UNIVERSITY OF LEEDS

The Language Scholar




2022: Issue 10

Edited by Jeanne Godfrey and Martin Ward

Editorial Board

The Leeds Language Scholar Journal

The Language Scholar is an open access and peer-reviewed journal. Its main objective is to provide a platform to promote the scholarship of learning and teaching languages.

Contributions are welcome from practitioners, researchers and students who are involved in language education. Areas of particular interest to this Journal are theories and practices for language teaching and education, including language teaching approaches and methodologies, intercultural communication, the psychology of language learning, research-led teaching, student-led practices, communicative strategies and experimental teaching.

The Language Scholar is hosted by the Centre for Excellence in Language Teaching within the School of Languages, Cultures and Societies at the University of Leeds. It considers international contributions in multimedia formats, in and about any language (including ancient languages). It aims to provide a space for the development of scholarship in language education, and to provide a platform for pieces which highlight the potential of multimodality to enhance communication, including a supportive and developmental approach to peer review.

Alongside the annual printed issue, the Language Scholar's digital space hosts and showcases contributions, facilitating the sharing and exchange of ideas. Submissions can be sent to the journal at any time, although there will be deadlines announced for specific printed issues.

If you would like to get in touch or submit a piece, you can contact us on the journal's email: **languagescholar@leeds.ac.uk** or Tweet us at **@LangScholar**

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Editorial

Jeanne Goodfrey

Welcome to Issue 10 of the Language Scholar. I'd also like to say hello on behalf of the new members of the editorial team – myself as a new Co-Editor, our new Journal Manager Alba del Pozo García, and Roya Alimalayeri and James Moore, our two new Web Editors.

The articles in this latest issue play their part in achieving the central aims of the Language Scholar Manifesto published in Issue 3; to further our understanding and knowledge by critically considering multiple perspectives, and in doing so to have an impact on our identities and beliefs as practitioners (Ding et al. 2018). Each piece in this current issue furthers these aims, offering interesting and important pedagogic insights - the result of structured, contextualised, critical and honest reflection and discussion.

The first article is a research paper by Paula Villegas. Villegas examines the theoretical foundations of Flipped Learning (FL) from a socio-constructivist language perspective. She examines the parallels between this framework and that of the 'four pillars' of FL, demonstrating how the latter are based in educational theory before moving on to examine how EAP practitioners can use these understandings to fully exploit the pedagogic potential of FL.

Our first Scholarbit in Issue 10 is written by Vicky Collins, who describes a real-time reflective enquiry into a novel aspect of pedagogic practice, comparing the efficacy of pre-planned tasks and spontaneous, contingent teaching interactions in enhancing student criticality. Collins' article discusses the implications of their enquiry for curriculum and delivery that enhances student critical thinking behaviours, for understanding their own role in the classroom and for how future investigations might be conducted on short, intensive, teaching programmes. The second Scholarbit piece comes from Charlie Taylor, a Senior High School teacher in Taiwan. Taylor contextualises and critically discusses the impact of his decision to use extensive reading within the challenging context of large EFL classes in which the students hold a range of English language profiles. In our third Scholarbit, Denise de Pauw and Jane Heath reflect on practitioners' experiences of managing the

multiple and new spaces involved in fully online delivery at the start of the Covid pandemic, using the two frameworks of Mediated Discourse Analysis and Computer-Mediated Communication as platforms from which to analyse practitioner experiences.

Our book review in this issue is written by Rob Playfair, who discusses 'Pedagogies in English for academic purposes: Teaching and learning in international Contexts' edited by Carole MacDiarmid and Jennifer MacDonald. Rather than use the book's chronology to structure his review, Playfair presents us with an order that reflects the degree of emphasis each chapter places on social, linguistic, and institutional contexts, using this analysis to critically reflect on the contributions and on his own practice.

We hope that the questions, research and discussion in this issue of the Language Scholar challenge and inspire you as a practitioner in your own professional context. As a final note, we would like to thank those who take on the role of reviewing submissions, giving their time to provide thoughtful and constructive feedback to the contributing authors.

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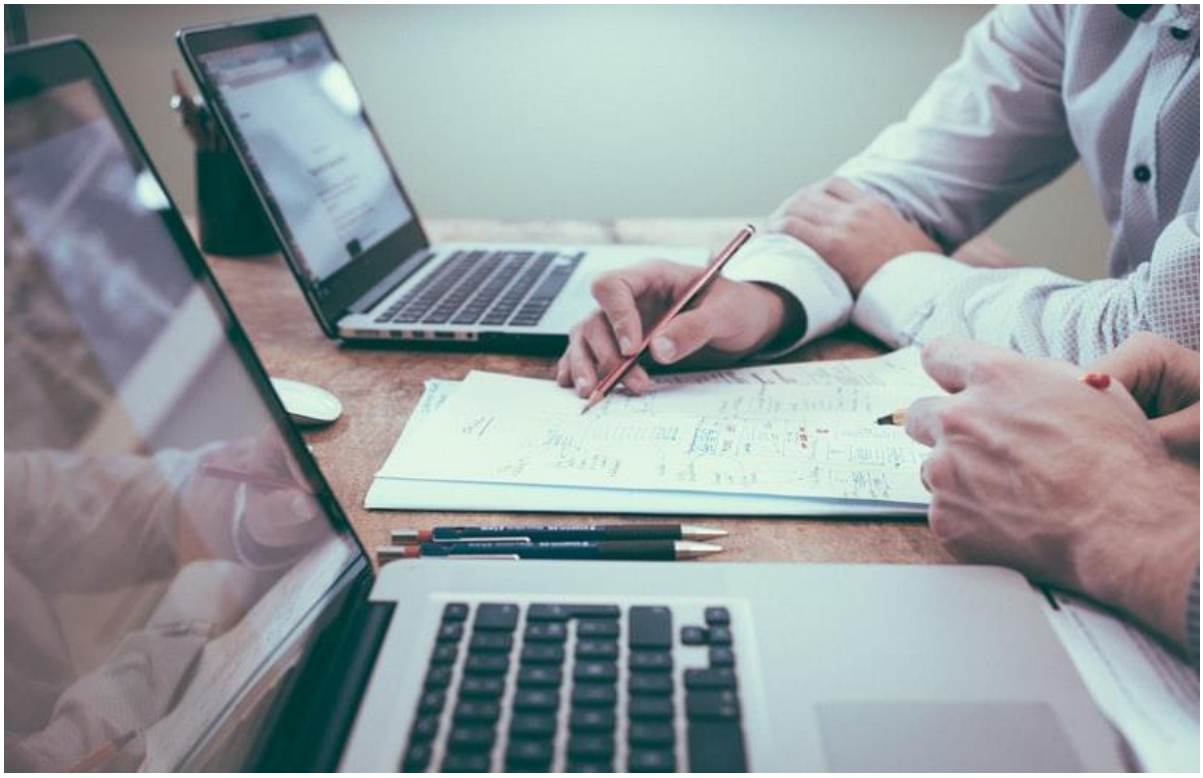

Beyond The Four Pillars of F-L-I-P, Exploring Theoretical Underpinnings of Flipped Learning in the Context of English for Academic Purposes

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ABSTRACT

This article explores a social-constructivist conceptualisation of Flipped Learning (FL) and advocates using the four pillars of FL (FLN, 2014; see Appendix I) as a roadmap to successfully embrace FL in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) courses. Thus, an understanding of FL grounded in social constructivism is shown while exploring how the four pillars of FL (FLN, 2014; Appendix I) are strongly underpinned by social constructivism. Strong parallelisms are drawn between the four pillars of FL (FLN, 2014; see Appendix I) and the four controlling principles of EAP (Flowerdew and Peacock, 2001, p.183) while acknowledging the potential challenges of constructivist approaches to teaching and learning. This article concludes by acknowledging the beneficial use of the four pillars of FL (FLN, 2014; Appendix I) when embracing FL in EAP contexts and calls for further research on the necessary elements to successfully implement FL in EAP courses.

KEYWORDS: English for Academic Purposes, Flipped Learning, Constructivism, Four Pillars of FL, Technology Enhanced Learning, Pedandragogy.

INTRODUCTION

Despite the momentum that FL is experiencing (Abeysekera and Dawson, 2015, p.1), there is a considerable lack of consensus when it comes to defining the term, which makes systematic

research on FL more difficult (Abeysekera and Dawson, 2015). Abeysekera and Dawson (2015, p.3) make a compelling argument for a definition of FL that:

1. moves most information-transmission teaching out of class
2. uses class time for learning activities that are active and social
3. requires students to complete pre-and/or post-class activities to fully benefit from in-class work

These criteria clearly address the core of FL as it is understood by the wider education community. Yet, as emphasised by Abeysekera and Dawson (2015, p.3) themselves, the criteria fail to include any type of evaluation of FL. Thus, despite the unquestionable merits of the definition above, this article favours the definition of FL proposed by the Flipped Learning Network Hub (2014, p.1):

> a pedagogical approach in which direct instruction moves from the group learning space to the individual learning space, and the resulting group space is transformed into a dynamic, interactive learning environment where the educator guides students as they apply concepts and engage creatively in the subject matter.

Arguably, the Flipped Learning Network Hub's definition could face criticism because it is presented within a commercial context, and that criticism could be extended to the four pillars of FL (Appendix I) examined in this article. After all, although the Flipped Learning Network Hub presents itself as a showcase for FL as a method, it ultimately seems to be designed to popularise FL as understood by Bergman and Sands (2014), thus, enabling them to profit from the available paid resources or bookable talks. However, the Flipped Learning Network Hub does offer free resources and a safe online space where practitioners can discuss their FL experiences. Crucially, the merit of this definition lies in the fact that it addresses the use of learning space and the interaction between students and teachers. Considering Bloom's taxonomy of learning (1984), flipping the classroom simply means turning the traditional model upside down (Lockwood, 2014). Thus, the higher-order thinking skills are moved into the classroom (Lockwood, 2014, p.2), where students can benefit from exploring these skills with their peers and their tutor (Figure 1). This collaborative construction of knowledge can be linked to Vygotsky's (1978) social constructivism. In social constructivism, knowledge is attained through action and interactions in which individuals share their experiences (Crawford, 1996).

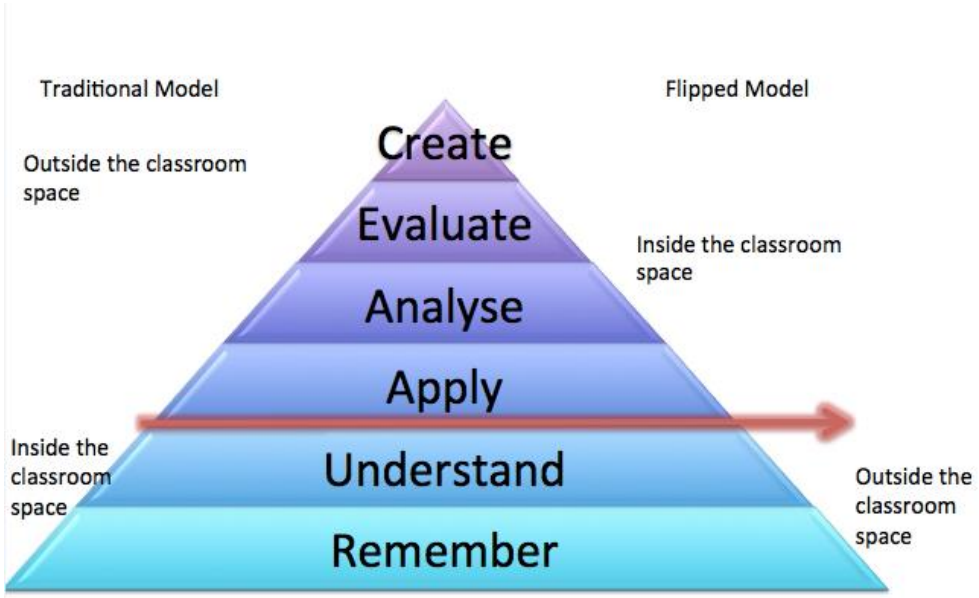

Figure 1: Bloom's Taxonomy in the Traditional Classroom and the Flipped Classroom (Based on Anderson et al., 2001).

