs that incorporate critical pedagogy, will be expanded on in the next section.

Teacher beliefs

Another important factor that contributes to students' understanding and incorporation of critical pedagogy is teacher beliefs. Frederick, Cave, and Perencevich (2010) and Tillema (1995) state that teachers are profoundly affected by the way they were taught. They believe that teaching is based on individual personalities rather than pedagogic principles. To change their teaching methodologies from those they were taught with, student-teachers must be provided with experiences that systematically offset their own personal experiences. For example, in their study, Frederick et al. (2010) show that student-teachers' observations of teaching in inner-city schools allowed them to become aware of the economic inequalities present in most schools and also broadened their view of teaching by comparing the teaching they observed to their own experience as students. Coffey (2010) also believes that pre-service teaching is extremely important for student-teachers because they enter teacher education programs with strong beliefs and values about teaching and learning based on their experience as students for a majority of their lives. Like Fredrick et al. (2010), Coffey (2010) states that these

principles are unlikely to change unless student-teachers are offered experiences that challenge their pre-conceived notions. In her study, pre-service teachers participated in earlier field experience by observing teachers in a school where most students were visible minorities. From this experience, one pre-service teacher found that she learned as much from her students as they learned from her. This corresponds to one of the central tenets of critical pedagogy -- that teachers can be learners and learners can be teachers. Similarly, Moen (2006) states that teachers do not take time to reflect on what they are learning as much as they would in another field because the classroom context is familiar to them. Rather than taking the time to think and reflect, they focus on what they need to do to be teachers. Therefore a pre-service teacher education program that incorporates critical awareness and reflection is important.

Pre-service Teacher Education

In line with the teacher beliefs literature in the previous section, Richards (1998) believes that teacher education programs can prepare teachers to be critical/ reflective thinkers. Although there has been a shift from teacher *training* to teacher *education* in recent years, many programs still use old practices. By teacher training Richards is referring to the assumption that teachers can be given discrete amounts of knowledge, usually in the form of general theories and methods that are assumed to be applied to any teaching context; teacher education, conversely, is a more bottom up approach that promotes reflective practices and teacher development (Richards 1998). One example that illustrates these old practices comes from Senior (2006), who describes the CELTA training program, which is an intensive teacher training program that includes a

structured practicum. Teachers are given a textbook to teach from and are told not to deviate from the textbook authors' instructions on how to teach specific lessons. To illustrate the prescriptive nature of the training, she tells about a teacher who tried to adapt the material to make it more relevant to her students' needs and was told by the CELTA trainer that she was not allowed to do so because the textbook authors are experts. Nonetheless, like the student described in the Johnson and Richards studies above, the CELTA students expressed the desire to adapt their lessons for their particular learners.

Similar to Richards (1998), Freeman and Johnson (1998) believe that the shift from teacher training to teacher education remains largely theoretical although the notions of context and prior experiences have been recognized as central in shaping teachers' conceptions of their profession. For example, as stated in the previous section, pre-service teachers, like other learners, interpret new content through their existing understandings and modify and reinterpret new ideas based on pre-existing knowledge. Therefore, teachers' prior knowledge and contextualization both should be incorporated into the teacher education process. However, Freeman and Johnson state that many education programs continue to expose teachers to a wide variety of teaching practices and methodologies which they are then supposed to transfer to their field experience. There are exceptions, however, and the following section offers three examples of contextualized education programs that build on teachers' prior knowledge.

First, Brutt-Griffler and Samimy (1999) provide an example of a holistic training procedure that is in line with CPP. They evaluate a graduate seminar offered to non-

native-English-speaking teachers (NNESTs) in 1997 in North America. The program's main objectives were to raise the graduate students' collective consciousness concerning the status of non-native students (NNSs) in English language training (ELT) through critical dialogue, and empowering the NNSs as ELT professionals. Through evaluation of the conceptual tools designed to overcome disempowering discourses and the construction of identity as NNESTs, the participants were able to meet these goals. The authors state that from the beginning, the students embraced the opportunity to engage in dialogue, as exemplified by a Russian English Foreign Language (EFL) teacher:

This is a very important course for me...It is very difficult to find an opportunity to engage in prolonged dialogue about the issues that mean a lot professionally to people from different parts of the globe. The richness of the [TESOL] program comes from the fact that we are so multicultural, but the resources that we bring to the program are not adequately tapped into (Brutt-Griffler & Samimy, 1999, p. 421).

Seventeen graduate students and two postdoctoral students participated in the seminar that met once a week for 2 ½ hours over ten weeks. Throughout the study, participants were asked to keep journals for critical reflection based on group discussions, presentations, assigned readings and personal experiences. One student expressed her concern with the idea that second language speakers are negatively identified as permanent learners by describing her experience as an EFL teacher in Korea:

I want learners of English to have a sense of ownership and empowerment over their English learning; I do not want them to feel as if they are second-class

people, vis-à-vis the so-called NS of English (Brutt-Griffler & Samimy, 1999, p. 425)

The study suggests that the process of empowerment is neither linear nor simple but can nonetheless be generated within and by teachers engaged in critical analysis. Many of the participants found new relationships with their contexts by analyzing the causes of powerlessness and generating a new sense of agency as teachers. At the end of the ten-week course, some of the participants expressed a strong desire to take matters into their own hands by becoming agents of change, as is illustrated below:

As far as I am concerned, I intend to capitalize on the experience I have gained to contribute more in research relating to language teaching and learning...It is high time non-native teachers began getting more involved in linguistic research and publications. (Brutt-Griffler & Samimy, 1999, p. 426).

Brutt-Griffler and Samimy conclude their discussion by stating that it is crucial to address ELT education within TESOL preparation programs and develop new critical approaches as exemplified in their study. Yet, while this study offers valuable insight into developing critical awareness through a teacher training program, the teachers' awareness may have come about more readily as they were all experienced teachers. Thus a study that includes novice teachers is described below.

CPP concepts are incorporated into Ullman's 1999 study that, like other studies discussed above, used a *problem posing model of education*. She believes that teaching must be conceptualized within a socio-political context because knowledge is linked to power. When teachers are not trained to understand the workings of power and

oppression in their lives and the lives of their students, the resulting pedagogy prevents students from finding their genuine voices. Thus, Ullman also advocates that authentic dialogue between teachers and students is needed to address inequality and lead toward social change.

Ullman's project, entitled *Empowerment Through Curriculum*, had two goals. The first was to write a collaborative textbook by building on students' knowledge, and the second was to experientially challenge teachers' assumptions regarding their students. The twelve teacher participants came from different backgrounds; two came from a critical pedagogical stance, two came from more grammar-based approaches, and the remaining eight had relatively unarticulated ideas about their teaching. Additionally, their experience varied from novice teachers to those with years of experience.

The first step towards creating the curriculum was to conduct focus groups with students to find out what they wanted to learn. These informal group discussions revealed that students wanted to know what their rights were if the U.S. Immigration and Naturalization Service were to come to their workplace, or how to obtain a driver's license while being undocumented. From the students' suggestions, the teachers decided to open each section of the textbook with a student story dealing with subjects that are rarely included in published texts, such as the path to legal residency, driving, and the rights of undocumented people. After much discussion among the teachers, the process became collaborative between teachers and students, acted as a turning point in the textbook creation; even the teachers who did not come from a critical pedagogy background incorporated critical analyses.

Ullman stated that as a result of the project, teachers began to rethink their role in the classroom and take more control of their own educational experiences. In other words, teachers were no longer dispensing knowledge; instead they were facilitating it in line with CPP. The approach to teacher education taken in *Empowerment Through Curriculum* can be an influential way for adult educators to move beyond the topics found in mainstream texts. Another way to move beyond mainstream activities is exemplified through Pennycook's (2004) *critical moments* approach, which is discussed next.

Pennycook (2004) provides a narrative account of his experience as a teacher-educator observing a TESOL practicum in Sydney, Australia, where he used *critical moments* in the practicum to intervene and bring about educational and social change in line with CPP. By critical moments, Pennycook is referring to an instant when teachers come to a realization about an aspect of their teaching. He believes it is a neglected notion in general approaches to teaching and even critical approaches to education. Specifically, education tends to be looked at in terms of the syllabus and the curriculum without giving much thought as to how to capture those moments when student-teachers come to a particular realization.

Pennycook's critical moments concepts is loosely developed from Freeman's (1990) three modes of interventions in student-teachers' practica, including *directive*, *alternative* and *non-directive* options. The directive option has the purpose of improving the student-teachers' performance according to the educator's criteria, the alternative option seeks to develop the student-teachers' awareness of the choices involved in

deciding what and how to teach, while the non-directive option is used for the educator to understand what the student-teachers are doing while they teach, although not necessarily to accept or agree with their thoughts and actions (Freeman, 1990). Pennycook's critical moments construct is more in line with the third option as he does not believe that the practicum should be viewed as a period when student-teachers simply practice techniques learned in their university courses. Instead, he advocates for a way of questioning, discussing and negotiating where student-teachers can reflect on their teaching experience.

Ideally, and time permitting, these objectives can be met through long term projects such as those which Brutt-Griffler and Samimy (1999) and Ullman's (1999) discuss above; however, Pennycook recognizes that these types of projects are not always feasible, which is why he chooses to focus on smaller, unplanned moments where critical reflection can come about. For example, he describes a feedback session with one student teacher named Liz who has just completed a lesson on practical language for what to do when appliances break. Although Pennycook acknowledges that the lesson provided contextually relevant language, he used the short feedback session to discuss the semi-scripted dialogues between a plumber and a tenant that students are asked to practice. Pennycook asks Liz if she thinks the dialogues could have included more conflict to reflect a more authentic conversation. For example, in the script, the plumber makes an appointment for a precise time; however, realistically, Pennycook states that the situation is never that simple. Liz agrees with Pennycook that the dialogue could be made less accommodating and more linguistically difficult.

Upon reflection, Pennycook says that he feels he used a critical directive framework with Liz because he imposed his own critical agenda without thinking more about the relevance for most of the students. This example points to the complexities and difficulties that can arise when student-teachers are asked to reflect on critical moments. However, later in the feedback session, Pennycook asked Liz why she accepted the term “close the tap” to her question about what to do when water is pouring out of the tap. Liz then initiated a discussion of the differences between the term used and the more standard “turn off the tap” and reasons why one would be used over the other, including first language influence, which seemed to intrigue Liz. Unlike the previous example, here Pennycook did not have his own agenda. Significantly, he states that this form of critical non-directive framework may be the most successful because the critical moment emerged from Liz’s own interests and concerns.

The examples described above all point to ways of including student-teachers as reflective practitioners in teacher education programs. However, the mismatch between students’ visions of teaching and the reality remains a widespread struggle for novice teachers. Richards states that to be more effective, teacher education programs should be comprised of “an extended period of classroom experience combined with repeated cycles of guided reflection” (Richards, 1998, p. 190). An important aspect of such a program consists of helping teachers adapt textbook activities to make them more pertinent to students’ particular situations; thus, textbook adaptation is the area explored in the following section.

Pedagogic Materials

As discussed in the section on novice teachers, Richards (1998) states that in general, use of textbooks depends on the teacher's experience; inexperienced teachers use textbooks more than experienced teachers. According to Richards, textbooks are used because of their time and cost benefits provided to schools and teachers. Furthermore, good textbooks can provide a sensible progression of language items, be systematic about the amount of vocabulary presented, allow students to study outside the class, and relieve the teacher of having to think of original materials for every class. However, textbooks may not be as appropriate or relevant as teacher-made materials because they can act to absolve teachers of their responsibilities, reducing their participation in day-to-day decisions. Teachers are often led to believe that commercial materials are technically superior to teacher-made materials because they are based on a more systematic and carefully developed syllabus, as evident with the CELTA example discussed above. Richards (1998), like Ullman (1999), believes that this can lead to the reification or unjustifiable attribution of qualities of excellence, authority, and validity to published textbooks, resulting in teachers not looking critically at textbooks.

Ullman (1999) found that teachers who participated in *Empowerment through Curriculum* were shocked to find out that many activities published in well known texts were flawed and that they could improve upon the activities. Once they saw the flaws in textbooks, they were able to see the importance of including material that was directly relevant to students' lives. Similarly, Richards (1998) describes a series of workshop activities for in-service teachers during which course books are demystified and teachers

are encouraged to develop criteria for evaluating them. The teachers then go on to design materials and to discuss ways of monitoring materials they use. Richards states that this process helps teachers critique textbooks and gain empowerment to use their own activities or interpretations of materials to better reflect their students' needs. Thus Richards advocates for teachers to approach textbooks with the expectation that deletion, adaptation, and extension will normally be needed for material to work effectively with their class. For example, recently published texts teach students to follow orders, apologize, talk about the weather, and call in sick; however, they rarely teach students how to give orders, complain, file a grievance, organize a union, or get a union to defend their rights (Auerbach & Burgess, 1985). The following section shows how textbook activities can be adapted to fit specific contexts.