Bergmann and Sams (2012), who are credited as the founders of FL as it is currently understood and are behind the Flipped Learning Network Hub, used pre-recorded lectures to present content. These pre-recorded lectures allowed students to engage with the lower-order thinking skills on their own. As depicted in figure 1, these lectures facilitated remembering and understanding information, that is low order thinking skills (LOTS) tasks, whereas the face-to-face sessions could then be devoted to the active manipulation of information, high order thinking skills (HOTS) tasks. Therefore, FL can be understood as a pedagogical approach that is independent of TEL and is underpinned by relevant educational theories, such as Bloom's taxonomy (1984).

As has been noted, following their successful implementation of FL, Bergmann and Sams founded the Learning Network Hub (2014), a virtual space that showcases FL as a method. The Flipped Learning Network Hub offers free resources and a safe online space for practitioners to discuss their FL experiences. By making the popular platform Slack available for practitioners and researchers to use free of charge,[1] the hub provides a welcoming space where discussions around FL can take place across educational institutions. One of the hub's key resources is the four pillars of FL (FLN, 2014, The Four Pillars of F-L-I-P, Appendix I). These pillars are:

[1] https://flippedlearning.org/fln-updates/join-the-flipped-learning-slack-community/

1. Flexible environment
2. Learning culture
3. Intentional content
4. Professional educator

Their purpose is to provide a practical roadmap for adopting the FL method. They are also accessible to the wider public, because they were created to facilitate the transition to FL for practitioners and course designers alike. This can be particularly appealing for English for Academics Purposes practitioners and course designers. Considering the context of EAP courses (and pre-sessional courses in particular), readily available, clear principles for implementing FL efficiently would seem to provide an exciting starting point for pedagogical innovation. However, being practical and widely accessible is no guarantee that these principles will automatically translate into the EAP context. After all, Bergmann and Sams (2012) developed their method to suit a chemistry high-school course; when adopting FL, particularly at course level, course designers may be required to evaluate their students and resources in addition to the subject content. Crucially, it could also be argued that this emphasis on immediate practicality and instant access may be linked to a lack of strong pedagogical underpinnings under the proposed four pillars of FL (FLN, 2014, The Four Pillars of F-L-I-P, Appendix I). Therefore, this article explores how FL is underpinned by social constructivism. It argues that the four pillars of FL (FLN, 2014, The Four Pillars of F-L-I-P, Appendix I) are grounded in social constructivism and suggests that they provide the necessary scaffolding for course developers and practitioners to successfully embrace FL in EAP contexts.

This paper starts by exploring how FL relates to the wider tradition of educational theories. It continues to highlight how social constructivism informs the four pillars of FL (FLN, 2014, The Four Pillars of F-L-I-P, Appendix I). After acknowledging the potential limitations of constructivist pedagogies, it draws strong parallelism between the four pillars of FL (FLN, 2014, The Four Pillars of F-L-I-P, Appendix I) and the four controlling principles of EAP (Flowerdew and Peacock, 2001, p.183). This article concludes by acknowledging how the four pillars of FL (FLN, 2014; Appendix I) can be an invaluable resource when embracing FL in EAP contexts.

THE ROAD TO FL: REFLECTING ON THE JOURNEY

As Bergman and Sands (2012) themselves acknowledge, they cannot be credited with inventing FL (Noonoo, 2012); rather, it is the outcome of a drive within education to empower the learner. Abeysekera and Dawson (2015, p.2) point out that an earlier dissertation by Strayer (2007) is generally accepted as being the first academic discussion of FL. This ground-breaking academic work is itself embedded in earlier educational research and theory. At the turn of the century, three professors at Miami University wrote a seminal paper, 'Inverting the Classroom: A Gateway to Creating an Inclusive Learning Environment' (Lage, Platt and Treglia, 2000). As per their definitions, the inverted classroom is characterised by 'events that have traditionally taken place inside the classroom now taking place outside the classroom and vice versa' (Lage et al., 2000, p.32). In that sense, the principles behind the inverted classroom and FL are virtually identical; however, the two approaches differ in their underpinning rationales. While the inverted classroom advocates providing a wide range of options to accommodate different learning styles, FL advocates an inversion of Bloom's taxonomy (see Figure 1). By moving the tasks with a more demanding cognitive load into the classroom, FL makes it possible for the learner to explore these more challenging tasks with the support of their peers and the guidance of the tutor. In this way, learning becomes a collective experience (Vygotsky, 1978).

Bergman and Sands (Noonoo, 2012) attribute institutions' and practitioners' lower level of interest in the inverted classroom (in comparison with FL) to a lack of technological readiness. However, it could be argued that the theoretical underpinnings are the determining factor in the comparative success of FL. After all, the idea of learning styles has been widely discredited within educational literature (see An and Carr, 2017, Kirschner, 2017, Moser and Zumbach, 2018); on the other hand, a Vygotskian approach – to language learning in particular – has been found to be fruitful (see Poehner and Infante, 2017). This connection between FL and Vygotsky is also apparent in Correa's (2015) fascinating exploration of the underlying pedagogies in FL.

The idea of the inverted classroom can be traced back to Mazur's (1997) article entitled 'Peer Instruction: Getting Students to Think in Class Approach'. In this highly reflexive piece, Mazur (1997) recounts his experiences as a teacher of an introductory science course and recalls that allowing the students to read his notes before attending the sessions made lecturing redundant (Mazur, 1997, p.981). This approach also fits with Vygotskian traditions, as the students discuss in the classroom

the key points presented in the lectures explored at home. Mazur uses the 'concept test' to check students' answers and, more importantly, their reasoning; thus, checking within the sessions that understanding has already taken place (Mazur, 1997, p.983).

As already argued, the present article broadly understands FL as presented by Bergman and Sands (2014). However, this conception of FL has become intrinsically linked with the use of technology. This paper rejects such an intrinsic relation and advocates an understanding of FL based on the Vygotskian tradition. Although Bergman and Sands (2014) proved that using recorded lectures and quizzes can be extremely successful for content subjects, such as chemistry; this technique may not be suitable teaching as English as a foreign language (EFL) (Lockwood, 2014, p.1). Indeed, it is possible to apply the main principle of FL (i.e., redistributing the tasks according to their cognitive load) without the use of technology and thus benefit from encompassing resources and materials that are already being used in the classroom (Lockwood, 2014, p.39). In a similar vein, Lee and Wallace (2017, p.19) highlight that using suitable materials is key to fostering a successful FL classroom. Therefore, it is reasonable to argue that a social constructivist approach to learning may be the underlying characteristic that allows FL to foster active learning and achieve positive results. This would in turn explain why within the education community FL is more widely accepted than the inverted classroom.

CRITICAL EXPLORATION THE FOUR PILLARS OF FL

Having addressed the historical review of FL, this section will explore the principles that Bergman and Sands (2014) consider necessary for adopting a FL approach. These are known as the four pillars of FL (FLN, 2014, The Four Pillars of F-L-I-P, Appendix I):

1. Flexible environment
2. Learning culture
3. Intentional content
4. Professional educator.

This section aims to further exemplify how FL, as presented by Bergman and Sands (2014) is rooted in social constructivism. Therefore, these four pillars can guide EAP practitioners and course

developers when implementing FL in a clear, concise, and efficient manner while ensuring that practice is underpinned by strong pedagogical principles.

Flexible environment

The first pilar, *flexible environment* (FLN, 2014), is understood within two dimensions. On the one hand, it can refer to flexibility in terms of space, which allows the learning space to be adjusted to accommodate independent or collaborative learning. On the other hand, it can refer to a practitioner's flexible attitude towards students' learning time and how to assess students' progress (FLN, 2014).

In terms of physical space, the idea that a flexible learning space is key to a successful learning environment is not new (Cote, 1982; Haft, 1972) and is echoed in the literature (Hassel, 2011). Of particular interest is Mulcahy et al.'s (2015) research on learning spaces and their relation to pedagogical changes. Their research concludes that changes in pedagogy are not causally linked to changes in the classroom environment but are the result of a more complex and intricate alteration in various dynamics (Mulcahy et al., 2015). In the same vein, it is reasonable to hypothesise that the flexibility in space related to the successful adoption of FL responds to the method's intrinsic characteristics. This flexibility in the classroom is one of the aspects that contributes to successful FL (FLN, 2014), but it is not the cause of FL or its only key to attainment.

This ethos of flexibility of space as a component of FL may be best embodied in Fisher's (2016) provocative article questioning the need for classrooms. Fisher (2016) argues that FL and active learning spaces are responses to new economic demands. The author argues that the current transformation of working spaces will soon be mimicked by the transformation of spaces in HE, facilitating students' interaction and access to knowledge via the use of technology (Fisher, 2016, p.10). Despite the potential controversy of this mostly utilitarian conception of education as a preparation for contributing to the world's economy (Fisher, 2016, p.11). Fisher's (2006, p.11) emphasis on how the educational spaces should respond to the task at hand aligns with this aspect of this first principle. Crucially, it reinforces the importance of maximising the use of the space to maximize teaching and learning. In practical terms, this suggests that having pre-recorded lectures may suit the needs of science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM) subjects, whereas providing open spaces may foster creativity for science, technology, engineering, arts and

mathematics (STEAM) subjects. Thus, aiming to foster peer discussion of the content under the guidance of the tutor, as explain in this first pillar. Incidentally, this is a much more social conception of education which aligns with social constructivism.

In terms of flexibility of learning time, the idea of learners being given different amounts of time and assessment will now be addressed. Learners needing different amounts of time to master the tasks and content presented is linked to differentiation. As Konstantinou-Katzia et al. (2013) explain, differentiation and diversity are constants in the classroom across educational levels. This article adopts Tomlinson's (1999) definition of differentiation as a flexible yet organised way of adjusting the instruction and acquisition of knowledge to best suit learner needs so learners can achieve their maximum potential. Tomlinson (1999) argues that students maximise their learning when differences in readiness levels are explicitly accounted for in the classroom. Therefore, differentiation may be underpinned by Vygotsky's (1978) theory of the zone of proximal development (ZPD) (Konstantinou-Katzia et al., 2013). According to this theory, learning occurs in the distance between a student's ability to independently solve a task and a student's ability to solve a task with support (Vygotsky, 1978). Thus, it is reasonable to argue that flexibility in acquisition time and assessing learning is another aspect of differentiation. Depending on students' ZPD, they could in theory spend more (or less) time on tasks carried out before the sessions in order to achieve a state of readiness when engaging with the higher-order thinking skills. This aspect of flexibility may also be reflected in the design of the task, thus addressing different learners' needs. In addition, within the FL model, the higher-order thinking skills are explored and developed within the community of learners and under the guidance of the tutor. This links back to Vygotsky's (1978) idea of learning as a collective experience.