Auerbach and Burgess's (1985) evaluation of textbook activities and themes common in survival ESL classes (designed for newly arrived adult immigrants) reveal some inherent problems in such materials. Survival texts are generally created for people with relatively low levels of English, and this has the effect of oversimplifying the dialogue, often to the point of being misleading. The following example illustrates this oversimplification:

A: Hello, Dr. Green's office.

B: This is Mary Thompson. I'm calling about my daughter, Sarah. She has a fever.

A: When can you bring her in?

B: Right away.

(Auerbach & Burgess, 1985, p. 479)

Along with misleading oversimplification, this dialogue does not take into account the socioeconomic conditions of newcomers' lives. A newcomer may be more likely to go to a community health clinic or an emergency room than to a private physician; and, even if the individual does have a private physician, it is unlikely for a doctor to see a patient on a moment's notice. Auerbach and Burgess state that what is excluded from curricula is as important as what is included. Failure to address such issues as crowded clinics, long waits and high costs may promote the view that these problems are the result of the students' own inadequacies. A more realistic example is one that provides a broader view of health care by encouraging students to talk about their fears of going to the doctor and problems they might encounter. The following excerpts taken from a unit about "Access to Health Care" from Wallerstein's 1983 *Language and Culture in Conflict* presents students with a realistic dialogue rather than a formulaic prescription:

Receptionist: Country clinic. May I help you?

Felicia: My son is very sick. His head hurts. It's hot.

Receptionist: What? Oh, you mean he has a fever. What's his name?

Felicia: His name is Pablo Ramirez. R-A-M-I-R-E-Z.

Receptionist: Has he been here before?

Felicia: Excuse me can you repeat that please?

Receptionist: That's OK. I'll check his record.

(Wallerstein, 1983, p.144)

Alternatively, open-ended questions such as the ones that follow can also be used to generate discussion:

Talk to your friends about their doctors. Ask them questions about their doctors:

What do you like about the doctor?

What don't you like about the doctor?

Do you have to wait a long time to see him or her?

Does the doctor charge a lot?

(Auerbach & Burgess, 1985, p. 480)

While the above dialogue and questions can be considered realistic representations of new immigrants' realities, similar materials are not common in ESL textbooks. However, many of the principles promoted by post-method theorists and CPLL advocates can be incorporated into already existing materials to fit the specific needs of particular teachers and students while maintaining a language focus.

Summary

The review of the literature on critical pedagogy, novice teachers, teacher beliefs, education training programs and materials development has shown that effective teaching and teacher education situations appear to be those that adhere to the three critical awareness principles applied from either a CPP or CPLL perspective. The first, illustrated through CPLL, is to draw from and validate what students already know, as with Morgan's (2004) comparison of the 1995 referendum on sovereignty in Quebec with the political change manifesting itself in Hong Kong, the students' place of origin. The second, as illustrated through CPP, is to focus on students' lived experiences, as

illustrated through Graman's (1988) study, which provides insight into how education can be both transformative and genuinely educative. Even as a novice teacher, Graman saw the advantages of talking with students to find topics that they wanted to discuss. The third, also from CPP, is to problematize topics through critical moments, as Pennycook (2004) found in his teacher observation sessions during which he found awareness that emerged from the student-teachers' own interests and concerns to be the most successful.

Moreover, the literature shows that a tangible and effective way for student-teachers to incorporate all three principles is through materials adaptation, as exemplified by the adaptation by Wallerstein (1983) and Auerbach and Burgess (1985) of the doctor's office dialogue that acted to draw from and validate what students already know, focus on lived experience and problematize the topic.

However, although both CPP and CPLL are present in the literature reviewed above, the research has shown that novice teachers tend to focus more on their own performance than on their students' learning and have mostly language-focused objectives. Experienced teachers, conversely, are more likely to focus on their students' performance and have objectives that include non-language items such as ethical issues. Yet, Graman (1988) and Johnson's (1996) studies report on novice teachers who focus on their students' performance and include ethical issues at the beginning of their teaching experience. However, both Graman and Johnson state that the novice teacher education programs followed by each of their students did not encourage the development of critical awareness, which they believe could be responsible for the two students' orientation away from their initial critical stance. Nonetheless, due to limited research in

the area, it is not clear whether novice teachers possess this type of critical awareness and whether a program that includes a critical component can help students develop and apply critical consciousness in their teaching. In addition, most teacher education programs that do include critical pedagogy incorporate CPLL rather than CPP because teachers' ultimate goal is to promote communicative effectiveness (Crookes, 1998). The present study examines whether incorporating CPP in a novice teacher education program from the outset has an effect on the novice teachers' beliefs and the implementation of their beliefs in the classroom. To my knowledge, this is an area that has yet to be investigated. The research questions that were formulated to investigate this research concern are stated next.

Research Questions

Research Question 1: Do student-teachers' beliefs about critical pedagogy change over a 13-week introductory pedagogy course that incorporates a CPP component?

Research Question 2: Is there a difference between the critical awareness developed by student-teachers who are given extra critical reflection time and those who are only given a basic overview of critical pedagogy?

According to previous studies, novice teachers are more likely to focus on how effective they are at implementing their lesson plans, rather than on their students and how they are learning. Moreover, Richards states that novice teachers tend not to ask students to relate content to their own lives or discuss moral/ethical issues (Richards, 1998; see also Senior, 2006). However, Graman's (1988) case study reveals that a novice teacher's initial use of an approach that centers on student generated discussion topics

shows that some degree of critical awareness was present. Likewise, Johnson's case study involving Maja, a practicum teacher in a US high school, reveals that Maja would have benefitted more from her university methods course if it had included information on adapting activities to make them more relevant to her students' lives. Similarly, Frederick et al (2010), Tillema (1995), and Coffey (2010) show that teachers generally teach the same way they were taught unless their ideas and impressions are challenged. On the basis of this research, I predict that student-teachers will develop more critical thinking skills if they are encouraged to do so. Thus, student-teachers' beliefs about critical pedagogy will change over the 13-week course, and extra critical reflection time will be beneficial in promoting awareness of critical pedagogy.

Research Question 3: Are the three principles of critical pedagogy; namely, 1) draw from and validate what students know, 2) focus on ESL students' lived experiences and 3) problematize topics, evident in the student-teachers' micro-lessons?

Research Question 4: Is there a difference in the incorporation of critical pedagogy into micro-lessons between student-teachers who are given extra critical reflection time and those who are only given a basic overview of critical pedagogy?

The teacher education literature shows that, although student-teachers express their desire to adapt their lessons for their students, they do not do so for one of two reasons: either they are not encouraged to do so, or they do not believe they can create materials that are superior to textbooks (Senior, 2006). However, once some of the flaws that exist in published textbooks are exposed, many student-teachers feel comfortable adapting materials to make them more pertinent to their students' lives (Richards, 1998;

Ullman, 1999). Therefore, I predict that student-teachers who are exposed to targeted critical pedagogy feedback will incorporate CPP into their teaching and that student-teachers with additional practice with critical pedagogy will do this more often. The next section presents the research methodology used to investigate these research questions.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Chapter 3 begins with a description of the context of study, the practicum and the participants as well as the instruments used. The following section outlines the schedule, and the chapter ends with a description of the procedures used to analyze the data in order to answer the research questions stated in Chapter 2.

Context of Study

The practicum took place at the Tyndale St- George Community Center in Montreal, Quebec, in November and December, 2009. The English language program at Tyndale was founded in 1985 to help newcomers to Canada learn English for work or every day communication. At the time this study was carried out, the community center offered six-week English classes that met twice a week. The English classes were given by volunteer teachers, and the students came from a wide variety of backgrounds including China, Japan, Morocco, Mexico, Korea, France, Canada, Brazil and Russia. Concordia University had been working in partnership with the language program at Tyndale St- George's since 2000. As of April, 2010, language classes are no longer offered at Tyndale.

Practicum Course Description

TESL 326, the first of three pedagogy courses in the B.Ed. program, runs over a 13-week period. There are two components. Theory classes are held once a week for two and a half hours and introduce students to the principles of second language teaching. The practicum with adult ESL students begins in the seventh week and runs for six weeks, concurrently with the rest of the theory classes. The pre- or co-requisites for this

course are TESL 221 (Phonology for teachers) and TESL 231 (Modern English grammar), which expose the students to the English sound and grammatical systems. The students are not expected to have any prior teaching experience although they come from diverse backgrounds, and some may have taught ESL or another subject before enrolling in the B.Ed. program. After completing their B.Ed. degree, most of the students teach in Quebec elementary and secondary schools, following the guidelines set by the Ministère de l'Éducation, du Loisir et du Sport du Québec. These guidelines are consistent with a CPLL approach and promote a curriculum that can be adapted to meet the needs of individual students (Ministère de l'Éducation, 2001, p. 3).

Participants

The following section describes the participants: the student-teachers (STs) and the instructors who are the participants of the study. The STs, who were divided into three treatment groups, are discussed first. Since the distinction among the ST groups is based on their exposure to and experience with critical pedagogy, the treatment conditions are explained here.

Student-teachers

Twenty Bachelor of Education in Teaching English as a Second Language (B.Ed. TESL) STs participated in the study. There were 22 STs enrolled in TESL 326 (TESL Pedagogy General) at Concordia University; however, the data from two STs were removed from the analyses. One ST did not complete the post-test while the other was in a wheelchair and could not access the community center where the practicum took place. The STs ranged in ages from 20-45, with the mean age being 29 years old. All STs were

proficient in English, and 11 of the 20 claimed English as their first language. Other first languages included French, Arabic and Spanish. Teaching experience ranged from none to ten years; however, as twelve STs had no experience and seven had no more than two years experience teaching ESL, all but one could be considered novice teachers.

For the practicum component of the Fall, 2009, section of TESL 326, the STs were divided into two teaching groups. One group of 11 STs taught on Wednesday mornings while the other group of nine taught on Thursday evenings. The groups were further divided such that there were four ESL classes, two on Wednesday morning and two on Thursday evening, all at an intermediate level. During their practicum, the STs adapted lessons from *Top Notch 2 and 3* (Saslow & Ascher, 2006a & 2006b), integrated skills ESL course books, and implemented techniques learned in the theory portion of TESL 326. The organization of the practicum can be considered quite structured as the STs were assigned specific pages of *Top Notch* to teach for every lesson. Although they could adapt the pages assigned to them, they had to incorporate the themes and the linguistic content from the course book. Additionally, the STs were given a lesson planning template which provided space for them to describe their pre-, while- and post-activities, what the teacher does, what the students do and a rationale for each activity. During the teaching sessions, all STs observed their peers teach and filled out peer evaluation grids. The instructor also filled out an evaluation grid. The STs's lessons were videotaped so that later, they could watch themselves teach and write a report answering specific questions about their teaching. The STs' impressions about their teaching were

then discussed with the instructor in one-on-one feedback sessions after they had viewed their videos.

In the current study, the participants were categorized into three groups. The first group was made up of the nine TESL 326 STs who taught on Thursday night and were exposed to critical pedagogy through a one-hour lecture and a one-hour workshop session; this group is referred to throughout the thesis as the comparison group (CG). The second group was comprised of seven of the 11 STs who taught on Wednesday morning. These STs received the same one-hour lecture and one-hour workshop as the CG STs; in addition, every week they assessed their peers' incorporation of critical pedagogy through a peer evaluation grid designed for this purpose and referred to these grids during group feedback sessions. They are referred to as the critical pedagogy awareness group (CPA). The third group of participants was a subgroup of the Wednesday morning group and was comprised of four STs for whom critical pedagogy was the focus of their one-on-one feedback sessions. That is, they had the critical pedagogy lecture and workshop, the critical pedagogy focused group feedback sessions, and individual feedback focusing on critical pedagogy in their own teaching. This group is referred to as critical pedagogy awareness plus (CPA+). The four CPA+ STs were all novice teachers with no prior teaching experience. The data from the four CPA+ STs will be considered separately from the CPA group.

Table 1

Student-teachers

	CG	CPA	CPA+
Wednesday AM		7 STs	4 STs
Thursday PM	9 STs		

Instructors

TESL 326 has a theory instructor as well as a practicum instructor. The practicum instructor of the Fall 2009 section of TESL 326 was a professor in the B.Ed department at Concordia University with a special interest in critical pedagogy, and I was the teacher assistant (TA) for both the theory and practicum components of the course. Although the study was conducted in a class for which I was also the TA, I did not evaluate the STs on their assignments or practicum teaching; instead, I provided the STs with feedback and they made the final assessments and evaluations. For example, when I watched the STs teach, I took detailed notes and then the practicum instructor assigned a grade, taking my feedback into consideration.

Instruments

Included in the instruments used in this study are two questionnaires. The first questionnaire is used to assess STs' beliefs about teaching and learning. The other instruments used are peer and supervisor evaluation grids that include critical pedagogy categories; video recordings of STs' teaching episodes to be used in their individual

feedback sessions; video recordings and field notes of the lesson planning session and group feedback sessions; and lesson plans from all STs. The following sections will describe each instrument in more detail.

Beliefs Questionnaire

The beliefs questionnaire was adapted from Richards and Lockart (1994) and Richards, Tung, and Ng (1992). The STs' responses to the ten questions included in the questionnaire are expressed in terms of the following five categories: strongly disagree, disagree, don't know, agree and strongly agree. All statements relate to the three principles of critical pedagogy. Five are in support of these principles and five are contradictory. For example, the statement *Lesson plans should be flexible and change according to student needs and interests* corresponds to the second principle: focus on students' lived experiences. Conversely, the statement *The teacher should talk more than the students because the teacher is the expert* goes against one of the three critical principles, namely *draw from and validate what students know*. The same questionnaire was administered before and after the treatment to measure changes in beliefs about critical pedagogy over the 13-week pedagogy course (Research Questions 1 and 2). The beliefs questionnaire can be found in Appendix A.

Evaluation Grids

STs in the CPA and CPA+ groups were provided with a peer evaluation grid that targeted the three critical pedagogy principles. The purpose of the grid was twofold. First, it was used to raise the STs' awareness of the incorporation of critical pedagogy and contribute to the discussion in the group feedback sessions; second, it was used for the

pedagogical intervention when the instructor and I gave feedback to the four students in the CPA+ subgroup (see Appendix B).

Video Recordings and Field Notes of Student-teachers

As a requirement of TESL 326, all STs watched video recordings of themselves teaching in order to complete self-reflection homework assignments. For the current study, the CPA+ group also referred to these video recording to find instances where they incorporated, or might have incorporated, critical pedagogy. Any instances of critical pedagogy, as well as missed opportunities, were discussed in their individual feedback sessions.

Additionally, the lesson planning session and group feedback sessions were video-taped and documented through field notes to facilitate analysis of the development of critical pedagogy awareness.

Lesson Plans

All STs' lesson plans were collected on the three occasions when their 30-minute lessons were formally assessed. The lesson plans were then analyzed to see how and when STs planned to incorporate critical pedagogy into their lessons

Schedule

As can be seen in Table 2 below, the 10-item beliefs questionnaire was administered on the first day of class (Week 1), before STs had been introduced to the critical pedagogy perspective. After completing the questionnaire, STs were assigned a short article by Grady (1997) about critical pedagogy, along with guided questions, for homework for the following week (see Appendix C for questions). In Week 2, the topic

of critical pedagogy was introduced through a discussion of the reading that brought out the three principles that are targeted in this study. Following the discussion, the conversation model entitled *Making an Appointment to See a Dentist* on page 16 of *Top Notch 3* was analyzed by the STs and myself. I suggested ways of adapting the activity to reflect these principles. Then, I asked the STs to work with a partner to find other ways of adapting the activity for students like the ones they would be teaching during their practicum to simulate an authentic classroom context (see Appendix D for a lesson plan of the lecture and *Top Notch 3* excerpt).

Later, during Week 2, the STs all participated in a workshop to practice applying the principles of critical pedagogy. For the workshops, the STs were split into two groups on their respective teaching days (either Wednesday or Thursday), then further split into two groups of five or six students. We went over what was discussed during the critical pedagogy lecture and addressed any questions and concerns the STs had. They were also presented with a copy of the dialogue on page 42 of *Top Notch 2* (Saslow & Ascher, 2006a) entitled *Get Service at a Service Station* and a copy of the text on page 32 of *Top Notch 3* (Saslow & Ascher, 2006b) entitled *Evaluate the Quality of Service*, and they were asked to adapt them (see Appendix E for *Top Notch* excerpts). During the Wednesday workshop, STs with less than two years ESL teaching experience were invited to participate in the CPA+ subgroup. Four volunteers who wanted to have their feedback sessions focus on critical pedagogy were identified (the selection procedure is described below).

Table 2

Schedule

Week	CG	CPA	CPA+
1	Beliefs questionnaire administered and critical pedagogy reading assigned		
2	Critical pedagogy lecture and workshop		Selection of 4 STs
3			
4			
5			
6	Lesson planning session		
7	Teaching sessions	Teaching sessions	Teaching sessions
8		Critical pedagogy-focused feedback session	Critical pedagogy-focused feedback sessions
9			
10		Filling out of critical pedagogy peer evaluation grids during teaching	Filling out of critical pedagogy peer evaluation grids and individual critical pedagogy-focused feedback sessions
11			
12			
13	Beliefs questionnaire		

Lesson Planning Session

In preparation for teaching, the STs participated in a lesson planning session in Week 5 of the course. Critical pedagogy was not the focus of the session and all STs received the same instruction. This session was recorded to see if STs incorporated critical pedagogy into their lesson planning.

Peer Evaluations and Debriefing

In the CPA group, STs were asked to fill out a critical pedagogy peer evaluation grid (see Appendix B) and comment on the incorporation of the three principles of critical pedagogy by their peers during the 30-minute group debriefing after every teaching session. The peer evaluation grids were given directly to the CPA STs.

Additionally, the STs were asked questions designed to raise their critical awareness beyond the three principles. In line with Hooks' (1994) beliefs discussed earlier the STs were asked what they thought about authority in the classroom and if the teacher should have the final word. The class also discussed desk formation in relation to power and tried to clarify what we meant by *problematizing* and asking genuine questions and how they could be integrated into the structured classes.

These sessions were recorded to permit analysis of any critical incidents that were discussed. The CG did not use the critical pedagogy grid and did not have their attention drawn to critical pedagogy. Their debriefing sessions focused on the STs' general impressions about their teaching.

Individual Feedback Sessions

As a requirement of TESL 326, all STs met with the practicum instructor or me individually shortly after each of their lessons to discuss their teaching progress. Exclusively for the four STs in the CPA+ group, the focus on the individual feedback sessions was on critical incidents, or critical moments. These are unplanned or unanticipated events that occur during a lesson that serve to trigger insight about an aspect of teaching or learning (Richards & Farrell, 2005). As Pennycook (2001) notes, the reflections are most powerful when they come from the STs themselves; therefore, the STs were required to watch the video recording of their lesson before they met with me. During the meeting, we discussed incidents where they thought they used critical pedagogy. If they were not able to find any such incidents, they were asked where they thought they could have applied the critical pedagogy principles. In the case of STs who

could not think of anything, the instructor or I brought up events from the lesson and then engaged them in a discussion to help the STs gain more insight. Additionally, the three critical principles addressed in the CPA group feedback sessions were also discussed in the individual feedback sessions. These feedback sessions were audio recorded to facilitate analysis.

Although critical pedagogy was integrated into the TESL 326 course by both the theory and practicum instructors, the STs were never evaluated on any aspect of CP. Accordingly, if for any reason STs did not wish to complete the questionnaires or to implement or discuss critical pedagogy, this would not have not affected their mark in the course. Moreover, the CPA+ group members were informed that they were also free to discontinue the critical pedagogy-focused feedback sessions at any time, without penalty. This could have been done by informing the TA or one of the TESL 326 instructors. No student made such a request.

Analysis Procedures

This is a quasi-experimental study. That is, the STs were not randomly assigned to a treatment group. Instead, they were first assigned to the CG or CPA group by the instructor on the basis of their practicum schedule (Wednesday morning or Thursday evening), after which four STs in the CPA group agreed to be part of the CPA+ group. The study follows a pre-test/post-test design as in each group, the STs' beliefs were measured before and after their practicum. The three groups of STs filled in the same pre-questionnaire before the treatment and then received different degrees of critical

pedagogy-focused treatment depending on their group (CG, CPA or CPA+). After the treatment all STs filled out a post questionnaire (the same as the pre-questionnaire).

Research Question 1, which examines STs' beliefs about critical awareness, was addressed by analyzing the STs answers to six of the statements from the questionnaire given at the beginning and end of the study. The following six statements were chosen for analysis as they fit into the three critical pedagogy principles targeted in the study.

Principle 1: *Draw from and validate what students know*

Statement 1: *"Materials should build on what students know"*

Statement 2: *"During class discussion, questions should be structured to elicit only vocabulary learned in class"*

Principle 2: *Focus on students' lived experiences*

Statement 1: *"Questions should be open-ended to allow students to bring their own ideas"*

Statement 2: *"Lesson plans should be flexible and change according to student needs and interests"*

Principle 3: *Problematize topics*

Statement 1: *"Students should be encouraged to question and critique materials found in textbooks"*

Statement 2: *"The teacher should talk more than the students because the teacher is the expert"*

The STs' answers were compared before and after the treatment. For example, a ST may have chosen the option "strongly agree" with the statement *"The teacher should*

talk more than the students because the teacher is the expert” before the treatment, but may have answered “disagree” after being exposed to the critical pedagogy intervention. The responses were analyzed quantitatively by coding “don’t know” as 0, “strongly disagree” as 1, “disagree” as 2, “agree” as 3 and “strongly agree” as 4. For the negatively worded items, the coding was reversed. The number of responses in each category was then counted and compared before and after the treatment. To facilitate analysis, answers coded as “strongly agree” and “agree” were collapsed into one category, as were the answers coded as “strongly disagree” and “disagree”. Depending on whether the questions were positively or negatively worded, the new categories corresponded to either agreeing or disagreeing with each of the six statements analyzed.

Research Question 3 and 4, which examine the incorporation of the principles of critical pedagogy into teaching, were addressed by analyzing the differences between the three groups during their lesson planning session, their lesson plans, their teaching and their group feedback sessions in terms of evidence of awareness of the principles of critical pedagogy. The three broad critical pedagogy categories were made quantifiable by including subcategories representing the CPP and CPLL versions of critical pedagogy. It is important to point out that the data analysis categories used to address these research questions were derived from the data.

The three critical pedagogy principles were considered as being incorporated from a CPP approach as follows. When STs asked genuine questions to find out what their student knew, they were considered to be *drawing from and validating what students already know* because this allowed their students to claim a knowledge base from which

they could speak (Kumaravadivelu, 1994). When STs built materials and activities around topics that allowed their students' to share their experiences, they were *focusing on lived experiences*, and when STs questioned given power relations or played devil's advocate to engage their students in discussions to question power relations in the class or in society they were *problematizing the topic* from a CPP approach. The same three principles were considered as being incorporated from a CPLL approach as follows. When the STs asked questions to find out what language the students knew before beginning an activity, they were considered to be *drawing from and validating what students know*; when they taught language using themes that students could relate to, they were *focusing on lived experiences*; when they analyzed language used in relation to socio-political issues, they were *problematizing the topic*.

Lesson Planning Session

The lesson planning session was videotaped and analyzed for evidence that the STs were taking the principles of critical pedagogy into consideration. All instances where STs referred to critical pedagogy were counted and classified.

Lesson Plans and Teaching

All STs' lesson plans were collected three times and analyzed for evidence of the incorporation of the three critical pedagogy principles. Instances of the incorporation of the three critical pedagogy principles were then counted during viewings of the STs' teaching episodes. The categories of CPP, CPLL and FA (failed attempt at critical pedagogy) were created from patterns that emerged during my initial viewing of the videos. Based on a discussion with the practicum instructor of TESL 326, I considered

CPP to be present when the STs addressed issues of power relations in the classroom or in the larger society. Examples include incorporating students' culture or opinion into the topic being discussed (*draw from and validate what students know*), building activities around issues that influenced their students (*focus on students' lived experiences*), and incorporating issues of power relations into their discussions with their students (*problematizing the topic*). I considered CPLL to be evident when the STs used the three critical principles to help their students learn language. Examples from the data include asking students about their opinions or cultures to introduce a language topic (*draw from and validate what students know*), asking students about their opinions or experiences to facilitate learning of a specific grammar point or vocabulary item (*focus on students' lived experiences*) and asking students controversial questions to facilitate dialogue (*problematize the topic*). Conversely, FA occurred when the STs did not apply the principle critically from either a CPP or CPLL perspective, or misunderstood the principle altogether. Examples from the data include eliciting vocabulary definitions that must be identical to the teacher's chosen definition (*draw from and validate what students know*), asking students for examples of situations that are not relevant to their lives (*focus on students' lived experiences*), and presenting students with controversial issues without asking them to engage in dialogue or question given situations (*problematize the topic*).