Learning culture

The second pillar, *learning culture* (FLN, 2014), aligns FL with a learner-centred approach. It advocates using in-class time for fostering learning opportunities and for students to actively construct knowledge with the support of the teacher. Jones (2007, p.44) reinforces the idea that in the student-centred classroom the teacher's role shifts from instructor to facilitator and the students actively participate in their learning, thus developing independence and autonomy. The alteration in the role of the teacher is expertly summarised by Lockwood (2014, p.3), who writes that in the FL model, teachers move from 'sage on the stage' to 'guide on the side'. This has become a mantra in the literature exploring FL (see, for instance, Şahin and Kurban, 2016, Soliman, 2016, Oki,

2016). However, it first appeared in King's (1993) seminal paper entitled 'From Sage on the Stage to Guide on the Side'. In this article, King (1993) thoroughly examines the problems with the *transmittal model* – a traditional classroom model in which the teacher transmits knowledge to the students – and advocates a constructivist approach to learning. In fact, she suggests moving from a traditional lecture-based approach to cooperative learning, thus shifting the constructivist approach into the realm of a social constructivist approach (King, 1993). As has been explored, constructivism understands 'learning as an active constructive process' (Soharabi and Iraj, 2016, p.515) and, as Driscoll (2014) expertly summarises, it is underpinned by Vygotsky's social constructivism, Piaget's (1969) developmental and cognitive perspective, and Dewey's philosophy (1913, p.24). Thus, the second FL principle also closely advocates a constructivist understanding of FL.

As already highlighted, the concept of a student-centred FL approach is broadly based on constructivism. The first FL principle, flexible environment, is closely linked to social constructivism, and the second FL principle is connected with a broader understanding of constructivism. As Bada (2015) succinctly explains, the central idea grounding this theory is that learning is constructed; that is, new knowledge is built on previous knowledge, rather than resulting from the passive transmission of information relying on reception. It follows that by allowing students to explore the lower-order thinking skills in activities provided before a session, they can then build their knowledge on a strong foundation. Interestingly, this may also level the playing field within the classroom. Given that students come from diverse backgrounds and have different experiences of both the knowledge object of study and the academic culture itself, allowing them to engage with the content they need at their own pace may help to make sure that, by the time they are in the classroom, they are all within their ZPD to successfully build up their targeted knowledge.

Another key aspect of learning culture is the concept of *active learning*, which is also discussed in traditional education literature. This concept is not exempt from controversy about what it actually implies or encompasses (Prince, 2004). However, this article agrees with Prince's (2004) definition of active learning as 'any instructional method that engages students in the learning process, that is to say, in which students complete meaningful activities and reflect on their learning process'. Within this second principle, active learning is fostered while students engage with higher-order thinking skills.

Active learning according to Prince (2004) can be equated to what Anderson et al. (2001, p.63) describe as 'meaningful learning'. Anderson et al. (2001, p.63) identify three types of learning. The first, *no learning*, refers to failing to recall and use new information. The second, *rote learning*, refers to memorising information yet lacking the ability to transfer it to new situations and use it. The third is *meaningful learning*, which takes place when the information can be recalled and successfully transferred and used in new situations. Meaningful learning, in line with constructivist learning (Anderson et al., 2001, p.38), is conceptualised as the result of actively engaging in cognitive processes. Those cognitive processes may include identifying essential information, organising the information in a coherent manner, and relating the new information to knowledge already acquired. Therefore, constructivist learning and meaningful learning advocate students' ability to do more than simply remember or recognise facts (Bransford et al., 1999; Lambert and MacCombs, 1998; Steffe and Gale, 1995).

Within this constructivist approach, the teacher supports learners in their construction of knowledge (Duffy and Cunningham, 1996). This support is known as *scaffolding*. As Vygotsky (1978) explains, through scaffolding, students perform tasks slightly beyond their ability with guidance from their tutor. This is a key element of fostering learning culture as established by this second principle. Put simply, students engage with higher-order thinking skills activities with the guidance of the teacher and the support of their peers in line with social constructivism.

Intentional content

The principle of *intentional content* (FLN, 2014) advocates the need for class content that helps students use their targeted knowledge. While the emphasis of the second pillar is on dedicating class time to higher-order thinking skills, this third pillar is about identifying tasks that focus on lower-order thinking skills so that students can explore them before the session. Interestingly, it highlights the importance of selecting suitable materials and states that the content should be accessible, relevant and sufficiently differentiated to appeal to the students.

This article has already identified active learning as a fundamental theory underpinning FL. Within the traditional classroom model, in practical terms, activities completed outside the classroom are considered to be active learning (Prince, 2004). An example of such an activity is asking students to write a summary of a text that they have read in class (evaluating, as per Bloom's Taxonomy) for

homework. Similarly, in more traditional EFL classrooms, it would not be unusual to ask students to rewrite (creating, as per Bloom's Taxonomy) a model of a formal letter that they have explored in class. However, these approaches sharply clash with the second and third pillars of FL.

To better understand the distribution of activities between higher-order and lower-order thinking skills, it is worth exploring what turning Bloom's taxonomy upside down implies in practical terms. The appendix of the Taxonomy of Educational Objectives (Bloom, 1956, pp.201-207) defines six key categories: knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation. According to this taxonomy of learning, *knowledge*, linked to recalling information, and *comprehension*, linked to the understanding of that information, are considered to be lower-order thinking skills. This is because the students are not actively manipulating the information; rather, they are exploring knowledge and comprehension. However, *application*, which requires students to apply abstract information in a tangible situation, *analysis*, which requires them to explore the explicit relationships among ideas expressed, *synthesis*, which requires finding common elements, and evaluation, which requires making a judgement on the information, are referred to as higher-order thinking skills because they require students to actively manipulate the information. Although Bloom's taxonomy is not exempt from criticism (see the revised taxonomy proposed by Anderson et al., 2001), it can offer a reliable framework for identifying meaningful learning (Moreno and Mayer, 1999) and guide practitioners and course designers in the conceptualisation and distribution of the tasks to reflect the insightful guidance of the second and third pillars of FL.

Crucially, to have a *flexible environment* and a *learning culture* (pillars one and two), students need to have engaged with the activities focusing on the lower-order thinking skills before the session. Failing to do so may not only result in a session with unprepared students who are unable to engage with the tasks but also prevent the students from engaging with the learning process at their own pace to meet their individual needs. Therefore, FL relies on students completing tasks outside the classroom.

Given that FL is so heavily reliant on students completing the required tasks before the session, it is worth mentioning that the usability and quality of learning resources contributes to satisfaction and motivation (Yilmaz, 2017) and, in turn, potentially contributes to the required completion of the said tasks. In practical terms, this may translate into a variety of activities that are not necessarily presented online but are designed specifically to prepare students to engage in the sessions. This

reliance on students' independent work has led to some reticence among scholars and practitioners, which is supported by Yilmaz's (2017) claim that to be implemented effectively, pre-session tasks need to be monitored. Similarly, Abeysekera and Dawson (2014, p.2) echo the recurring debate about students' self-preparation and how useful or assessable that preparation is.

In summary, when considering content that meets the learners' needs, practitioners and materials developers need to carefully distribute the task so that HOTS are explored in the classroom space to ensure peer collaboration and teacher's guidance in line with social constructivist theories of teaching and learning.

Professional educator

The final principle, the *professional educator* (FL, 2014), further focuses on the role of the teacher in the flipped classroom. The principle asserts that timely feedback during sessions, along with valuable formative assessments, are essential in FL. Therefore, the ability to provide formative feedback is a core skill for practitioners adopting the model. Fletcher's (2018) highly praised and incisive study on learner engagement with teachers' formative feedback in the EAP context offers a current and succinct introduction to this type of feedback in HE. Fletcher (2018, p.1) acknowledges the considerable time and effort that practitioners devote to formative feedback but finds that it does not necessarily result in a corresponding level of engagement from students. Given that formative feedback is presented as a key ingredient of a successful FL lesson, practitioners need to be aware of how to deliver it in a way that benefits students' learning.

Interestingly, the professional educator principle also advocates a reflective practitioner who uses their in-class experience to enhance their teaching and 'tolerate controlled chaos in their classrooms' (The Four Pillars of F-L-I-P, 2014, p.2). This principle seems to refer to the benefits of 'messiness' to foster learning. Licht (2014) candidly describes the seemingly chaotic atmosphere in one of her courses when embracing *problem-based learning*, a model that advocates a student-centred approach in which students learn by doing. This ethos can also be linked to Dewey's (1913) conception of education, because it not only puts the students at the centre of the learning process but also relies on social interaction and practical life experiences to foster learning. In this way, the role of the teacher is once more expressed as that of a facilitator. As Licht (2014) explains, this approach (PBL) may result in students working independently in their groups and actively taking

ownership of their project, which may look 'chaotic' but allows them to actively engage with knowledge-construction and learning process. These dynamics, once again, align social constructivism.

This critical exploration has identified the learning theories that underpin these four principles. It has argued that the four pillars of FL (FLN, 2014, The Four Pillars of F-L-I-P, Appendix I) are underpinned by social constructivism and can offer a clear, concise, and efficient guide for practitioners and course developers alike to embrace FL in Higher Education.

FLIPPED LEARNING AND CONSTRUCTIVIST APPROACHES: CHALLENGES

In this article, I have argued that FL, as presented by the FLN Hub (2014), sits comfortably within constructivism. Table 1 shows how the characteristics of constructivist pedagogy as identified by Chen (2010, p.15) correspond with the four pillars of FL (FLN, 2014).

Characteristics of constructivist learning and teaching according to Chen (2010, p.15)	**Corresponding FL Pillar**
Authentic tasks and context	Pillar 1- Flexible Environment, Pillar 3- Intentional Content
Learners' ownership of learning	Pillar 2- Learning Culture, Pillar 4- Professional Educator.
Personal constructed reality	Pillar 1- Flexible Environment, Pillar 2- Learning Culture.
Opportunities for collaboration	Pillar 2- Learning Culture, Pillar 4- Professional Educator.
Opportunities for reflection	Pillar 2- Learning Culture, Pillar 4- Professional Educator. Interestingly, opportunities for reflection under FL Pillars involve both learners and teachers.

Table 1: Characteristics of Constructivist Learning and Teaching as Identified by Chen (2010, p.5) and the Corresponding Pillars of FL (FLN, 2014).

At this point, it is important to acknowledge that my own understanding of education could be defined as constructivist; this reflects my positionality as both practitioner and researcher. However, there are indeed issues with this conceptualisation of education and pedagogies. Two main points of contention dominate the literature challenging constructivism (see Kirschner et al., 2006). First, the lack of empirical evidence is often presented as a criticism of constructivist pedagogies. Second, there are questions about how effective minimal instruction and guidance actually is. Kirschner et al. (2006) eloquently voice these concerns, adding that not all practitioners share this enthusiasm for constructivist pedagogies and that some question their effectiveness. This emphasises that the practitioner's own positionality and their relationship with underpinning theories shape the translation from theory to practice, which may in turn affect students' perceptions of the methods applied in the classroom.

Turning to the context of online learning, in a study on Chinese students' experiences of an online HE course in Australia, Chen (2010) expertly argues that constructivist teaching in the online setting reveals the assumption of a particular type of learner who, as her study highlights, is not necessarily the learner taking the course. Through the combination of Bernstein's conceptual framework (1977, 1990, 2000, as cited in Chen, 2010) and legitimation code theory (Maton, 2000, 2007, 2009; Moore and Maton, 2001, as cited in Chen, 2010), Chen (2010) reveals a 'code clash' between learners and practitioners. Unfortunately, this clash resulted in a mostly negative experience for learners.