All group feedback sessions were also tape-recorded to determine if and when STs discussed the critical pedagogy components of their lessons. Based on my CPP, CPLL and FA categorizations, I analyzed the STs' comments to distinguish whether they

saw their application of the critical pedagogy principles in terms of either questioning power relations within society and/or helping facilitate the learning process or neither of these. I also analyzed the comments made by the instructor and me to see if we explained the principles in terms of CPP or CPLL. The CG served as a baseline comparison for the CPA and CPA+ groups.

This chapter has explained the study's participants, the context, the procedure and the analysis procedures. The next chapter describes the findings as they relate to the four research questions. A discussion and interpretation of the findings is found in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

The following chapter describes the findings in relation to each of the four research questions posed in Chapter 2 and gives examples from the data to support them.

Research Question 1

Research Question 1 asks if STs' beliefs about critical pedagogy change over a 13-week introductory pedagogy course that incorporates a CPP component. The beliefs questionnaire provides the data needed to address this question. Two statements addressed each of the three critical pedagogy principles.

As was explained in Chapter 3, the STs' responses to the six belief statements were compared at the pre-test and post-test. Table 3 shows the six statements used in the questionnaire. The number of STs with Likert scale responses in support of critical pedagogy were counted and entered under the pre and post headings in Table 2. Since the majority of STs indicated that they were in agreement with the principles of critical pedagogy before the treatment began, there is little room for change in their beliefs during the study.

The first principle, *Draw from and validate what students know*, is represented by two statements: "*Materials should build on what students already know*" and "*During class discussion, questions should be structured to elicit only vocabulary learned in class*". For the first statement of principle one, fifteen of the twenty STs agreed before and after the treatment. Of these, 13 did not change their minds and were still in agreement at the post. Three STs who had disagreed in the pre, agreed in the post (the predicted change). However, there is evidence of variability in the responses as some

STs' opinion changed from agreement to disagreement. For example, one ST who agreed in the pre disagreed in the post, two STs who agreed in the pre were not sure in the post and another who was not sure in the pre disagreed in the post.

For the second statement in this section, 13 out of 20 supported the critical pedagogy principle in the pre compared to 15 in the post. For this question, only one ST who disagreed in the pre agreed in the post while two STs who agreed in the pre disagreed in the post. Therefore, for the second statement, the majority of STs' beliefs stayed the same over the period of the study.

The second principle, *Focus on students' lived experiences* corresponds to the statements "*Questions should be open-ended to allow students to bring their own ideas*" and "*Lesson plans should be flexible and change according to student needs and interests*". For the first statement 19 of the 20 STs agreed in the pre, and all 20 agreed in the post. Similarly, 18 STs agreed with the second statement in the pre compared to 20 in the post. In this case, one ST changed from disagree to agree and another from don't know to agree. Thus, for the second principle, most STs indicated agreement at the pre, and the few changes were in the predicted direction.

The third principle, *Problematize the topic* is represented by the statements "*Students should be encouraged to question and critique materials found in textbooks*" and "*The teacher should talk more than the students because the teacher is the expert*". From the pre to the post, answers were similar for the first statement but different for the second statement. Nineteen of the 20 STs agreed with the first statement in the pre compared to 20 in the post. However, only 13 STs agreed with the second problematizing

statement in the pre compared to 20 in the post. As for the second principle, all STs changed their answers in the expected direction from the pre to the post.

Table 3

Beliefs Questionnaires: Number of STs, out of 20, in Support of Critical Pedagogy

CP 1: Draw from what students know	Pre	Post
Material should build on what students already know	15	15
During class discussions, questions should be structured to elicit only vocabulary learned in class	13	15
CP 2: Focus on students' lived experiences		
Questions should be open-ended to allow students to bring their own ideas	19	20
Lesson plans should be flexible and change according to student needs and interests	18	20
CP 3: Problematize Topic		
Students should be encouraged to question and critique materials found in textbooks	19	20
The teacher should talk more than the students because the teacher is the expert	13	20

To summarize the data related to Research Question 1, it appears that for principles 2 and 3, all STs' changed in the expected direction. In other words, most were in agreement with the critical pedagogy principles in the pre and all 20 STs were in agreement with the principles in the post. For the first critical pedagogy principle, there was variability and change was not always in the predicted direction.

Research Questions 2

Research Question 2 addresses the difference in the development of critical beliefs among the three treatment groups, that is, among STs who were given extra critical reflection time and those who were only given a basic overview of critical pedagogy. Analysis of the beliefs questionnaires reveal that the trend is for the majority of STs in all groups to agree with the critical pedagogy principles in the pre and in the post. However, the CPA+ STs changed their answers the most from not agreeing with some of the critical pedagogy statements in the pre to agreeing with them in the post.

Table 4 shows that for critical pedagogy principle 1: *Draw from and validate what students know*, the CPA+ group has the same number of STs who agreed in the pre and post (three for the first statement and all four for the second statement). For the statement "*Materials should build on what students know*", STs in agreement with critical pedagogy decreased from six to five for the CPA group and increased from six to seven for the CG group. For the statement "*During class discussions, questions should be structured to elicit only vocabulary learned in class*" the number of STs in agreement with critical pedagogy increased by one ST for both the CPA and CG groups.

Table 4

Beliefs Questionnaires by Treatment

	Pre (in support of CP)			Post (in support of CP)		
	CPA+ n=4	CPA n=7	CG n=9	CPA+ n=4	CPA n=7	CG n=9
CP 1: Draw from what students know						
Material should build on what students already know	3 STS 75%	6 STS 86%	6 STS 67%	3 STS 75%	5 STS 71%	7 STS 78%
During class discussions, questions should be structured to elicit only vocabulary learned in class	4 STS 100%	4 STS 57%	5 STS 56%	4 STS 100%	5 STS 71%	6 STS 67%
CP 2: Focus on students' lived experiences						
Questions should be open-ended to allow students to bring their own ideas	4 STS 100%	7 STS 100%	8 STS 88%	4 STS 100%	7 STS 100%	9 STS 100%
Lesson plans should be flexible and change according to student needs and interests	2 STS 50%	7 STS 100%	9 STS 100%	4 STS 100%	7 STS 100%	9 STS 100%
CP 3: Problematize Topic						
Students should be encouraged to question and critique materials found in textbooks	4 STS 100%	7 STS 100%	8 STS 88%	4 STS 100%	7 STS 100%	9 STS 100%
The teacher should talk more than the students because the teacher is the expert	0 STS 0%	6 STS 86%	7 STS 78%	4 STS 100%	7 STS 100%	9 STS 100%

For critical principle 2: *Focus on students' lived experiences*, almost all STs agreed with both statements in both the pre and the post with the following exceptions. Two CPA+ STs agreed with the statement "*Lessons should be flexible and change according to students' needs and interests*" while all four agreed in the post. Eight students from the CG group agreed with the statement "*Questions should be open-ended to allow students to bring in their own ideas*" compared to nine in the post.

For critical principle 3: *Problematizing the topic*, almost all STs agreed with the first statement "*Students should be encouraged to question and critique materials found in textbooks*" in the pre and post. The only exception was in the CG, where a single ST disagreed at the pre and agreed at the post. The pattern is different for the second statement, "*The teacher should talk more than the students because the teacher is the expert*". STs who align themselves with critical pedagogy would be expected to disagree with this statement, and this is what most of the students in the CPA and CG groups, but none in the CPA+ group did in the pretest. In the posttest, however, all STs in all groups disagreed with the statement. Thus, in the post all STs seemed to be in favour of critical principle 3.

In sum, the CPA+ group changed their answers the most from the pre to the post. For example, all of the CPA+ STs agreed with the statement "*The teacher should talk more than the students because the teacher is the expert*" in the pre compared to none in the post. Although the beliefs questionnaires offer some insights into STs' beliefs, we cannot assume that they would necessarily apply these critical principles to their

teaching. The next two research questions address the application of the principles of critical pedagogy.

Research Question 3

Research question 3 asks if the three principles of critical pedagogy, namely, 1) *draw from and validate what students know*, 2) *focus on ESL students' lived experiences* and 3) *problematize topics*, are evident in the STs' micro-lessons. To answer this question, I looked at the application of these principles in the lesson planning session, lesson plans, lessons and group feedback sessions for all STs. Although I coded the incorporation of CPP and CPLL separately, I have collapsed the categories in reporting the findings for lesson plans. For lessons, I report both CPP and CPLL.

Lesson Planning Session

None of the STs or instructors brought up any of the principles of critical pedagogy in the lesson planning session.

Lesson Plans

As shown in Table 5, each ST wrote three lesson plans during their Tyndale teaching, and some of the principles were incorporated into these plans. For example, in the first set of lesson plans, although none of the STs planned to *draw from and validate what students know*, two of twenty planned to *focus on students' lived experiences* and two planned to *problematize the topic*. In the second set of lesson plans, two STs planned to *draw from and validate what students know*, five STs planned to *focus on students' lived experiences*, while none planned to *problematize the topic*. In the third set of lesson plans, one planned to *draw from and validate what students know*, five planned to *focus*

on students' lived experiences and four planned to *problematize the topic*. For these data, there appears to be a pattern of increase in the incorporation of the critical pedagogy principles from the first to the third sets of lesson plans.

Table 5

Lesson Plans: All STs

	Lesson Plan 1			Lesson Plan 2			Lesson Plan 3		
	CP1	CP2	CP3	CP1	CP2	CP3	CP1	CP2	CP3
All students (n=20)	0	2	2	2	5	0	1	5	4

NB: CP refers to Critical Principle

Lessons

As was explained in Chapter 3, the STs' incorporation of the principles was coded according to the following three categories: 1) CPP, which refers to instances when the STs challenged power relations within the classroom or society; 2) CPLL, which refers to instances when the STs used the principles of critical pedagogy to help facilitate language learning, without challenging power relations; and 3) failed attempt (FA), which refers to instances when the STs failed in their attempt to incorporate CP as either CPP or CPLL. Table 6 shows that in the first lesson, overall, two out of twenty STs used CPP to *draw from what their students know* while four STs used CPLL for the same principle. Three STs used CPP to *focus on their students' lived experiences* while two used CPLL for the same principle and one ST used CPP to *problematize the topic*. In the second lesson, three STs used CPP to *draw from what their students know* while two applied CPLL, and there were two FAs for the same critical principle. In the same set of lessons, three STs used CPP to *focus on their students' lived experiences*. Additionally, three STs used CPP

to *problematize the topic* while one was coded as FA. For the third set of lessons, three STs used CPP to *draw from and validated what their students know*, two used CPLL, and four were coded as FAs. Seven STs used CPP to *focus on their students' lived experiences* and one ST was coded as FA. Moreover, three ST used CPP to *problematize the topic* while two were coded as FA.

In sum, some of STs applied CPP to their teaching although the majority of STs did not. However, overall, the STs' incorporation of CPP increased slightly from the first to the third sets of lessons. For example, 10% of STs incorporated CPP to *draw from and validate what students know* in the first set of lessons compared to 15% in the second and third set of lessons; 15% of STs incorporated CPP to *focus on students' lived experiences* in the first and second set of lessons compared to 35% in the third set of lessons and 5% of STs incorporated CPP to *problematize the topic* in the first set of lessons compared to 15% in the second and third set of lessons.

Table 6

Lessons: Number of STs incorporating CPP, CPLL and FA (all groups combined, n=20)

	CP1	CP2	CP3
Lesson 1	2 CPP 4 CPLL 1 FA	3 CPP 2 CPLL	1 CPP
Lesson 2	3 CPP 2 CPLL 2 FA	3 CPP	3 CPP 1 FA
Lesson 3	3 CPP 2 CPLL 2 FA	7 CPP 1 FA	3 CPP 2 FA

NB: CP refers to Critical Principle

Group Feedback Sessions

The fourth source of information about whether or not STs incorporated critical pedagogy is the group feedback sessions. As the CG did not discuss critical pedagogy in their group feedback sessions, information about the CPA and CPA+ group feedback sessions is reported in the next section related to the fourth research question.

Research Question 4

Research Question 4 asks if there is a difference in the incorporation of critical pedagogy into micro-lessons between STs who are given extra critical reflection time and those who are only given a basic overview of critical pedagogy. Analysis of the data shows that CPA+ STs incorporated the critical pedagogy principles more systematically than the other two groups.

Lesson Plans

Table 7 shows that none of the CPA+ STs incorporated the critical pedagogy principles into their first lesson plans. Two CPA STs planned to *focus on their students' lived experiences* and two CG STs planned to *problematize the topic*. For example, Jen from the CPA group planned to ask her students to compare healthy and unhealthy foods in Canada with those in their countries and Melanie, from the CG, planned to get students to question and critique an article to conclude her lesson.