Chen's (2010, p.241) interpretation of the findings is that teachers following a constructivist pedagogy, and thus avoiding explicit instructions, meant that 'from the students' perspective, … in allowing learners this "freedom", the teacher became invisible, thus causing knowledge to become invisible' (Chen, 2010, p.242). This is a very interesting take on the problems that constructivism may create. However, the key to the successful application of a constructivist-based pedagogy may lie in the explicit explanation of these underpinning pedagogical principles to the learner. By doing so, students will be empowered with the necessary understanding to successfully construct knowledge in the classroom. Specifically, in the case of FL, this could be achieved by adopting a constructivist-based pedagogical model of pedandragogy (Table 2), as proposed by Samaroo et al., (2013, p.87). This can promote effective and self-engaged learning environments for learners of all ages. In a similar vein, Akçayır and Akçayır (2018, p.338) suggest that FL may be effective for teaching adult learners due to the similarities it presents to andragogy. Within this context, it seems reasonable to suggests pedandragogy as fitting for conceptualising FL because it acknowledges the potential

difficulties in terms of motivation and engagement that a student-centred approach like FL may reveal (Samaroo et al., 2013, p.87), while advocating for learners' collaboration in the design and assessment of the course (Samaroo et al., 2013, p.88).

Framework for a pedandragogical model (Samaroo, Cooper and Green, 2013, p.88)
It is learner centered
The teacher is both facilitator and learner
It incorporated prior learning and learner experience
It focuses on internal and external stimuli
It encourages curiosity and exploration
The learner collaborated in the planning and diagnosing of needs
It involves collaborative evaluation
It focuses on the independence of the learner
It supports the concept of teacher immediacy in the learning process
It promotes self-efficacy in learners
It promotes self-engagement

Table 2. Framework for a Pedandrogical Model (Samaroo et al., 2013, p.88).

With this framework in mind, it seems reasonable to argue that if learners are to actively take agency in this process, they need to understand and be familiar with the pedagogical underpinnings of the course; that is to say, they need to understand why a constructivist pedagogy has been used and what the expectations are in terms of teaching and learning.

On the other hand, Lockwood (2014) suggests a different approach. Given that students are used to doing homework, she relies on the expectation that students will engage with the pre-session tasks

without the need to explicitly address the rationale for completing the tasks before the session. Yet failing to explicitly address the importance of the pre-session tasks may be as problematic as failing to explain the expectations of learners in a constructivist approach. Not openly addressing the roles of students, practitioners and tasks may equate to students or practitioners failing to take agency and ownership of the ethos behind learning and teaching in a constructivist pedagogy, as has been argued in this section. In fact, by their very nature, failing to do so may result in an unsuccessful experience, as Chen's (2010) findings reveal. In a similar vein, failing to explain to teachers the rationale for using a particular method may also have negative consequences for the learning and teaching process (Villegas, 2021).

THE FOUR PILLARS OF FL IN EAP COURSES

This article has argued that the four pillars of FL (FLN, 2014) are underpinned by social constructivism. It has also acknowledged the potential limitations of constructivist approaches and has offered suggestions to make such pedagogies valuable in the teaching and learning process. This section aims to explicitly address how FL, as understand by Bergmann and Sams (2012), can be seamlessly integrated in EAP courses.

As has been highlighted, EAP courses aim to develop students' academic literacy. They tend not to be included in any specific method due to the clash between their prescriptiveness and EAP's intrinsic eclecticism (Watson-Todd, 2003). This eclectic nature makes EAP a prime candidate for FL. According to Flowerdew and Peacock (2001, p.183) the four controlling principles of EAP are:

1. *The principle of reality control*, relating to the difficulty of the task.
2. *The principle of non-triviality*, stating how the task needs to be relevant for the students.
3. *The principle of authenticity*, requiring the language to be 'authentic for its specific purpose'
4. *The principle of tolerance of error*, allowing errors that do not compromise communication.

As can be seen, principles 1-3 can aligned with a FL approach. Specifically, the pre-session tasks may help develop receptive skills (listening and reading) at the students' preferred pace while paving the way to those in-class activities that explore higher-order thinking skills. If these tasks were implemented successfully, students would be able to actively engage in the sessions because they

would already have worked through the lower-order thinking skills tasks, as suggested by Bloom's inverted taxonomy. Crucially, this could level the playing field in the classroom as students will have engaged at their own pace with the necessary information to engage with relevant HOTS.

Nevertheless, some practical considerations need to be addressed to ensure that learning objectives are met. To some extent, this reinforces the idea of subjecting methods to the pedagogical principles so as to foster a grounded and successful learning and teaching atmosphere. One example of this is the nature of the pre-lesson tasks. It is widely accepted that these tasks are mostly in the format of mini-lectures, which do not necessarily address the needs of language learners (Lockwood, 2014, p.39). However, as Lockwood (2014, p.6) also argues, setting a reading task may grant students the necessary time to understand the materials presented and clarify vocabulary, thus levelling the starting point and allowing students to fully engage with higher-order thinking skills. This can facilitate courses aligning with the principle of reality control by meeting students at their level with the pre-session tasks while turning the classroom space into a collaborative environment where students explore complex and authentic tasks, in line with the principle of authenticity, with the support of their peers and guidance of the teacher. This approach would also align with the principle of non-triviality by ensuring that both LOTS and HOTS address the students' needs.

The principle of tolerance of error (Flowerdew and Peacock, 2001, p.183) can also benefit from a FL approach, as illustrated by the four pillars of FL (FLN, 2014, The Four Pillars of F-L-I-P, Appendix I), as it allows the classroom to become a truly communicative space where errors that impede communication need to be addressed successfully to ensure that students engage in knowledge building. Pillar four, professional educator (FLN, 2014, The Four Pillars of F-L-I-P, Appendix I), also advocates timely feedback within the session. Thus, showing how these philosophies can coexist and enhance each other to promote effective teaching and learning.

As has been argued, there seems to be no glaring pedagogical clashes. The eclecticism of EAP, and the way FL can be implemented according to the four pillars of FL (FLN, 2014, The Four Pillars of F-L-I-P, Appendix I), could result in an effective combination that allows learners and practitioners alike to thrive. Flipping an EAP course may level the playing field by allowing students to adequately prepare for the challenges of engaging with HE courses through a second language. First, in-class sessions may help students to develop productive skills (speaking and writing) with the support of peers and guidance from the teacher. However, the main potential advantage of flipping an EAP

course (that is, students being able to engage with higher-order thinking skills in the sessions) goes hand in hand with the main potential pitfall. As tempting as a level playing field may sound, achieving it relies on students' abilities and their completion of independent work.

When exploring how FL can benefit EAO-P courses, both the four controlling principles of EAP (Flowerdew and Peacock, 2001, p.183) and the role of the teachers needs to be considered. Having explored how the four pillars of FL (FLN, 2014) can align with these principles, the role of the EAP teacher in a FL course will now be discussed. The EAP tutor tends to act as a facilitator of a student-centred pedagogy. In fact, EAP provision includes content from multiple academic subjects. However, the EAP tutor is a language specialist who may not be familiar with the content of other subjects – such as chemistry, for instance. Thus, Smith (2015) argues that a specialist in both language and subject content is rare: just as a subject tutor may find it troublesome to pinpoint the precise linguistic features that may be detrimental to the overall understanding of a student's written work, an EAP tutor may find it difficult to advise on content. To bridge this knowledge gap in the EAP classroom, Smith (2015) advocates a renegotiation of the roles, in which the tutor brings the linguistic expertise, and the student brings the content expertise. This fosters a more collaborative learning environment, as the students are active participants in the sessions. Co-constructing knowledge with the help of peers and tutors is once again linked to Vygotsky's (1978) social constructivism. Crucially, in the context of the FL model the classroom space is also connected to a social constructivist approach. This further similarity with underpinning theoretical principles can be seen as another exciting possibility to combine EAP with the second pillar of FL (FLN, 2014, Appendix I) as they share a common perspective regarding the role of the tutor.

CONCLUDING THOUGHTS

This article has argued that FL can be understood within the context of social constructivism (Vygotsky, 1978), successful learning results from students' interaction and collaboration with their peers and tutors, in addition to engaging with tasks within their ZPD (Vygotsky, 1978). Thus, making FL a suitable approach to foster effective teaching and learning. The discussion in this article has revealed that although the four pillars of FL (FLN, 2014) may at first appear to be pithy slogans designed to promote a method, they are indeed underpinned by strong educational theory and social constructivism. In turn, these four pillars of FL (FLN, 2014) can effectively support the four

controlling principles of EAP (Flowerdew and Peacock, 2001, p.183) in pre-sessional and in-sessional EAP courses.

The simplicity of the four pillars of FL (FLN, 2014), combined with their strong underpinning by social constructivism, makes them especially suitable for temporary EAP practitioners who may want to familiarise themselves with FL in a quick and efficient manner. They can also be a useful tool for EAP course developers. However, a strong theoretical foundation is not a guarantee of successfully implementing FL in EAP settings. Therefore, further research is needed to understand the extent to which these principles can contribute to the successful implementation of FL.

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APPENDIX

The Four Pillars of F-L-I-P™

F Flexible Environment

Flipped Learning allows for a variety of learning modes; educators often physically rearrange their learning spaces to accommodate a lesson or unit, to support either group work or independent study. They create flexible spaces in which students choose when and where they learn. Furthermore, educators who flip their classes are flexible in their expectations of student timelines for learning and in their assessments of student learning.

F.1	☐ I establish spaces and time frames that permit students to interact and reflect on their learning as needed.
F.2	☐ I continually observe and monitor students to make adjustments as appropriate.
F.3	☐ I provide students with different ways to learn content and demonstrate mastery.

L Learning Culture

In the traditional teacher-centered model, the teacher is the primary source of information. By contrast, the Flipped Learning model deliberately shifts instruction to a learner-centered approach, where in-class time is dedicated to exploring topics in greater depth and creating rich learning opportunities. As a result, students are actively involved in knowledge construction as they participate in and evaluate their learning in a manner that is personally meaningful.

L.1	☐ I give students opportunities to engage in meaningful activities without the teacher being central.
L.2	☐ I scaffold these activities and make them accessible to all students through differentiation and feedback.

I Intentional Content

Flipped Learning Educators continually think about how they can use the Flipped Learning model to help students develop conceptual understanding, as well as procedural fluency. They determine what they need to teach and what materials students should explore on their own. Educators use Intentional Content to maximize classroom time in order to adopt methods of student-centered, active learning strategies, depending on grade level and subject matter.

I.1	☐ I prioritize concepts used in direct instruction for learners to access on their own.
I.2	☐ I create and/or curate relevant content (typically videos) for my students.
I.3	☐ I differentiate to make content accessible and relevant to all students.

P Professional Educator

The role of a Professional Educator is even more important, and often more demanding, in a Flipped Classroom than in a traditional one. During class time, they continually observe their students, providing them with feedback relevant in the moment, and assessing their work. Professional Educators are reflective in their practice, connect with each other to improve their instruction, accept constructive criticism, and tolerate controlled chaos in their classrooms. While Professional Educators take on less visibly prominent roles in a flipped classroom, they remain the essential ingredient that enables Flipped Learning to occur.

P.1	☐ I make myself available to all students for individual, small group, and class feedback in real time as needed.
P.2	☐ I conduct ongoing formative assessments during class time through observation and by recording data to inform future instruction.
P.3	☐ I collaborate and reflect with other educators and take responsibility for transforming my practice.

Scholarbits

Reflection on the Roles of the EAP Teacher and 'Designed-in' Tasks in Cultivating or Inhibiting Students' Critical Thinking Behaviours

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ABSTRACT

EAP teachers are challenged with the responsibility to 'employ tasks, processes and interactions that require students to demonstrate critical thinking skills' (BALEAP, 2008, p.6). Opportunities to nurture these critical thinking skills in our students present themselves in 'designed-in' pedagogic tasks (Hammond and Gibbons, 2005, p.12), as well as our 'contingent', spontaneous interactions with or between students in our classroom practices (Hammond and Gibbons, 2005, p.12). Conversely, the planned tasks or our own teaching may inhibit students' critical thinking behaviours by, for example, presenting a one-dimensional approach. This paper reports on a reflective inquiry task with EAP teachers to explore how our own teaching and that of the planned course materials cultivated or inhibited students' critical thinking behaviours on an intensive EAP eight week writing course. Three teachers and one course coordinator made ongoing observations during delivery and categorised these against three broad views of critical thinking identified by Davies and Barnett (2015): the 'skills and judgement' view of critical thinking (p.11), the criticality perspective, with a focus on critical dispositions, and the critical pedagogy perspective (p.18). The analysis found that the planned-in pedagogic tasks prioritised the skills perspective; for example, the application of a set of skills such as analysis and synthesis. The less measurable tenet of cultivating a critical disposition was also afforded much attention, particularly through teachers own contingent classroom practices. In setting out to explore the above questions, the constraints of delivering such provision needed to be considered. A secondary aim was therefore to explore how to meaningfully reflect on and research our teaching in an intensive EAP environment. The teachers engaged in a review of materials and their delivery as the course was in progress. This provided a deeper reflection of both the planned tasks and their own contingent responses than mainstream end of module evaluations reveal.

KEYWORDS: Critical thinking, English for Academic Purposes, self-reflection, pedagogic tasks

INTRODUCTION

The ability to think critically is highly valued as an outcome of higher education and as such it has long been recognised that EAP teaching (English for Academic Purposes) should aim to cultivate this attribute. Opportunities for academic language learning and critical thinking are seen as 'mutually supportive' of each other (Wilson, 2019, p.2), Furthermore, it is recognised that the EAP teacher has a responsibility to create opportunities for students to demonstrate critical thinking skills through '...tasks, processes and interactions' (BALEAP, 2008, p.6).

How to integrate a critical thinking pedagogy in the time-constrained EAP classroom has also been the subject of discussion though, with Bruce (2020) and Heber and Kuncel, (2016) amongst others, cautioning against an approach characterised by courses in generic, logical reasoning i.e., instruction on how to apply critical thinking to problems across a wide variety of domains. Instead, the need for a more 'situated' approach to the teaching of critical thinking, focusing on developing students' academic discourse competence for the tasks and genres that they will encounter in the target academic discipline has been called for.

Given the key focus on critical thinking on many preparation courses and the time constraints brought about by intensive EAP modules, the impetus for this scholarship was to explore the ways in which critical thinking was developed on an 8-week EAP course for novice learners of academic discourse. This was examined from two perspectives:

1) 'Designed-in' planned pedagogic tasks
    a) Where and how do the current materials/course design cultivate critical thinking?
    b) Where and how do the current materials/course design inhibit critical thinking?
2) 'Contingent'
    a) Where and how does your teaching cultivate critical thinking?
    b) Where and how does your teaching inhibit critical thinking?

The questions represent two forms of scaffolding to support the learner. Hammond and Gibbons (2005) distinguish between 'designed-in' tasks which are the planned, structured course activities, and 'contingent' which are the spontaneous teacher inputs and actions (p.12).

THE CONTEXT

The context for reflection was a module in academic writing which sits within an established EGAP Pre sessional English programme. The syllabus is organised according to separate skills although Speaking and Listening are integrated and the approach to one summative written assignment is Reading-into-Writing using a prescribed set of source material. Materials are bespoke, rather than commercial, and developed in-house. The course was delivered completely online with a blend of live online classes and asynchronous guided independent study.

In each of the three groups there were around ten students from the Middle East and mainland China working towards entrance to postgraduate programmes of study. Their level of English was intermediate [IELTS 5.0-5.5]. Although critical thinking is not exclusive to Western culture, Bali acknowledges (2015) the practical challenges in teaching international students whose political or religious backgrounds do not foster critical debate.

THE APPROACH

Reflection on the experiences of teaching a module and an appraisal of its outcomes is usually the reserve of end of course practices. Through online evaluations or debriefing meetings, teachers' views on what worked and did not work are solicited and discussions on future actions evolve. These practices, although ritualised, have an important part to play in quality assurance and quality enhancement processes. Understandably, the day-to-day challenge of delivering intensive courses reduces time for participation in meaningful ongoing observation and self-reflection, although informal exchanges with peers reveal to us new aspects of teaching and help question our assumptions.

This term though, I wanted to go beyond the end of course appraisal and engage my colleagues in an observation task from the outset. This seemed a timely point to refocus attention on our course content, given a shift to more synchronous (online) teaching this term compared to a previous emphasis on asynchronous learning. It also signalled a return to discussions around pedagogy which were not solely about mode of delivery i.e. the transition to online teaching, which had been the protagonist for much of the last two academic years.

I explained the aims of the task in the course induction to the small team of three highly skilled EAP lecturers, each with Higher Education Academy fellowship and over ten years of teaching preparatory academic English courses. Although the course comprised both synchronous and asynchronous teaching and learning, the reflection focused on material which was delivered live. The workload did not always allow teachers to gain a close understanding of the guided independent study materials, and I was mindful not to increase expectations around this. In some lessons though this material was presented as in flipped mode, and teachers reviewed students' responses in live online classes.

I selected Kate Wilson's 2016 research article 'Critical reading, critical thinking: Delicate scaffolding in English for Academic Purposes' as pre reading material to allow us to explore how critical pedagogy can be realised in the context of a short EAP course. This particular article was chosen for several reasons. It probes deeply into the aims of three teachers in engendering critical dispositions, revealing commonalities and disparities in their teaching practices. My own teaching style relates quite closely to one of teachers in the study, Lucy, who aims to engage students with different meanings in texts. Her detailed deconstructions of these are sometimes beyond the scope of her students' understanding though (Wilson, 2016). I thought that my colleagues may also recognise some shared practices within the descriptions of the three teachers. In addition, I could relate to the performance and responses of the students in Wilson's study. The difference between our context and that of Wilson's case studies was that the focus was only on critical reading pedagogy. Moreover, Wilson (2016) pursues an ethnographic case study where the researcher observed behaviour in a non-directed way. In our context, I involved myself in the reflection task alongside my colleagues, observing my own contingent behaviours and critiquing my own materials.

For this reflection, it was important to provide a common frame of reference for critical thinking. To reduce the need for further and possible contrasting input on what constitutes critical thinking, the three main perspectives identified by Davies and Barnett (2015) and evoked in Wilson's 2016 study in an EAP teaching context are therefore employed.

Being mindful that my colleagues would be reticent to engage in a critical reflection of materials which the coordinator (myself) had developed, I established openness early in the induction by identifying what I thought to be some of the limitations of the current course. These were not specific to the development of critical thinking skills, but other aspects e.g., assessment. Early

acknowledgment of my limitations may have established a channel for genuine reflection, whilst not diminishing support for the course.

Apart from the provision of the pre-reading material, and the four questions to prompt reflection on 'designed-in' and 'contingent' teaching and learning (Hammond and Gibbons, 2005, p.12) there was no further input. I did not, for example, specifically prepare my colleagues for the second question: how our own teaching, that is the contingent, spontaneous tutor- student or even peer-peer interactions cultivated or inhibited critical thinking. At the end of each weekly procedural meeting, I reminded colleagues of the task and inquired into how the notes/observations were going. We decided not to discuss or share notes mid-point as this would tacitly influence our personal observations and a richer reflection would be gained if teachers approached this individually rather than collaboratively. Again, I was mindful not to impose too rigid a framework or instructions as the day-to-day operational needs of such an EAP course mean teachers are occupied and scholarship is best approached non-invasively without generating additional workload or distractions.

OBSERVATIONS

Towards the end of the course, I scheduled a meeting to discuss our observations. This felt very much a big reveal, given our decision not to discuss reflections prior to this. Our observations are summarised in two mind maps below (*Figure 1 and 2*). These are categorised according to Davies and Barnett's (2015) identification of three different pedagogical approaches to teaching critical thinking, the most common approach relating to logic and argumentation. This perspective includes a taxonomy of lower and higher order critical thinking skills such as 'identifying assumptions', 'synthesising claims', and 'evaluating arguments' (Davies and Barnett, 2015, p.12). Such skills 'offer teachers something concrete and practical to teach to their students' (Wilson, 2016, p.252) and notably are assessable. The second involves developing critical dispositions in relation to oneself, others, and the world. A critical disposition can be defined here as an attitude towards or capacity for open mindedness, being curious, showing scepticism, questioning assumptions, being prepared to listen to other points of view, appreciating differences etc. Hence, these first two perspectives define critical thinking as a 'composite of skills and attitudes' (Davies and Barnett, 2015, p.14).

The third approach is 'critical pedagogy', which aims to cultivate students' critical awareness of the world and act on this to make changes and improvements, therefore it is more transformative in nature. This may be enacted by, for example, developing the ability to identify less overt meanings behind claims, and how such concealment may mask powerful social forces which inhibit human freedom and equality. Notably, Wilson (2016) remarks that critical pedagogy has been less present in mainstream EAP teaching, which Haque (2007) argues may be due in part to the positioning of such EAP programmes within departments of applied linguistics and languages, rather than departments of education where a stronger tradition of critical pedagogy lies. The main issue in the adoption of a critical pedagogy approach in EAP is how appropriate it is for mainly skills based, short intensive programmes of instruction. Benesch's work bridges the gap with a focus on applying critical theory to EAP and positioning her work to practising teachers (2001). The examples given are related to 'linked courses' (Benesch, 2001, p.14) i.e., what is known in the UK EAP context as discipline-specific academic English support. By Benesch's own admission, the findings of her experiments are not transferable to other contexts; however, the principles on alternative EAP curricula content which generate possibilities for social awareness and increasing student agency are.

Wilson (2016) usefully outlines how critical theory has been implemented, arguably less contentiously than Benesch (2001), through equipping students with the tools of critical discourse analysis to examine how newspapers promote their perspectives. However, the primary focus of most EAP writing courses is on the discursive and textual elements of genres of writing relevant to the students' intended studies, rather than addressing content from a socio-political perspective. This is not to dismiss the value of critically examining our own and our students' understanding of our worlds in the EAP classroom, and as Haque (2008) forewarns, 'a purely pragmatic approach to EAP . . . may not prepare them for the politically fraught hidden curriculum of pursuing academic degrees' (p.96).