In their second lesson plans, the CPA+ STs all planned to *focus on their students' lived experiences* while one ST from the CPA group also planned to do so. For example, Sara, from the CPA+ group, planned to start her lesson with a 'find someone who' activity to help students get to know each other and Jen, from the CPA group, planned to ask students about the importance of art in their lives to introduce her lesson. Additionally, one ST from the CPA group as well as one CG ST planned to *draw from and validate what students know*. For example, Megan from the CG planned to ask students to correct each other instead of looking to the teacher for answers.

In their third lessons plans, three of the CPA+ STs said they would *focus on their students lived experiences* while two planned to *problematize the topic*. For example, Sara and Heather planned to tell personal stories and ask students to share similar stories while Vicky planned to problematize by asking students if they would keep 20 dollars they saw fall out of someone's wallet if they needed the money to feed their families. In the CPA group, one ST, Eric, planned to *focus on the students lived experiences* by telling a personal story about travel and asking students for similar stories while another

planned to *problematize the topic*. One CG ST planned to *draw from and validate what students know*, another, Megan, planned to *focus on students' lived experiences* by asking students to discuss a negative experience they had had when their personal values clashed with someone else's. Alexandra planned to *problematize the topic* by asking students questions about double standards women face and asking students to interview each other about cultural values.

Table 7

Lesson plan: Number of STs planning to incorporate critical pedagogy principles by treatment groups

	Lesson Plan 1			Lesson Plan 2			Lesson Plan 3		
	CP1	CP2	CP3	CP1	CP2	CP3	CP1	CP2	CP3
CPA+ (n=4)	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	2	2
					100%			50%	50%
CPA (n=7)	0	2	0	1	1	0	0	1	1
		29%		14%	14%			14%	14%
CG (n=9)	0	0	2	1	0	0	1	1	1
			22%	11%			11%	11%	11%

To summarize this section, though the number of STs who planned to incorporate the three critical pedagogy principles is small, the data illustrates that the CPA+ group planned the most systematic incorporation of these principles. Although they did not incorporate any of the critical pedagogy principles into their first lessons, all of the CPA+ STs planned to *focus on students' lived experiences* in the second set of lesson plans and half of them planned to *focus on lived experiences* and *problematize the topic* in their

third set of lesson plans. Conversely, the CPA and CG groups show a more constant number of STs who planned to incorporate the critical pedagogy principle in all three sets of lesson plans.

Lessons

This section addresses the STs' teaching sessions to determine whether the STs' who incorporated some of the critical pedagogy principles did so following a CPLL or CPP approach and whether or not there is a difference among the treatment groups. The results are divided into first, second and third lessons and subdivided by treatment group. Examples of CPLL and CPP as well as FA are given.

Lesson 1

Table 8 shows that in their first lesson, none of the CPA+ STs attempted to incorporate either CPLL or CPP into their teaching.

Four CPA STs used CPLL to *draw from and validate what the students know* (CP1). For example, Jen acknowledged a student-generated answer even though it did not work in the context she was working in while Jack asked students to write conditional sentences on the board which the class corrected together. Only one CPA ST, Ranya, was coded as FA for this principle because she explained H1N1 as if it were a foreign concept without asking anyone if they had heard of it. Two used CPP to *focus on their students' lived experiences* (CP2), and a third, Jen used CPP to *problematize the topic* (CP3) by asking what students could do if they wanted to exercise but didn't have enough money for a gym membership.

In the CG group, two ST, used CPP to *draw from and validate what their students know*. For example, Adam did so by writing student examples on the board. One ST, Neal, used CPP to *focus on their students' lived experiences* by asking his students to choose what characteristics best described their personality. Two STs used CPLL to *focus on their students' lived experiences* because they limited students' options about personality adjectives to ones predetermined by the STs.

Table 8

Lesson 1: Number of Students Incorporating each of the Three Critical Principles by Group

LESSON 1	CP 1	CP 2	CP 3
CPA+ (n=4)			
CPA (n=7)	4 CPLL 1 FA	2 CPP	1 CPP
CG (n=9)	1 CPP 1 CPLL	1 CPP 2 CPLL	

NB: CP refers to Critical Principle

To summarize the data from the STs first lessons, the CPA+ STs did not incorporate any of the three critical pedagogy principles whereas the CPA and CG groups incorporated some, albeit to a limited degree.

Lesson 2

In their second lessons, the CPA+ group incorporated CPP into their teaching. Two CPA+ STs, Sara and Ken, used CPP to *draw from and validated what their students*

knew. Sara asked how home decor in their countries compares to home decor in Canada and Ken wrote student-generated synonyms on the board. Two CPA+ STs also used CPP to *focus on their students' lived experiences*. For example, a student told Sara that she had never been to a Canadian house so Sara switched the discussion to the differences between pharmacies, rather than houses, in different countries compared to Canada. Two CPA+ STs, Vicky and Sara, used CPP to *problematize the topic*. Vicky did so by asking why all artists on a worksheet she used are from the West and then generated a class discussion, and Sara did so when a student said that most decorative objects used in an activity were made in China. None of the CPA+ STs used CPLL for any of the critical pedagogy principles. Heather failed in her attempt (FA) to problematize when she showed pictures of hungry children and asked the class how the pictures made them feel without further exploration of the issue

In the CPA group, one STs used CPP to *draw from and validate what their students know* while two STs used CPLL for the same principle. For example, Ranya used CPLL because she asked students to explain new words to each other or to look in dictionaries to find the definitions, and Jen, encouraged her students to correct each other. In contrast, Sandra was coded FA for this principle. When a student gave an example by saying that an umbrella is wacky, she disagreed because she wanted the word efficient even though wacky worked in the context. One ST, Rachel, used CPP to *focus on the students' lived experiences* by having students ask each other questions about their own experiences and opinions.

One CG ST, Alexandra, used CPP to *problematize the topic*. As a response to her students' conversation about using the internet to get married and divorced, Alexandra generated discussion by questioning whether this had only positive outcomes as the students had stated. Ricky, also from the CG group, was coded as FA for *draw from and validate what students know* because her response to a computer-savvy student's answer about computer preferences was "if you get too technical I don't think you have the right person", which did not validate the students' knowledge (see Table 9).

Table 9

Lesson 2: Number of STs Incorporating each of the Three Critical Principles by Group

LESSON 2	CP 1	CP 2	CP 3
CPA+ (n=4)	2 CPP	2 CPP	2 CPP 1 FA
CPA (n=7)	1 CPP 1 CPLL 1 FA	1 CPP	
CG (n=9)	1 CPLL 1 FA		1 CPP

NB: CP refers to Critical Principle

In sum, the CPA+ group made the most gains in incorporating CPP from the first to the second lesson and outperformed the other two groups with respect to critical pedagogy overall.

Lesson 3

Table 10 shows that in the third lesson, one CPA+ ST used CPP to *draw from and validated what students' know* and one CPA+ ST, Vicky, used CPLL for the same principle by asking her students to count how many times each group of students used the target language when they were presenting their dialogue to the class. This technique turned some of the responsibility over to the students as they were not looking to the teacher for the right answer. Additionally, two STs used CPP to *focus on their students' lived experiences*. For example Ken asked students about their experiences with losing or stealing something. Two STs, Vicky and Ken, used CPP to problematize the topic. Vicky asked students if they would steal a 20 dollar bill they saw fall out of someone's wallet if they needed the money to feed their family, and Ken asked the students if they would steal an apple if they had no food at home. One ST, Heather, was coded as FA to *draw from and validate what student know* because she corrected her students as they were reading their dialogue, which did not give the other students a chance to decide how much of the target language they had used correctly. Heather was also coded as FA for *focusing on lived experiences and problematizing the topic* as she asked students what they would do if they won the lottery, and when a Muslim student did not want to give an answer she told the student that she would help the poor without acknowledging that the student cannot gamble because of her religion. Here, Heather did not get the student to produce a conditional sentence and she did not take the woman's religion into consideration for a possible reason why she could not answer the question.

Two CPA STs used CPP to *draw from and validate what their students know* and one ST, Jen, used CPLL for the same principle as she validated a student's answers by telling the class that the answer they gave was grammatically correct although it was incorrect as they had not used a possessive pronoun which was required for the activity. Four CPA STs were coded as FA to *draw from and validate what students know*. For example, Jack was coded as FA when a student said that cars are an important invention and he responded "oh you mean vehicles". Three STs used CPP to *focus on what their students' know*. For example, Rachel asks her students what they did to help the environment. One ST, Jen, used CPP to *problematize* as she asked if students would keep the money from a wallet they found and if their answer would change if they saw a homeless person after finding the wallet while one ST, Farah, was coded as FA for same principle because when the students compared laws in their countries, such as polygamy and smoking in public, these topics were brought up without any further discussion.

Table 10

Lesson 3: Number of STs Incorporating each of the Three Critical Principles by Group

LESSON 3	CP 1	CP 2	CP 3
CPA+ (n=4)	1 CPP 1 CPLL	2 CPP 1 FA	2 CPP 1 FA
CPA (n=7)	2 CPP 1 CPLL 4 FA	3 CPP	1 CPP 1 FA
CG (n=9)	2 FA	2 CPP	

NB: CP refers to Critical Principle

In the CG group, two CG ST failed in their attempts to use CP (FA) to *draw from and validate what students know*. For example, Simon asked the students where they used the internet and stopped the conversation when one student said internet cafe as that was the topic of his lesson. Two STs incorporated CPP to *focus on students' lived experiences*. Gwen led her students in a debate about the benefits and dangers of the Internet and Neal had a discussion that compared old-fashioned values to current ones.

In sum, the CPA+ group incorporated more CPP into their teaching than the CPA or CG groups although these groups incorporated more than they had in the first two set of lessons. Additionally, more STs failed in their attempts to use CP (FA) for the three critical pedagogy principles than had in the first two sets of lessons.

To summarize the data from the three sets of lessons, all three groups incorporated some of the critical pedagogy principles from the CPP approach. However, the data show that the CPA+ group increased the most from their first to their second lessons. In their first lessons, none of the CPA+ STs incorporated CPP into their teaching. In the second lessons, 50% of the CPA+ STs incorporated each of the three critical pedagogy principles from a CPP approach. For their third lessons, 25% incorporated CPP to *draw from and validate what students know* and 50% incorporated the CPP approach to *focus on lived experiences and problematize the topic*.

By comparison, the CPA group applied some CPP in each of their teaching sessions. They incorporated less CPP in their first and second lessons compared to their third lessons. Their largest increase occurred for the principle *focus on their students lived experiences* where 28% applied CPP in their first lessons, 14% in their second lessons and 43% in their third lessons.

Like the CPA group, the CG group applied some CPP in each of their teaching sessions. They also incorporated less CPP in their first and second lessons compared to their third lessons. However, they incorporate less CPP overall than the CPA group. In their first lessons, 11% incorporated CPP to *draw from and validate what STs know* and 11% applied CPP to *focus on lived experiences*. For their second lessons, 11% applied CPP to *problematize the topic* and for their third lessons, 22% applied the CPP approach to *focus on lived experiences*.

Feedback Sessions

As explained in Chapter 3, the CPA+ and CPA STs were asked to fill out a critical pedagogy peer evaluation grid (see Appendix B) and comment on the incorporation of the three principles of critical pedagogy by their peers during the 30-minute group debriefing after every teaching session.

The comments made by the STs as well as the instructor and me were from both the CPP and CPLL perspectives. Additionally, there were also a few misunderstandings about how to incorporate the principles (see Table 11).

Problematizing and desk formation were the focus of the first group feedback session. Ranya asked us to clarify what we meant by problematizing, and the instructor explained it from a CPLL approach by saying that it involves asking questions about topics that provoke thought amongst adult learners to encourage them to use language to express their opinions. In turn, this desire to speak facilitates learning of new language. However, Ranya misunderstood the instructor's explanation as she gave an example about Jack problematizing a grammar explanation because there were many unanswered questions at the end of his lesson. However, in this case, Jack's grammar explanation was misunderstood by his students rather than problematized. I then brought up the issue of desk formation, and Jen and Sara said that when desks are in a semi-circle, all the attention is on the teacher. Then, in line with CPP, the STs said that students can be more independent in groups by checking their answers together without having to look to the teacher for the right answer.

In the second CPA feedback session, the STs gave examples of the incorporation of the three critical pedagogy principles from CPLL. For example, Eric said that all STs *drew from and validated what students know* by building on language that other teachers had taught. Some STs also misunderstood how to incorporate the principles from a critical pedagogy perspective. Ranya, for instance, gave an example of Eric problematizing his pronunciation activity because “it was interesting and made people think”, which again shows that she misunderstood the instructor’s explanation of *problematizing*.

In the third feedback session, Vicky told the class that she had successfully incorporated all three of the critical pedagogy principles because she asked students for expressions that had been learned in the previous lesson to *draw from and validate what students know*, asked who their favourite artists were to *focus on students’ lived experiences*, and asked why all artists they had discussed were from the west to *problematize the topic*. Here, the first critical principle was coded as CPLL as the activity helped students practice language rather than question power relations in society. However, the second and third critical principles were coded as CPP as they gave students the chance to question power relations within society. Following Farah’s request, the instructor tried to clarify what we meant by *problematizing* again by saying that it is about questioning givens in society to encourage students to express themselves with the language that has been taught. She gave an example by asking why people pay 5000 dollars for art when others cannot even afford a piece of bread. This was coded as CPP.

Feedback session four focused on asking real or genuine questions. Eric said he had experienced being a student in a class where the teacher did not validate an answer because it was not exactly what the teacher was looking for. Sara misunderstood *problematizing* because she gave an example of Farah's incorporation of the principle by asking controversial questions about marriage and body piercings; nonetheless, this cannot be considered *problematizing* because these topics were not related to larger social issues.

Table 11

Group Feedback Sessions

Feedback session	
1	<p>Getting down to the students' level: I: 1 CPP</p> <p>Desk formation: I: 3 CPP ST : 1 CPP</p> <p>Problematizing: I: 1 CPLL, 1 Misunderstood CP ST: 1 Misunderstood CP</p>
2	<p>Problematizing: I: 1 CPLL ST: 1 CPLL, 2 Misunderstood CP</p>
3	<p>Problematizing: I: 1 CPP, 2 CPLL ST: 2 CPP, 1 CPLL</p>
4	<p>Elicitation: I: 1 CPP ST: 1 CPP, 1 Misunderstood CP</p>
5	<p>Elicitation: ST: 1 Misunderstood CP</p> <p>Desk formation: ST: 3 CPP</p>

NB: I – Instructor ST – Student

The fifth feedback session also focused on asking genuine questions instead of playing the elicitation guessing game, as well as desk formation. To show that she had understood how to ask genuine questions, Vicky said that when she did not get the answers she was looking for, she re-phrased her question to get the answer she wanted. Here, Vicky demonstrated that she misunderstood how to *draw from and validate what students know* as she was looking for specific answers. In relation to desk formation, Sara, Vicky and Jen stated that students can work best together in groups of four although they all agree that they should not be in groups when the teacher is giving instructions because the students do not listen to the teacher. These comments about desk formation are related to power relations between the teacher and the students and are accordingly all examples of CPP.

Summary of Results

In this chapter, I have analyzed data from the students' beliefs questionnaires, their lesson plans, teaching sessions and feedback sessions. Data analyzed to answer Research Questions 1 and 2 show that in general, the STs in all three groups were in agreement with the three critical pedagogy principles before and after the treatment. However, data analyzed to answer Research Questions 3 and 4 demonstrate that the STs did not incorporate the three critical pedagogy principles very often. The data also show that the CPA+ group incorporated CPP more than the CPA and CG groups in their second and third sets of lessons. Reasons for the limited incorporation of the principles overall as well as the CPA+ groups' greater incorporation of the principles are discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This chapter addresses the results with respect to each of the four research questions. The findings for Research Question 1 and 2 show that in general, the STs' beliefs were in line with critical pedagogy both before and after the treatment. The STs' familiarity with CLT is a possible explanation that is expanded on below. The findings for Research Question 3 show that STs from all three groups incorporated CPP although they did so to a limited degree. The results are compared to studies from the literature review to offer some possible explanations. Findings for Research Question 4 reveal that the CPA+ group incorporated CPP more than the CPA and CG groups, and also that they demonstrated the greatest increase from their first to their third lessons. Explanations discussed include group feedback sessions, individual feedback sessions, teaching experience and themes from *Top Notch*. The chapter ends with the limitations and pedagogical implications of this study.

Student-teachers' Beliefs

The data from the beliefs questionnaires were used to answer Research Question 1, which asks if STs' beliefs about critical pedagogy change over a 13-week introductory pedagogy course that incorporates a CPP component. According to the findings, in general, STs seemed to be in agreement with the critical pedagogy principles both before and after the treatment. However, the STs may have interpreted the statements in the questionnaire from a CPLL rather than a CPP perspective because the questions had to be general enough for the novice teachers to understand before being exposed to critical pedagogy. For example, under the category *focus on students' lived experiences*, the

statement “*Lesson plans should be flexible and change according to student needs and interests*” does not reflect a CPP principle. To do so, the statement would have to indicate that the lesson should include topics decided by the students. If the statement had been written in such a way, I am not sure that eighteen out of twenty students would have agreed in the pre, as is the case with the original statement. However, some items were worded in such a way that changes in beliefs could be measured. For the CP principle *problematizing the topic*, seven students who had agreed at the pretest with the statement “*The teachers should talk more than the students because the teacher is the expert*” disagreed with it at the posttest. Although the change is in the predicted direction and suggests that some STs’ beliefs changed in favour of empowering students to have a voice in the classroom, it is not possible to know how ‘critical’ their beliefs actually were. This is because student-centered teaching is a fundamental pedagogical principle of CLT and was emphasized in the STs’ pedagogy and practicum course.

Interestingly, in relation to Research Question 2, which addresses differences between the critical awareness developed by STs who are given extra critical reflection time and those who are given only a basic overview, it is the CPA+ STs who changed their answers most drastically from not agreeing with some of the critical pedagogy statement in the pre, to agreeing with them in the post. For example, in the pre, only two CPA+ STs agreed with the statement “*Lesson plans should be flexible and change according to students’ needs and interests*” compared to four in the post. Moreover, all CPA+ STs agreed that “*the teacher should talk more than the students*” in the pre while they all disagreed in the post. This is in line with Frederick et al. (2010) and Tillema

(1995), who observed that teachers tend to teach the way they were taught unless they are exposed to something drastic to challenge their initial beliefs. The CPA+ STs, who were exposed to more critical pedagogy in their individual feedback sessions, and had their assumptions about ‘good pedagogy’ challenged the most directly and the most often, are the ones who changed their answers the most from the pre to post.

Thus far, the discussion about the incorporation of critical pedagogy has been centered on theory and teacher beliefs. In the next paragraphs, I will take a deeper look at the degree to which the STs incorporated the three principles into their teaching.

Student-teachers’ Lessons

The data that address Research Question 3, which asks if the three critical pedagogy principles are present in the STs’ lessons, show that the STs from all three groups implemented CPP although the incorporation was limited and varied according to treatment group. A comparison with some of the studies presented in Chapter 2 suggests that the context of the study and the STs’ limited teaching experience may have contributed to their low incorporation rate. In comparison to the studies from the literature review that included CPP, the current study was carried out within a structured context as STs were required to use a predetermined course book, and they were being formally assessed by guidelines imposed by the university curriculum. Moreover, the majority of STs in the study had little to no experience. That is, they were novice teachers.

In contrast, studies from the literature review that incorporate CPP were conducted in less structured contexts with more experienced teachers. Frye’s (1999)

study exemplifies both these points. Her prior teaching experience and the less structured context enabled her to build her lessons around issues central to the lives of immigrant women as defined by the participants themselves. Frye's students were able to discuss the many definitions of empowerment present in the class. Many of the women came from societies where equal access to power was not the norm, and thus many of them were not comfortable discussing empowerment from a political perspective. Yet, when empowerment was discussed on a more personal level through the participants' own experiences and achievements, they saw the power they had to make changes in their lives. Here, Frye incorporated all three principles from a CPP perspective although she did not include a language focus.

A CPP approach is also incorporated into Ullman's 1999 study. Like Frye (1999), Ullman's study took place in a less structured context than the current study and the majority of her participants were experienced teachers. Ullman's project, entitled *Empowerment Through Curriculum*, had two goals. The first was to write a collaborative textbook by building on students' knowledge, and the second was to experientially challenge teachers' assumptions regarding their students. As a result of the project, teachers began to rethink their role in the classroom and to take more control of their own educational experiences.

The two studies described above focus on challenging power relations. For example, Frye (1999) explores power relations between teacher and students while Ullman (1999) focuses on power relations between teachers and teacher educators. However, neither of these studies includes language goals. In contrast, the studies that

can be considered to represent CPLL incorporated a language focus as well as a critical pedagogy approach. For example, Morgan (2004) incorporated the context of the 1995 referendum on sovereignty in Quebec to show how a constant focus on broader critical concerns (comparing the referendum with the political change manifesting itself in Hong Kong, the students' place of origin) could be interwoven with standard elements of ESL pedagogy such as modal tenses. Similarly, Canagarajah (1999) presents an example of incorporating CPLL into TBLT because the teachers in his study *drew from and validated what students knew and focused on their lived experiences* to facilitate grammar instruction, rather than solely exploring power relations. Correspondingly, Pennycook (2004) provides a narrative account of his experience as a teacher-educator observing practicum teaching. He advocates for a way of questioning, discussing and negotiating where student-teachers can critically reflect on their teaching experience to improve their teaching skills.

Morgan (2004), Canagarajah (1999) and Pennycook (2004) all incorporated the first two critical principles, namely *draw from and validate what students know and focus on lived experiences* from a CPLL perspective; however, they cannot be considered to have included the third critical pedagogy principle, *problematize the topic*, because this one goes beyond language learning. In other words, problematizing topics allow students to challenge power relations within society without focusing on specific language points. Thus the current study differs from those in the literature review, as some of the STs were able to include all three principles. However, as stated above, the structured context of the study did not always facilitate the incorporation of the three critical principles. The

following paragraphs explore the data used to answer Research Question 4 to try and understand the degrees to which the STs incorporated the three critical principles.

Research Question 4 asks if there is a difference in the incorporation of critical pedagogy into micro-lessons between STs who are given extra critical reflection time and those who are only given a basic overview of critical pedagogy. The data show that STs from the different groups incorporated the principles to varying degrees. Several factors, including group feedback sessions, individual feedback sessions, teaching experience, and themes from *Top Notch* may be responsible for these differences.

The CG group incorporated less critical pedagogy than the CPA and CPA+ groups. The CG group's low incorporation rate may be attributed to the fact that they did not receive a critical pedagogy focus in their group or in individual feedback sessions. Their information about critical pedagogy was limited to a short article on the topic, a one-hour presentation and a one-hour workshop. It seems that this limited exposure did not equip the STs with the necessary tools to incorporate critical pedagogy very often. For example, the CG STs did not *problematize* when the opportunity presented itself in their lessons. Megan had students act out role plays about a time when their values clashed with someone else's; however, rather than question why these clashes took place, she put a positive spin on the situations by saying that people are entitled to their own opinions. Similarly, a student in Ricky's lesson said that he thought that one character in a dialogue was a woman because women talk all the time. Instead of questioning the stereotypical statement, Ricky simply answered "yes, that's right".

Teacher beliefs and experience are other possible factors that may have contributed to the CG groups' low incorporation rate. Although most of the CG STs who incorporated CPP were novice teachers, the lower incorporation rate could be attributed to the fact that they were not exposed to critical pedagogy in much depth. Additionally, five of the nine STs in the CG group had some prior teaching experience (from one to ten years). These STs' did not incorporate CPP as much as the novice teachers in the same group. According to Coffey (2010), they may have interpreted the critical pedagogy principles from a CLT perspective because the techniques were similar to techniques they were already familiar with. For example, with ten years of teaching experience, Simon did not incorporate any of the principles from a critical perspective. However, he often elicited vocabulary from his students by asking them specific questions to guide them to a particular topic. As discussed above, this cannot be considered as applying critical pedagogy to *draw from and validate what students know* because the students' knowledge is not being validated. A possible explanation comes from Simon's training in CLT because he was taught to narrow the focus of his lessons by eliciting specific information from his students. The STs' experience as students may also be a contributing factor. As Moen (2006) states, student-teachers may not pay as much attention to teaching techniques if they are not explicitly identified because they feel that they are familiar with them from being students for so long.

The themes of the lessons offer another possible explanation for the differences among the groups in terms of their incorporation of critical pedagogy. For every lesson, the STs adapted chapters from *Top Notch 2* or *3* (Saslow & Ascher, 2006a & 2006b). The

CG STs taught their first lessons about *Psychology and Personality*, their second lessons about *Living with Computers*, and their third lessons about *Ethics and Values*. The first and third themes seem to lend themselves more easily to the incorporation of the three critical pedagogy principles. This may help to explain why more CG STs started out their first lesson with more instances of critical pedagogy than the other two groups. However, it can also be argued that the three principles can be applied to all three themes.