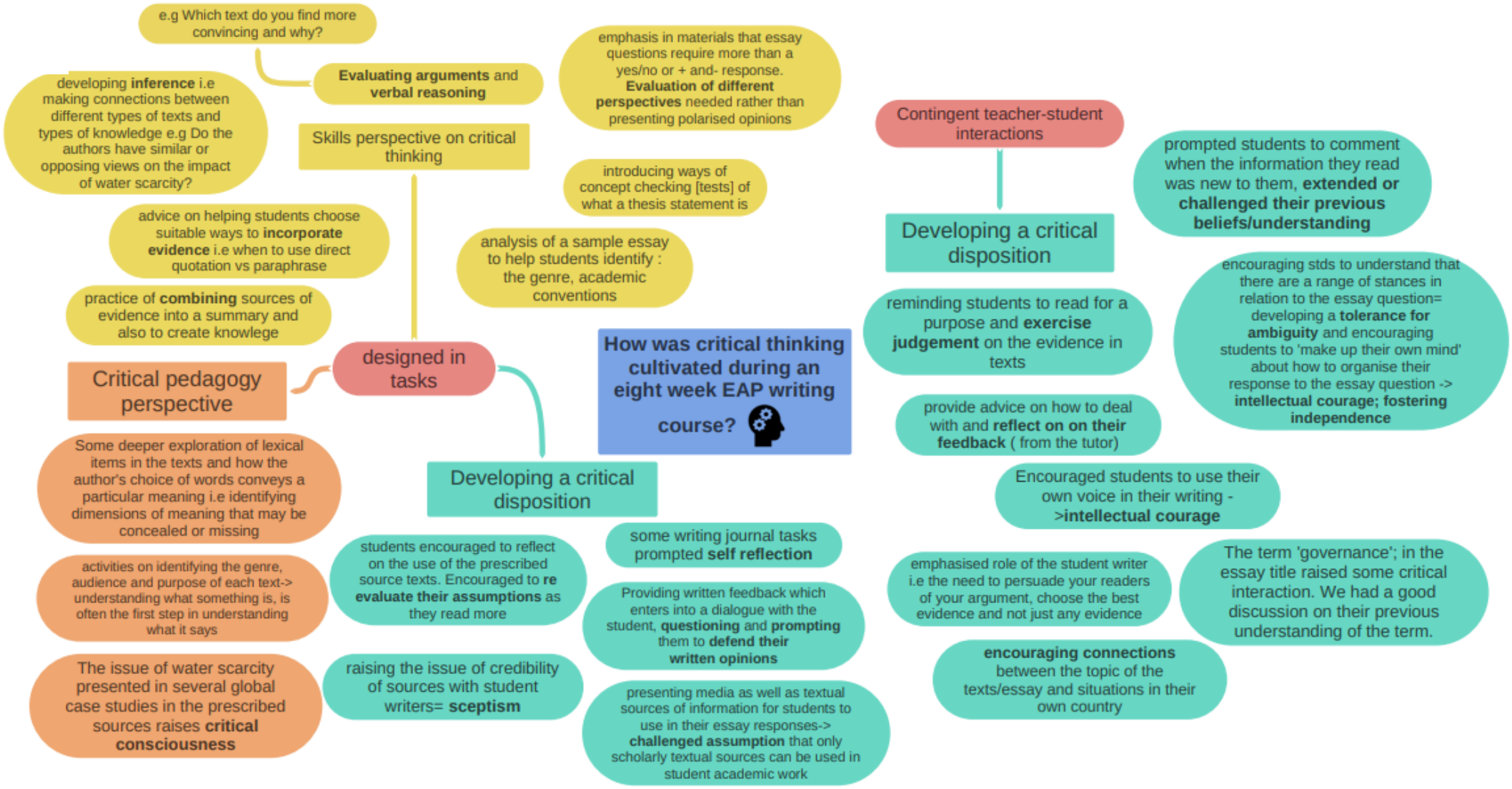

Figure 1: How critical thinking was cultivated during an eight-week EAP writing course

Figure 2: How critical thinking was inhibited during an eight-week EAP writing course

DISCUSSION

Many of the comments in our reflective discussion of the task related to how the planned course materials developed or inhibited critical thinking, and less to the actions of the individual teacher. There are several possible reasons for this. Primarily, it is challenging to observe and reflect on the impact of our own spontaneous interactions. Indeed, without a recording of each lesson to review, I found it difficult to pinpoint my own reactions or contingent teaching moments. Secondly such moments may have been limited compared to in-person teaching where subliminal cues, and classroom strategies tacitly assist in promoting critical thinking micro-interactions. In the digital environment, students' connections with each other may have been weaker resulting in them being less inclined to challenge others' ideas. Our observations, in particular, on how we inhibited critical thinking were limited, with only one of three teachers commenting further on this area. In subsequent small-scale studies, I would pursue this question, but provide more guidance e.g., a cross-comparison of teacher feedback which may prompt reflections on how different styles of commentary impact critical thinking.

The 'designed in' tasks (Hammond and Gibbons, 2005, p.12) offered students opportunities to identify arguments, make connections between texts, and combine and incorporate evidence i.e., a taxonomy of lower and higher order critical thinking skills. They also encouraged students to evaluate their assumptions, and to exercise scepticism. Challenging previous beliefs was also reinforced by the teacher in 'contingent' interactions. (Hammond and Gibbons, 2005, p.12). Two teachers commented on the disposition of intellectual courage i.e., encouraging students to defend their arguments, particularly where these did not conform to the consensus. On the same point, one teacher felt they could have done more to address groupthink in the course and that this inhibited the development of critical thinking skills. Overall, the limited time for more open discussion and exploration of the texts was attributed to inhibiting the development of critical thinking skills.

Categorising the observations in Figures 1 and 2 reveals that critical thinking was indeed approached through a 'composite of skills . . . and attitudes' (Davies and Barnett, 2015, p.14). In studies into university students' critical thinking gains over time, Huber and Kuncel (2016) argue that it is more difficult to develop our students' critical dispositions than teach critical thinking skills, as it is an attitudinal construct. Yet their investigations reveal gains in students' critical thinking dispositions over four years. Our own observations here show that as educators we place much emphasis in the

EAP classroom on cultivating the critical dispositions of our students in our design and teaching of EAP, and although Huber and Kuncel's (2016) investigations reveal that gains are by no means immediate, they underline that time spent here is of value.

Our observations also reflect the slow adoption of the critical pedagogy perspective in mainstream EAP, remarked upon by Wilson (2016). Indeed, our understanding of this approach was less clear than that of the skills and dispositions perspectives. My colleagues were only furnished with Wilson's article as pre reading, and this piece includes only a brief summary of critical pedagogy. Notwithstanding this, it ignited some discussion on the content we present to students and whether we were mindful of the voices it represents or under-represents from historically marginalised segments of society.

Two colleagues commented that the prescribed nature of the course, for example the inclusion of preselected reading texts, meant that students were unable to exercise autonomy. This is something which Bali (2019,para.3) has framed as 'pedagogy of choice' and argues that as well as enhancing inclusivity and engagement, it promotes critical thinking. As an advocate for choice, I have provided opportunities for students to select activities, content and assessment on various modules. The key is helping students to gradually develop their capacity for making informed choices. Lower levels of language proficiency, coupled with the stage in their HE UK journey and the intensity of short EAP courses mean this capacity is hampered. On this particular EAP writing course, the pre-selected sources serve as a model of appropriate samples of texts. Such models may help learners develop their own selection skills in later parts of the programme or their main degree courses. The rationale for the prescribed reading sources is set out to students and teachers, which is a key principle of transparency in teaching.

CONCLUSION

The on-going reflection and our group discussion led to a consideration of how to integrate critical thinking pedagogy in the EAP classroom through designed tasks and how to examine our own roles in cultivating critical thinking behaviours. Incorporating this into a short EAP writing course, alongside managing our students' online participation with its own andragogical implications, was

challenging. We can see from the categorised observations that such courses over-prioritise some skills whilst overlooking other tenets of critical thinking.

Our end of course meeting centred on a wider discussion of how to best induct such a student demographic into exercising evaluative judgement. There was much support for an initial training in identifying arguments, evaluation and developing logical reasoning, especially as some students come from family backgrounds that are culturally not as familiar with university education, i.e., they may be first in family to study at this level and so challenging authority is a new position for them.

Having taught on such generic 'Critical thinking for University' in-sessional courses with self-selecting students, I can testify to the creativity they provide for both teachers and students. These in-sessional courses for those who had met their language entry requirements, were additional to the students' main study diet of modules and were intended to raise consciousness. Despite the enjoyment factor, Huber and Kuncel's (2016) research finds that such courses in problem solving, logic and reasoning provide little transferability in developing critical thinking skills. Bruce (2020) also cautions against separate 'bolt-on' (para, 5) discrete activities, which are only loosely related to the needs of the student. This is especially relevant given the time constraints of such EAP provision. He maintains that the place for critical thinking is through the expression of evaluative judgements, a competence which learners develop through appropriately related activities guiding them on the target genre. Although our discussions did acknowledge the need to keep this proposed training relevant to the content of the course, we need to weigh this up against time spent on tasks, processes and interactions which equip students with the academic discourse competence to process and produce extended texts.

Meaningful engagement in reflective inquiry during intensive teaching periods, although a laudable aspiration, is difficult to instigate given the pressure on colleagues. Through this small-scale task though, I have realised that if approached realistically, there are clear gains in observing and recording our perceptions in real time. It also served to transform some of the more mainstream conversations we had both during and at the end of the course.

With thanks to my three colleagues for their valuable participation.

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Reflecting on Using Extensive Reading as Part of a Classroom Management Strategy

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ABSTRACT

This is a brief reflection on a teaching strategy that was developed to address challenges encountered in EFL classes at a public high school in Taiwan. The large class sizes meant it was difficult to use Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) methods, and the busy schedules of the students left little time for an extracurricular Extensive Reading (ER) program. It was decided to incorporate ER within the class as part of a classroom-management strategy. The students were divided in half, and one group engaged in ER while the others worked with the teacher before switching. ER successfully occupied half the class allowing the teacher to work with one smaller sized class at a time. This allowed for better communication and differentiated learning. Furthermore, some students were inspired to continue reading extensively outside of class time.

KEYWORDS: extensive reading, communicative language teaching, classroom management

BACKGROUND

When I moved from teaching at a private to a public high school in Taiwan, I was struck by two things: crowded classrooms and a crowded curriculum. To make matters worse, there was tremendous diversity in English proficiencies within each class; the pretest I administered yielded up to a 70% range in grades in some classes. These circumstances brought with them new challenges. The first was how to effectively implement Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in large classes of up to forty (not always highly motivated) students. The other was how to introduce an Extensive Reading (ER) program when the students spent all day at school and all night attending cram schools

or doing homework for other classes. A brief scan of the literature revealed I was not alone in facing these two apparently unrelated challenges; they seem to be widespread in many teaching contexts around the world. In this article I briefly outline and reflect on the method I developed to implement the two activities in a complementary way where each diminished the problems associated with the other.

THEORY

ER is the practice of reading large amounts of relatively easy material. With a strong emphasis on student choice and enjoyment (Day and Bamford, 2002); it is a method that contrasts sharply with intensive reading – the sort of challenging, analytical reading that students in language classes are often assigned. Research spanning four decades has found ER to be an effective tool for acquiring vocabulary (Cho and Krashen, 1994; Nation, 1997; Shen, Hong, Huang, and Lin, 2020; Webb and Chang, 2015), grammatical patterns (Elley, 1991; Elley and Mangubhai, 1983; Tudor and Hafiz, 1989), writing skills (Hafiz and Tudor, 1989; Mason and Krashen, 1997; Tsang, 1996), and reading comprehension (Hafiz and Tudor, 1989; Leung, 2002; Sun, 2020). Nishizawa, Yoshioka, and Fukada (2010) quantified the benefits of ER with a finding that reading 1,000,000 English words brought about the same language acquisition benefits as studying in an English-speaking country for 10 months. They further found that for every 100,000 words read, students experienced an improvement of between four and 18 points on a TOEIC test. A meta-analysis of ER research (Nakanishi, 2015) found that using ER showed a medium positive effect (d=0.46) over groups using other methods. Only four of the 22 studies found negative effects for the reading groups.