The CPA group incorporated more CP principles into their teaching than the CG group and in contrast to the CG group, they incorporated less CPP in their first and second lessons than in their third lessons. Unlike the CG group, the CPA group's feedback sessions had a critical pedagogy focus which may account for the different trend reported. For example, some of the CPA STs *focused on their students' lived experiences* by telling stories about a personal experience to introduce their lessons, which was a suggestion made by the instructor and myself in their group feedback sessions. More STs also *problematized the topic*, which may be because problematizing was discussed in the group feedback sessions. However, the STs' limited exposure to critical pedagogy made it difficult for them to fully understand the three critical pedagogy principles. For example, Eric praised Jack for *drawing from and validating what his students knew* by writing their examples of inventions on the board. However, as discussed above, Jack did not validate what his students knew as he wrote a synonym (vehicle) instead of the word uttered by the student (car).

In terms of teacher beliefs and experience, like the CG group, most of the STs in the CPA group who incorporated CPP were novice teachers. Thus, they may have

incorporated critical pedagogy more than the CG STs because there was an explicit focus on it in the group feedback sessions.

As with the CG group, the lesson's themes are not a plausible explanation for the incorporation trends among the CPA group. They taught their first lessons on the theme of *Disasters and Emergencies*, their second lessons about *Inventions and Technology* and their third lessons about *Enjoying the world*. These themes do not necessarily correspond to the CPA groups' incorporation of critical pedagogy that increased from lessons one to three because it can be argued that the three principles can be applied to all three themes.

As shown in Chapter 4, the CPA+ STs made the most systematic effort at incorporating critical pedagogy. They increased the most in their incorporation from their first to third lessons and also incorporated more critical pedagogy overall than the CPA and CG groups. These differences are likely due to the fact that their group feedback sessions, as well as their individual feedback sessions, focused on critical pedagogy. For example, although problematizing was a difficult concept for the STs in the CPA and CPA+ group feedback sessions, the CPA+ STs' individual feedback sessions helped clarify CPP as the instructor and I gave these STs personalized suggestions on how to *problematize* their activities. In one of the group feedback sessions, Vicky told the other STs how suggestions from the instructor and me helped her incorporate the critical pedagogy principles into her teaching. Vicky enumerated the three points that she incorporated by saying:

I focused on their lived experiences by asking who their favourite artists are, I validated what they know by asking for a couple expressions from previous classes, and I problematized by asking where most of the artists on the handout I used come from.

With teacher beliefs and experience, the CPA+ STs' beliefs and incorporation of critical pedagogy may have changed the most from their first to their third lessons because they were exposed to a radically different point of view (Coffey, 2010; Frederick et al., 2010; Tillema, 1995). None of the CPA+ STs incorporated critical pedagogy in their first lessons, which they taught before taking part in the group and individual feedback sessions, while the rate of incorporation increased after their first feedback sessions. Although their group made the most systematic incorporation of CPP, Vicky and Sara incorporated critical pedagogy more than Ken and Heather. These differences cannot be attributed to teaching experience as all four CPA+ STs were novice teachers. Differences in the ways these STs were taught may have contributed to the STs' different incorporation rates; however, the current study did not examine the STs' educational backgrounds. Yet, during the individual feedback sessions, all four STs said that they believed the three critical pedagogy principles could help them be better teachers and help make their classes more interesting for their students. Thus, it seems as though they all gained critical awareness, and incorporating the principles may take more time than they had during the practicum to develop in their teaching.

Like the CG and CPA groups, the themes of the lessons do not necessarily correspond to the CPA+ groups' incorporation of critical pedagogy that increased from lessons one to three because it can be argued that all three principles can be applied to all

three themes. The CPA+ group taught their first lessons on the theme of *Eating Well*, their second lessons about *Enjoying the arts* and their third lessons about *Ethics and Values*.

In sum, it would appear that the differences in the extent to which the three groups incorporated critical pedagogy can be explained by the group and individual feedback sessions, rather than by prior teaching experience or the themes of the lessons. The CG group that incorporated CP less successfully and less frequently than the other groups did not receive information about critical pedagogy in their group or individual feedback sessions. In contrast, the CPA group that incorporated more CPP than the CG group, and also increased in their incorporation from the first to the third lessons, had a critical pedagogy focus in their group feedback sessions but not their individual feedback sessions. It was the CPA+ group that incorporated critical pedagogy most strongly and increased the most from the first to their third lesson; this may be attributed to the fact that they received critical pedagogy feedback in both their group and individual feedback sessions.

The next sections discuss some limitations of the study followed by benefits of including critical pedagogy in teacher education programs.

Limitations

The restricted incorporation of critical pedagogy can be attributed to constraints in relation to the design and context of the study. First, the study was designed with a control group and thus only four STs received the maximum amount of critical pedagogy feedback. If all STs had received a critical pedagogy focus during their group and

individual feedback sessions, the number of STs who incorporated critical pedagogy could have been greater. Second, the practicum course was constrained by the Ministère de l'Éducation, du Loisir et du Sport du Québec that imposes guidelines and requirements on the B.Ed specialization in TESL curriculum. Given these restrictions, the incorporation of the critical pedagogy principles by the four CPA+ STs shows that their inclusion can be beneficial. Ideas of how to include critical pedagogy in teacher education courses are given next.

Pedagogic Implications

One suggestion is to include the three critical pedagogy principles in an upper year TESL course so that student-teachers have more teaching experience to draw from as they learn the principles. In my view, even more experienced student-teachers will require time and many practice opportunities in order to understand how to incorporate CPLL within their teaching unless an entire course is dedicated to exploring the critical pedagogy literature and the associated school-based practica include a critical pedagogy focus. Indeed, it can be argued that the only way to incorporate the principles from a truly critical perspective would be to create a new critical pedagogy course where student-teacher would be instructed as well as teach from a critical pedagogy perspective. In other words, the student-teachers would work in collaboration with their students to decide on topics and themes to be covered, as well as the grading system.

Although the suggestion above is an interesting option, it may not be possible in a teacher education program such as the one in which this study was conducted. The most straightforward way to incorporate the principles is to integrate them into a general

practicum course as I have done in this study and to follow up in subsequent pedagogy and practicum courses. For example, the discussion generated from Vicky's questions about why all artists on the handout she used were from the West (and none from the developing world) gave students the desire to discuss reasons for this phenomenon. Similarly, Sara was also able to create dialogue when she told her students about losing her wallet and asked what the students thought the thief did with her money. These two examples show the benefits of systematically integrating the three principles in TESL pedagogy and practicum courses throughout the teacher education program. If these principles become a focus of pedagogic instruction they can help student-teachers personalize their activities to raise their students' awareness of critical pedagogy opportunities in published materials and help their students become more responsible for their own learning. Ultimately, student-teachers can become empowered to analyze and act on their students' knowledge and experiences to challenge hierarchical social relations and power structures, and to become more effective teachers.

Summary of Discussion

This chapter has offered potential explanations for the trends found in Chapter 4. The STs' familiarity with CLT was given as an explanation for the finding that, in general, the STs' beliefs were in line with a CPLL version of critical pedagogy both before and after the treatment. The chapter also showed that critical pedagogy-focused group and individual feedback sessions are likely responsible for the CPA+ group's greater incorporation of CPP. The chapter ended with some limitations of the study and recommendations for the systematic inclusion of the three critical pedagogy principles

into general TESL pedagogy courses as well as practicum courses such as the one described in this study.

Conclusion

This study has shown that critical pedagogy can be characterised by two approaches. The first, CPLL, uses themes from critical pedagogy with the main goal of helping students learn language through talking, listening, reading and writing about political and social issues. The second approach, CPP, corresponds to situations where the main objective is to challenge power relations within society; language instruction is secondary. Although some previous studies have incorporated either CPLL or CPP in TESL education programs, this study attempted to integrate both.

The findings show that in general, the STs in all three treatment groups were in agreement with the three critical pedagogy principles before and after the treatment. However, the STs did not incorporate these principles into their teaching very often. The data also show that the CPA+ group incorporated CPP more than the CPA and CG groups in their second and third sets of lessons. A possible explanation for this finding is that the CPA+ group received more critical pedagogy focused feedback. From these findings, I recommended that the three critical pedagogy principles be systematically integrated into general TESL pedagogy and practicum courses. When applying the principles, TESL educators and student-teachers must take into consideration specific linguistic, social, cultural and political particularities of the contexts in which they work in order to maximize the effects of the critical pedagogy principles.

REFERENCES

- Auerbach, E. R. (1995). In James E. Tollefson (Ed.), *Power and inequality in language Education* (pp. 9-33). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Auerbach, E.R., & Burgess, D. (1985). The hidden curriculum of survival ESL. *TESOL Quarterly*, 19, 3, 475- 495.
- Brutt-Griffler, J. & Samimy, K. (1999). Revisiting the colonial in the postcolonial: critical praxis for non-native- English- speaking teachers in a TESOL program. *TESOL Quarterly*, 33, 3, 413- 431.
- Canagarajah, S. (1999). *Resisting Linguistic Imperialism in English Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Clarke, M. A. (1994). The dysfunctions of the theory/practice discourse. *TESOL Quarterly*, 28, 1, 9-26.
- Coffey, H. (2010). They taught me”: the benefits of an early community based field experience in teacher education. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 26, 335–342.
- Crookes, G. & Lehner, A. (1998). Aspects of progress in an ESL critical pedagogy teacher education course. *TESOL Quarterly*, 32, 2, 319-328.
- Dornyei, Z. (2003). *Questionnaires in second language research: construction, administration and processing*. Mahwah NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Edge, J. & Wharton, S. (1998). Autonomy and development: living in the materials world. In B. Tomlinson (Eds), *Materials development in language teaching* (pp. 295- 310). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Ellsworth, E. (1989). Why doesn't this feel empowering? Working through the repressive

- myths of critical pedagogy. *Harvard Educational Review*, 59, 297-324.
- Frederick, R., Cave, A., & Perencevich, K. (2010). Teacher candidates' transformative thinking on issues of social justice. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 26, 315–322.
- Freeman, D. (1990). Intervening in practice teaching. In J. C. Richards & D. Nunan (Eds), *Second language teacher education* (pp. 103-117). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Freeman, D. & Johnson, K.E. (1998). Reconceptualizing the knowledge- base of language teacher education. *TESOL Quarterly*, 32, 3, 397- 417.
- Freire, P. (1970). *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*. New York: Seabury Press.
- Fridland, G. & Dalle, T. (2002). “Start with what they know, build with what they have”: survival skills for refugee women. In E. Auerbach (Eds.), *Community Partnerships* (pp. 27-39). Virginia: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, Inc.
- Frye, D. (1999). Participatory education as a critical framework for an immigrant women's ESL class. *TESOL Quarterly*, 33, 3, 501-513.
- Gatbonton, E. (1999). Investigating experienced ESL teachers' pedagogical knowledge. *The Modern Language Journal*, 83, i, 35-50.
- Gatbonton, E. (2008). Looking beyond teachers' classroom behaviour: novice and experienced ESL teachers' pedagogical knowledge. *Language Teaching Research*, 12, 2, 161-182.
- Goldstein, T. (1994). We are all sisters, so we don't have to be polite: Language choice

- and English language training in the multiple workplace. *TESL Canada*, 11, 2, 30- 45.
- Gore, J.M. (1993). The struggle for pedagogies: Critical and feminist discourses as regimes of *truth*. New York: Routledge.
- Grady, K. (1997). Critically reading an ESL text. *TESOL Journal*, 6, 4, 7-10.
- Graman, T. (1988). Education for humanization: Applying Paulo Freire`s pedagogy to learning a second language. *Harvard Educational Review*, 58, 4, 433-448.
- Hooks, Bell. (1994). Teaching to transgress: education as the practice of freedom. New York: Routledge.
- Johnson, K. E. (1996). The vision versus the reality: the tension of the TESOL practicum. In D. Freeman and J.C. Richards (Eds), *Teacher Learning in Language Teaching* (pp. 30-49). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Johnston, B. (1999). Putting critical pedagogy in its place: a personal account. *TESOL Quarterly*, 33, 3, 557-565.
- Kagan, D.M. (1992). Professional growth among preservice and beginning teachers. *Review of Educational Research*, 62, 2, 129-169.
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (1994). The postmethod condition: (E)merging strategies for second/foreign language teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*, 28, 1, 27-48.
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (2003). *Beyond methods : macrostrategies for language teaching*. New Haven: Yale University Press.
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006a). Understanding language teaching: from method to postmethod. Mahwah NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

- Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006b). TESOL methods: Changing tracks, challenging trends. *TESOL Quarterly*, 40, 1, 59-81.
- Moen, T. (2006). Reflections of the narrative research approach. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 5, 4, 1-11.
- Morgan, B. (1998). *Modals and memories: a grammar lesson on the Quebec referendum on sovereignty*. In K. Toohey & B. Norton (Eds), *Critical pedagogies and language learning* (pp. 158-178). Cambridge : Cambridge University Press.
- Programme de formation de l'école québécoise. (2001). Gouvernement du Québec Ministère de l'Éducation, 01- 00374. Quebec: Bibliothèque nationale du Québec.
- Pennycook, A. (1989). The concept of method, interested knowledge, and the politics of language teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*, 23, 589-618.
- Pennycook, A. (2001). *Critical applied linguistics: a critical introduction*. Mahwah NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Richards, J.C. (1998). *Beyond training: perspectives on language teacher education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J.C., Farrell, T. S.C. (2005). *Professional development for language teachers: strategies for teacher learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J. C., Lockhart, C. (1994). *Reflective teaching in second language classrooms*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J.C., Tung, P. & Ng, P. (1992). The culture of the English language teacher: a Hong Kong example. *RELC Journal*, 23, 81-102.
- Saslow, J.M., Ascher, A. (2006a). *Top notch English for today's world 2*. White Plains,

- New York: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Saslow, J.M., Ascher, A. (2006b). *Top notch English for today's world 3*. White Plains, New York: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Senior, R. M. (2006). *The Experience of Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Spada, N. (1997). Form- focused instruction in second language acquisition: a review of classroom and laboratory research. *Language Teaching*, 30, 73-87.
- Tillema, H.H. (1995). Changing the professional knowledge and beliefs of teachers: a training study. *Learning and Instruction*, 5, 291-318.
- Tsui, A. B. M. (2003). *Understanding expertise in teaching in teaching*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Tsui, A. B. M. (2005). Expertise in teaching: perspectives and issues. In K. Johnson (Eds), *Expertise in second language learning and teaching* (pp. 167-189). New York: Palgrave Mcmillian.
- Ullman, C. (1999). Between discourse and practice: immigrant rights, curriculum development, and ESL teacher education. *TESOL Quarterly*, 33, 3, 513- 528.
- Usher, R. & Edwards, R. (1994). *Postmodernism and education*. London: Routledge.
- Wallerstein, N., Auerbach, E. (2004). *Problem-posing at work: popular educator's guide*. Edmonton Alberta: Grass Roots Press.

Appendix A: Experience and Beliefs Questionnaire

Please fill out the following information:

Name:

Age:

Year of study in the Bachelor of Education Program:

Do you have experience teaching ESL?

If so, please describe that experience in terms of years and context of teaching experience as well as age and proficiency of students:

Instructions: Following are a number of statements about how English as a Second Language should be learned and taught. Please indicate your opinion after each statement by putting an 'X' in the box that best indicates the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement.

1. The teacher should talk more than the students because the teacher is the expert.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Don't know Agree Strongly Agree

2. Learning is a two-way process; thus teachers can also learn from students.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Don't know Agree Strongly Agree

3. Teachers should try to follow a chosen method as closely as possible.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Don't know Agree Strongly Agree

4. Material should build on what students already know.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Don't know Agree Strongly Agree

5. Students should be encouraged to question and critique materials found in textbooks.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Don't know Agree Strongly Agree

6. During class discussions, questions should be structured as to elicit only vocabulary learned in class.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Don't know Agree Strongly Agree

7. Grammar is the most important concept for students to learn.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Don't know Agree Strongly Agree

8. Teachers should not deviate from textbook instructions.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Don't know Agree Strongly Agree

9. During class discussions, questions should be open-ended to allow students to bring in their own ideas.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Don't know Agree Strongly Agree

10. Lesson plans should be flexible and change according to student needs and interests.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Don't know Agree Strongly Agree

Appendix B: Peer and instructor observation grid

PEER EVALUATION FORM - CRITICAL PEDAGOGY		
	Good Points	Suggestions for improvement
Draw from and validate what students know		
Focus on students' lived-experiences		
Problematize topics		

Appendix C: Guided Reading Questions

Instructions: As you read the article *Critically Reading an ESL Text* by Karen Grady (1997) please answer the following questions:

1. According to Grady, what kind of information is considered important in *Intercom 2000*?
2. According to Grady, are students' real life experiences portrayed in *Intercom 2000*?
3. What does Grady suggest can be done to create a more realistic portrayal of students' experiences?

Please bring this form to class next week

Appendix D: Lesson Plan for Lecture and *Top Notch* Excerpt

Pre

The student-teachers (STs) will be asked to read the article *Critically Reading an ESL Text* by Karen Grady (1997) for homework and answer the following questions: 1) What kind of information is considered important in *Intercom 2000*? 2) Are students' real life experiences portrayed in *Intercom 2000*? and 3) What does Grady suggest can be done to create a more realistic portrayal of students' experiences?

In class, the STs will be asked to look over their answers with a partner. Then, by means of a PowerPoint presentation, I will review the three principles of critical pedagogy introduced through the reading (draw from and validate what students already know; focus on lived experiences; problematize topics).

While

The STs will be given a copy of the dialogue *Make an Appointment to See a Dentist* on page 16 of *Top Notch 3* and be asked to work in pairs to decide if the three critical principles are present in the dialogue.

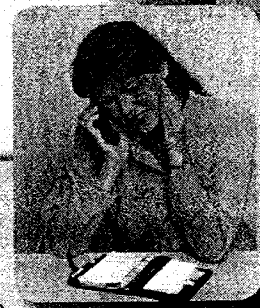
Then, I will provide examples of how to incorporate the principles into the dialogue. For example, to draw on and validate what students already know, questions to compare dentists in their countries and Canada could be used to introduce the topic; to focus on lived experiences, the dialogue could be rewritten to include a more realistic situation (for example there could be a discussion of insurance); to problematize the topic, the students could be asked a series of leading questions for them to consider what they would do if they had to see a dentist in another country or without insurance. Then

STs will be asked to work in partners and adapt the activity to make it more relevant to a given student profile by incorporating the critical pedagogy principles.

Post

To conclude, volunteers will be asked to show the class how they adapted the activity and their classmates will comment.

Make an Appointment to See a Dentist



CONVERSATION MODEL Read and listen.

- A: Hello. I wonder if I might be able to see the dentist today. I'm here on business, and I have a toothache.
- B: Oh, that must hurt. Are you in a lot of pain?
- A: Yes, actually, I am.
- B: Well, let me check. Could you be here by 3:00?
- A: Yes. That would be fine. I really appreciate it.

Rhythm and intonation practice

VOCABULARY. Dental emergencies. Listen and practice.



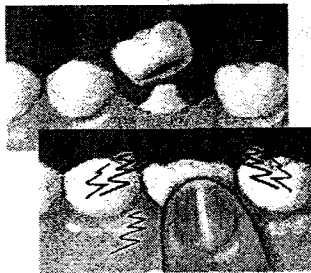
I have a toothache.



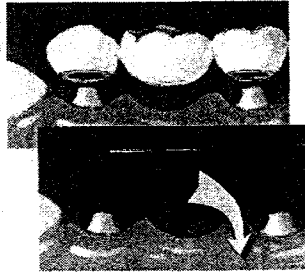
I broke a tooth.



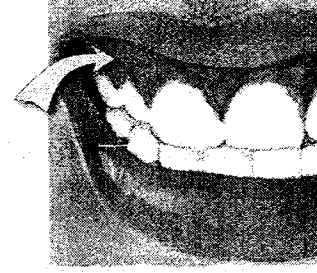
I lost a filling.



My crown is loose.



My bridge came out.



My gums are swollen.

LISTENING COMPREHENSION. Listen to the conversations. Complete each statement to describe the dental problem.

- The man lost a tooth.
- The woman's bridge is loose.
- The man's filling came out.
- The woman just broke a crown.

Corpus Notes:

A common learner error is to say or write, *I'm here for business* instead of *on business*.

Make sure students do not make this error.

Corpus Notes:


When asking about pain in a specific body part, it is more common to ask *Does your ___ hurt?* than *Do you have pain in your ___?* However, it is not common to ask *Do you hurt?*

2

LESSON

Get Service at a Service Station

CONVERSATION MODEL Read and listen.

- A: Fill it up, please, with regular.
 B: Yes, sir. Anything else? 
 A: My turn signal isn't working. Can you fix it?
 B: Yes, we can. Can you drop the car off tomorrow morning at about 9:00?
 A: Sure. What time can I pick it up?
 B: How about noon?
 A: Terrific. I'll see you at 9:00.

Rhythm and intonation practice

VOCABULARY. Some phrasal verbs. Listen and practice.

Polite address

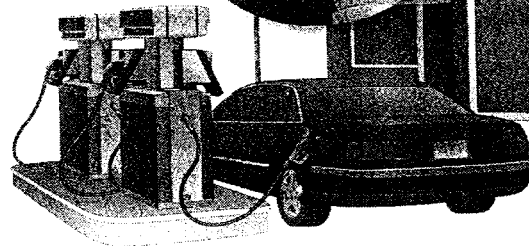


Yes, sir.



Yes, ma'am.

1. turn on

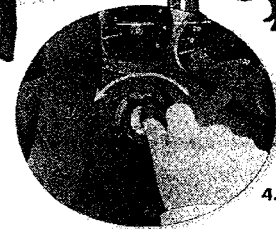


2. fill up

3. pick up



5. drop off




4. turn off

Complete each sentence with one of the phrasal verbs.

- I need gas. Can you please fill it up _____ ?
drop it off / fill it up
- It's raining, and the windshield wipers are broken. I can't turn them on _____ .
turn them on / turn them off
- The car is ready. Can you pick it up _____ today at 5:00?
drop it off / pick it up
- We can do the service on Tuesday. Please drop it off _____ early.
drop it off / pick it up
- What's wrong with these headlights? I can't turn them off _____ .
fill them up / turn them off

42 UNIT 4

 Corpus Notes: The shortening of *Would you like anything else?* or *Is there anything else I can do for you?* to *Anything else?* is very common in spoken English.

3

Evaluate the Quality of Service

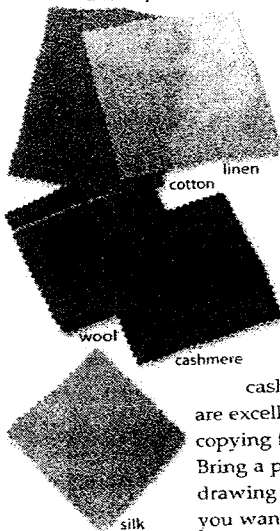
- A** READING WARM-UP. Have you ever bought handmade clothing or other handmade things? Do you prefer handmade or factory-made?
- B** READING. Read the tourist information for visitors to Hong Kong. Are there services like these in your city or town?

PLACES TO SHOP

HONG KONG TAILORS

The famous Hong Kong 24-hour suit is a thing of the past, but you can still have clothes custom-made in a few days. Today, prices are no longer as low as they once were, but they're often about what you'd pay for a ready-made garment back home; the difference, of course, is that a tailor-made garment should fit you

You can choose from a variety of fabrics.



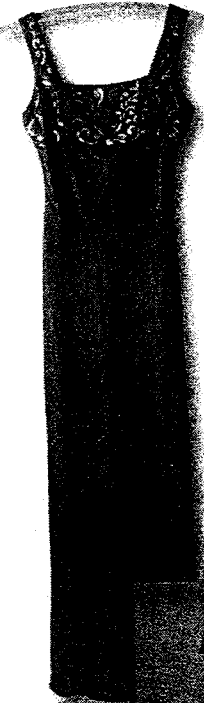
perfectly. The workmanship and quality of the better established shops rival even those of London's Savile Row—at less than half the price. A top-quality men's suit will run about HK\$7,000 (US\$910) or more, including fabric, while a silk shirt can cost HK\$600 (US\$78).

Tailors in Hong Kong will make almost any garment you want—suits, evening gowns, wedding dresses, leather jackets, even monogrammed shirts. Many tailors offer a wide range of cloth from which to choose, from cotton and linen to very fine wools, cashmere, and silk. Hong Kong tailors

are excellent at copying fashions. Bring a picture or drawing of what you want.

You should allow three to five days to have a garment custom-made, with at least two or three fittings. If you aren't satisfied during the fittings,

At your first fitting, the tailor will take your measurements. At your next fitting, the tailor will make alterations until you're satisfied.



Alterations should be included in the original price. If, in the end, you still don't like the finished product, you don't have to accept it. However, you will forfeit the deposit you are required to pay before the tailor begins working, usually about 50% of the total cost.

With more than 2,500 tailoring establishments in Hong Kong, it shouldn't be any problem finding one. Some of the most famous are located in hotel shopping arcades and shopping complexes, but the more upscale the location, the higher the prices.

You can get anything made—from an evening gown to a monogrammed shirt.

Once you've had something custom-made and your tailor has your measurements, you will more than likely be able to order additional clothing later, even after you've returned home!

Be specific about the details you want, such as the lining or the buttons.



SOURCE: Frommer's Hong Kong, 7th edit