However, previous studies have found that implementing an ER program is not without its challenges. One of these is lack of time. Students in many learning contexts have little time outside of class to engage in additive ER, and lack of time has been found to be a demotivating factor for ER programs (Ro, 2016; Takase, 2003). This problem could be tackled by dedicating class time to ER. In fact, Robb and Kano (2013) coined the terms *additive* and *replacement* ER to distinguish between ER which is done in class, as opposed to that which is done in a student's free time. However, teachers who replace other, more 'serious', classroom activities with silent pleasure reading might find themselves at odds with expectations from students, parents, and administrators alike. Avoiding ER altogether, though, would be a shame, given the tremendous language-acquisition benefits that arise enjoyably and relatively effortlessly from the process.

CONTEXT

The students in these classes were second year students at a senior high school in Taiwan. They were between 16 and 17 years of age and were learning English as a foreign language. The students got the majority of their English instruction from their Taiwanese English teachers, and each class saw me for one hour per week. (I am the first and only foreign English teacher at the school. My qualifications include a master's degree in education and many years teaching EFL at high schools and universities around Taiwan.) Most of the core curricular requirements were covered by the Taiwanese English teachers, so I set my priorities as building their communicative competence, fluency, and general proficiency. This was agreed on by my coworkers, and within those parameters, I had the freedom to design my own curriculum and create my own materials, providing they were approved by the school committee.

There were several hundred students in the classes I taught, and – as mentioned above – there was a huge discrepancy in their proficiency levels, even within each individual class. This could be partly attributed to their widely varying levels of motivation. For those who were highly motivated English learners, a common driving factor was the high-stakes university entrance exam which was just one year away.

I wanted to implement a double-pronged strategy to address these teaching goals, using ER to improve the students' general proficiency and reading fluency, and Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) to improve their communicative competence and oral fluency. However, the lack of time outside of class precluded a significant additive ER program, and the fact that I only saw each student for an hour each week meant I did not want to monopolize large portions of class time with silent reading. Among other concerns was the optics of being a new teacher at a school spending a significant amount of time sitting quietly in the classroom, apparently doing nothing.

The large class sizes and varying motivation levels of the students also presented challenges for using CLT methods. CLT is grounded in the principle that interaction leads to acquisition. This theory is supported by empirical evidence (for an overview see Gass, 2003). In contrast to traditional instruction, which could theoretically be a lecture delivered to a passive audience of unlimited size, CLT requires active learner participation. Since the instructor's finite class time must be divided

among students, the size of the class has a significant impact on the number of interactions that each individual student can be an active participant in. One solution is to allow simultaneous interactions by having students do group work. However, in crowded classrooms where all students share an L1, they can effortlessly revert to their mother tongues whenever they are not under direct supervision. Such 'difficult to manage classroom situations' might be responsible for a high failure rate of CLT in EFL contexts (Holliday, 1994, p.6). One frustrated Vietnamese teacher who attempted to run a communicative classroom is cited in Hiep (2007, p.199) as saying: 'I wish I have a chance to see how group work could be done successfully with large classes, with low-motivated students. Maybe there is some way to do it, but I don't know.'

As a result of these circumstances no ER was done, and at any given time, in the classroom, seven out of eight groups were having no productive English interactions. This was hardly tenable, but rather than abandon ER and CLT and revert to lecture-style instruction, I introduced ER into the class as part of a classroom management strategy. The hypothesis was that ER could act as a sort of inanimate teaching assistant, keeping half the class gainfully occupied while the remaining students engaged directly with the instructor in the CLT portion of the class. By reducing the number of students engaged in oral communication at any given time, the instructor could be actively involved in a single, manageable class discussion, prompting students to participate and use the target language.

PRACTICE

Resources

Obviously, reading materials were a prerequisite for this system. There are many resources available online, some of which are free; however, using electronic reading material was not a viable option in this case. I had run an ER program using tablets at another school in the past and had found that the internet connection proved too tempting for most students. Reading in a foreign language did not have the appeal necessary to keep average or low-motivated students away from Instagram, YouTube, or online games. Since the current ER program was intended to gainfully occupy students thereby freeing me up to focus on CLT, creating a scenario where I would realistically have to devote most of my time and attention to policing the ER students was far from desirable. As such, creating a physical reading library of paper books was essential.

Most teachers are not fortunate enough to have a physical library in their classrooms, and I was no exception. I found some boxes of unused books gathering dust in storage closets around the school which I pressed into service, but I was also able to convince my school to let me spend my textbook budget for the year on graded readers to start the library. I chose graded readers because they cover a variety of genres and subjects and are written for a wide range of abilities. This made them ideal for classes of high school students, most of whom lacked the ability to read 'authentic' texts written for native speakers their age, but who would likely consider the content of children's books to be below their maturity level. With graded readers, students were able to select books that were the right level and suited their interests.

Setup

In addition to setting up the library corner, I arranged the desks to create a large table in the middle of the classroom with enough seats for half the students and the instructor. The rest of the desks and seats I arranged around the periphery of the classroom to accommodate the ER students. All the seats were set up in such a way as to allow a clear view of both the CLT and the ER students from the instructor's seat.

Procedure

The students were divided into two groups. For half the class, one group joined the instructor around the large table in the middle of the classroom for CLT. The rest of the students all chose interesting, level-appropriate books from the library and read silently. The reading group was asked to leave any electronic devices with the instructor to minimize distractions. Halfway through the class, the students who were reading returned their books to the shelves and switched places with the CLT group, who now became the reading group. This way each student had the opportunity to do both ER and CLT in every class.

Because of the wide range of English proficiencies within my classes, dividing the students according to proficiency had two benefits. First, it allowed for differentiated learning with the CLT groups, and second, it meant that the students in each respective ER group were all reading books with similar difficulty levels. This gave students the opportunity to discuss and recommend books to one another during the CLT portion of the class, helping to 'make reading a shared experience', as recommended by Day and Bamford (2002, p.138).

Whether or not to award grades for ER is a contentious issue. One of the principles of ER is that reading should be its own reward (ibid.). In other words, teachers should not dispense extrinsic motivators, as this could have the negative psychological effect of making reading seem like an onerous chore that needs to be rewarded, rather than a pleasurable endeavor. However, some practitioners find that unmotivated students need some extra incentive to participate (Mori, 2015), at least initially. Arguing for or against making ER a graded component of the class is beyond the scope of this paper. I have done both in the past, but in this instance I decided against offering grades, opting instead for a purist approach to pleasure reading. Since the students were given time to read in class, I believed they would have no alternative other than to participate; therefore, whatever benefits might be offered by extrinsic motivators in other, less supervised, contexts would be outweighed by the potential damage done to the students' perceptions of ER as enjoyment.

REFLECTION

Since the students had little else to distract them or vie for their attention, most of them at least appeared to actually read while in the ER section of the class. Of course, it is possible that the CLT activities in the center of the room caused some level of distraction for the readers, but even in this worst-case scenario, they were still getting comprehensible input in the target language throughout the class, whether from their books or from the class discussion they were eavesdropping on. While I did not formally track the students' reading – in order to comply with Day and Bamford's (2002) principle that reading should be its own reward – there was some encouraging anecdotal evidence supporting the use of class time for ER. Most compelling among these was the fact that many students took the option to borrow books. In the words of Day and Bamford (2002: p.137): 'The success of extensive reading depends largely on enticing students to read'. As such, if the time spent reading in class did indeed entice the students to read, then it can be viewed as time well spent, and that getting students hooked on books was a way of overcoming the demotivational impact of tight schedules identified by Ro (2016) and Takase (2003). In fact, when these same students were asked to provide written feedback about their ER experience the following year, the most common reason given for participating in ER outside of class time was becoming hooked on one particular book. As such, it seems that a small investment of classroom hours dedicated to reading has the potential to yield significant returns in terms of additive ER among students who encounter a gripping story. Given that the benefits of ER come from reading a great deal, reading outside of classroom hours is

absolutely essential to maximize the potential of ER. As such, any reading program that inspires students to read in their own time must be viewed as a success.

This success though, should be viewed as modest given that it was only a minority of the students who borrowed books, and even among these it is not entirely clear how many actually read them. Even the following year, when I made additive ER a course requirement for this same cohort of students, only about a third of them participated, suggesting that for two thirds the time spent in class was not sufficient to transform them into lifelong pleasure readers. However, according to some high participators, the experience was transformative. One student who got the highest possible grade on the English portion of his university entrance exam wrote to me after graduation: 'Reading extensively […] is really like magic. And that magic seems to work on me. […] Please keep telling your students the importance of regularly doing extensive reading.'

The other of the two stated goals of this system – facilitating CLT – also met with success. The improvement in classroom management created an environment where I was able to do CLT with one manageable-sized group at a time, while the rest of the class was productively occupied in a non-disruptive endeavor. The silent nature of ER meant that any outbursts from anyone not involved in the main discussion would not go unnoticed by the instructor or peers, but disruptions were rare since the atmosphere of the classroom was no longer one of multiple speakers in competing conversations vying to make themselves heard. The reduced size of the group communicating with the instructor allowed for more meaningful interaction, as well as differentiated learning. In cultures where CLT is not the norm in language classrooms, as is the case in Taiwan, students need more guidance in order to stay on task. When working in groups without supervision, they might not see the value of the activity and revert to their L1, but this was not a problem when the teacher was a participant in the discussion.

While dividing classes and having students cycle between self-study and teacher-led learning is by no means a ground-breaking development, I found this particular combination of ER and CLT to be effective. I believe it has the potential to alleviate problems that are commonly reported in EFL classrooms around the world and as such, merits further study.

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'If we were on campus. . . ' : Reflections on Managing the Multiple Spaces of Online Teaching.

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ABSTRACT

'*I've not stopped working all day, but if you asked me what I'd actually been doing, I couldn't tell you*'. This comment was from a colleague on the pre-sessional English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP) course that we led from March-June 2020, which was delivered online for the first time due to the COVID-19 pandemic. Managing the multiple new spaces involved in online teaching was a major challenge for our teachers and a significant factor in the increased workload that they reported. In this paper, we discuss these spaces and their impact on our teachers by drawing on mediated discourse analysis (e.g. Scollon, 2001; Jones, 2005; 2015). We reflect on how our attention was distributed across Jones's (2005) five spaces of computer-mediated communication – virtual, physical and relational, as well as screen space and third spaces – and how this led to an increase in workload and associated stresses. We also discuss and evaluate our responses, as well as further responses enacted on subsequent courses. We conclude that there are steps that can be taken to manage the multiple spaces of online teaching more effectively, thus somewhat mitigating the impact on teachers.

KEYWORDS: Computer Mediation Communication, Mediated Discourse Theory, online teacher training, workload, impact of COVID-19

INTRODUCTION

In spring 2020, we were preparing to lead *Academic English for Postgraduate Studies Level 3* (AEPS3), a ten-week pre-sessional English for General Academic Purposes course at the University of Leeds. By mid-March, in response to the COVID-19 pandemic, the decision had been made to deliver the course online for the first time, starting on 30th March 2020. AEPS3 was a large course with 340 students, most of whom were based in China or the Middle East. These were taught by 31 teachers, many of whom had been recently recruited and whom we had not met in person. Due to the pandemic, some teachers were not able to travel or return to the UK; as a result, both staff and students were spread over several time zones.

It soon became apparent that colleagues were working harder and much longer hours than previously. We identified one cause of this as the fiddly and dispersed nature of our new ways of working. To analyse and better understand this phenomenon we have produced this reflective account, drawing on Jones' (2005) framework of the five main spaces of computer-mediated communication to make sense of our experiences and recollections. In this account, we use principles from Mediated Discourse Theory (R. Scollon, 2001; de Saint Georges and S. Scollon, 2013; Jones 2014) which consider the relations between actions, practices, identities and discourses inherent in all mediational means, to reflect on the challenges to our teaching practices and identities. We also present our response on AEPS3 and subsequent courses and make recommendations for how to manage the multiple spaces of online teaching. Some recommendations are evidence-based, while others are based on our non-experimental observations.

MEDIATED DISCOURSE THEORY

Mediated Discourse Theory (MDT) conceptualises talk and texts as some among a number of modes of discourse, which also can be manifested through action. Action can be both "mental", for example, thought or talk, and "practical", for example, clicking a mouse. MDT regards practices as constituted by a socially recognisable pattern of actions. Actions are to practices as words are to sentences (Bedny and Karwowski, 2004), so to participate in a practice requires actions to be produced in a "syntagmatic" sequence – in a way that is recognisable and meaningful to others.

Practices and discourses are mutually constitutive; thus, ways of doing shape ways of thinking: teaching practices become methodologies and pedagogical principles, which can be standardised, so that teachers can be observed and evaluated. Observers look for examples of "good practice" and teachers want to be recognised as "good teachers" who adhere to "professional values". These discourses permeate the very marrow of teacher identity, an identity that was being radically shaken during our first term of emergency online teaching.

This was apparent in the way that teachers' attention was being consumed by an unremitting and exhausting focus on the very basic level of action: where to click on the screen? How to use the various functions of each new platform? How could they feel like good teachers when they could not work out what students would be doing, or where or how they would be doing it? According to de Saint Georges (2005), these 'sites of attention' indicate the opening of 'sites of engagement' (Scollon, 2001), which are moments when a particular constellation of practices comes together to make something happen. Our sites of engagement arose when teachers faced the challenge of working out how to do simple, everyday tasks in unfamiliar online environments.

It was difficult to make sense of the rapidly proliferating ways in which we were communicating and so we drew on Jones' (2005) suggestion of the five (or more) spaces of Computer-Mediated Communication (CMC) to think about our sites of engagement. These spaces offer a way of tracing actions across time and place, avoiding the false dichotomy of online/offline communication. Furthermore, they complement the notion that a site of engagement is constructed in interaction, as we multitask, and as different actions draw our attention in different spaces. Jones (2005; 2011) makes the point that discourses embedded in these spaces not only interact but also shape what we can do and who we can be. Below is our conceptualisation of the five main spaces of CMC on our course:

Physical spaces

Physical space refers to where people are physically located during interaction. Physical spaces embody certain discourses. For instance, a discourse of teaching and learning is embodied in the layout of a classroom or lecture theatre. Features such as the seating arrangement, and position of the whiteboard and teacher desk work to structure attention towards teaching and learning in particular ways, such as passive listening in a lecture, or active construction of knowledge through

academic discussion. By contrast, then, attention in the ad hoc physical spaces where we found ourselves working was structured by other, quite different discourses. Working from home, we experienced a blurring of the professional with the domestic or private discourses, alongside changed routines. Not needing to walk between classrooms, we took fewer natural breaks. Many colleagues were working from cramped accommodation or were stranded overseas; many had to manage the demands of young families; few had comfortable workstations. At the same time, many students exploited the affordances of mobile learning by working in restaurants or even driving from place to place while taking live classes. Thus, expectations around the teaching/learning experience were suddenly upended by intersections of discourses in new places.

Virtual spaces

These are the different spaces where we interacted online. The number of virtual spaces in use on the course proliferated, as country – or region-specific restrictions and the differing affordances and limitations of each potential platform meant that no one space met all our requirements. Our main virtual space was Microsoft Teams, but we also continued with Outlook, our VLE and shared documents in OneDrive, as well as introducing One Note/Class Notebook, Zoom and Flipgrid. Colleagues frequently "disappeared" navigating between virtual spaces and many suffered from distributed attention: 'I've not stopped work all day but if you asked me what I'd actually been doing, I couldn't tell you'. Managing different identities in different spaces occasionally caused cracks in the professional veneer, for example mis-posting a staff message in the student team. Ownership of class space also felt contentious: some teachers even reported feeling under scrutiny, as if they were working "in a goldfish bowl". Some created their own closed virtual spaces; others devised alternative collaborative writing spaces, using Word instead of Class Notebook.

Relational spaces

This refers to the social relations between staff and/or students. As mentioned, many colleagues had not previously met or worked together, and the majority of students were also new to the university and had not met in person. We noticed that (non)use of webcams in classes and staff meetings profoundly affected participation and engagement through loss of visual cues. Similarly, difficulties in turn-taking in virtual space reduced the amount of spontaneous talk, meaning that staff meetings felt far less collaborative than we would have wished, and live classes were more easily dominated by teacher talk. Monolingual groups were hard to avoid because of grouping classes in the same time zones, and so it was more difficult to encourage and monitor students' use of English, as

students in breakout rooms often resorted away from English language. As a result of the frequent need to make our shared purpose – the development of students' oral English fluency and meta language for participating in academic discussions – more explicit, teachers reported more "language policing" which may also have affected teacher-class rapport.

Screen spaces

By screen spaces, we refer to screen layout. Working from home, we all used our own devices, set up in idiosyncratic ways, so what we saw was often slightly different from what others saw. This was a huge challenge when remotely inducting teachers into the new platforms, te chnological literacy practices and online pedagogies, '*I can't see that on my screen ...'* was a common and persistent refrain. Teachers frequently faced this same challenge when interacting with students; a significant proportion of time, before and during teaching sessions, could be spent on checking what was visible or what tools were available on what devices, as opposed to the lesson content. This added further to the demands of teaching (well) remotely.

Third spaces

This refers to places evoked during interactions, other than the places where the interactors were located at the time. Frequently, the third space evoked was the university campus. Many teachers commented about their teaching; comments such as *'Yes, but if we were on campus ...'* were often followed by one about how it would have been better, easier, quicker in some way, trying to make sense of their current practices in comparison with what they might have done in the physical classroom. At least initially, this preoccupation could be said to have impeded our development of effective online teaching practices. We were working out, through experimentation, how to minimise the loss of affordances available through in-person teaching in the physical space of the classroom, and perhaps were too focused on replicating communicative language teaching remotely instead of exploring new equally appropriate ways of achieving the same.

The university campus was also a third space for students, albeit one that most of them had never visited. In terms of students' sense of belonging, it was difficult to conjure up a sense of the university and the region where they would one day – we hoped – live and study. We experimented with a "course discussion" channel on Teams where we integrated the third spaces in our university

and regions and encouraged students to share their own. Once again, however, this incrementally added to our own workloads.

Summary

The effect on workload of managing the multiple spaces discussed in this section was voiced frequently in the first month of the course. A significant amount of time was being spent on puzzling out new practices at the level of mental and practical action, and staff reported hugely increased amounts of stress from working longer but with less tangible results. We found that changing our professional practices challenged existing teacher identities and displaced our sense of who was who and what was valued in our community of practice. The result seemed to be highly discomforting for many teachers. One joked, *'I'm a very competent teacher, I know I am!'*

RESPONSES

We immediately implemented a range of responses on the initial remote iteration of AEPS3 which we reflected on and refined for subsequent iterations. In this section, we will discuss and evaluate these initial responses, relating them to the multiple spaces above.

Synchronous/asynchronous sessions

Perhaps with most impact, we reduced the number of platforms used and thus the time spent both on switching between virtual spaces and on familiarising both colleagues and students with new digital literacy practices. We now more carefully evaluate platforms' affordances before adopting them. Working across several time zones limited synchronous contact time. Therefore, we implemented a flipped learning approach, introducing concepts in asynchronous sessions and then consolidating and extending understanding in synchronous sessions. Thus, we could exploit the affordances of different virtual spaces for both learning and academic community building (as explained below). Adopting this approach freed us from the constraints of seeking to replicate our classroom practices remotely, as mentioned above, and allowed us to explore new practices which were more effective in online environments. As course planners and materials writers, we had to shift our perspective on interaction design to think in terms of computer mediated rather than person mediated interaction and quickly learnt the importance of viewing asynchronous materials from our students' perspective (Hattie, 2009), always considering, '*Are these instructions clear*

enough?'. We used Carroll's (1999) scenario-based design approach, in which we visualised students' progress through self-study materials as a journey, enacted click by click. Scenario-based design and the reduction in number of platforms improved navigability through virtual spaces.

Initially, we designed asynchronous sessions to be highly communicative, requiring tutors to set up tasks and provide answers or feedback in multiple virtual spaces (a Teams post, a collaborative document. . .). Teachers quickly and emphatically informed us that this was creating an unsustainable workload. In response, as well as using one platform per session, we streamlined these sessions by providing answers through keys, pre-recorded videos or Microsoft Forms quizzes and directing tutors to provide general, group comments on selected tasks only. We asked teachers to monitor students' engagement, using flipped learning materials through the synchronous sessions which were designed to check and consolidate students' asynchronous learning. In in-person teaching, teachers would not have read or listened to every student's response to every task; therefore, we concluded that there was no need for them to do so in online teaching either. Teachers reported that their workload was significantly reduced by these changes. On the initial online iteration of AEPS3, we (as module leaders) took responsibility for creating and sharing asynchronous materials with all students; however, we soon realised that this reduced the opportunity for individual tutors to take ownership of planning and personalising materials for their own classes. On subsequent iterations we refined this approach, encouraging teachers to adapt course materials for their students (see *Teacher Agency and Identity* below) and securing a solution that was also sustainable in terms of module leaders' workload.

Expectations

We have learnt the importance of communicating clear expectations of colleagues. As a result of adjustments to new practices as outlined above, not least the time taken to navigate and set up tasks in virtual spaces, initially, many staff reported working into evenings and weekends, especially in the first month. We repeatedly emphasised therefore, that we were not expecting perfection, particularly as we were delivering emergency remote teaching rather than carefully planned and designed online instruction (Craig, 2020; Gardner, 2020).

We also needed to manage student expectations in two senses. Firstly, that they should not expect tutors to be constantly and instantly available, nor should they expect individual feedback on eve ry

task. Secondly, students should understand our expectations of them: for instance, that it was not appropriate to join webinars from the restaurant where they were working or the car they were driving. On subsequent courses, we have ensured that expectations of both colleagues and students are clear to all from the beginning, as recommended by Cross and Polk (2018). As working in online spaces is relatively new to all of us, it is important to make clear expectations that might be embedded in the discourses of in physical spaces such as classrooms or staff rooms.

Sharing information and support

To better manage questions and concerns (Dunlap, 2005), we created a stock of answers to FAQs for staff and student teams, which reduced the number of queries needing a direct response. This reduced everybody's stress.

Technological practices had a profound impact on relations within the team, some members of which had limited experience with digital pedagogy. Solutions included sharing screens and recording screencasts, which were used to 'walk colleagues through' instructions on the screen. We also found that by sharing screencasts with students directly, or by providing tutors with screencasts that they could share with students, we saved tutors' time and, in some cases, reduced their stress: tutors could spend valuable contact time on teaching, and did not have to worry that the technology would let them down mid-demonstration.

As mentioned above, many colleagues were recent recruits whom we had never met. This affected our relational space, as it was harder to know how these teachers were managing and whether further support was needed. Therefore, we arranged one-to-one video calls with all teachers. While still a virtual space, these calls had more in common with physical space than text posts and messages; for example, we could drink a coffee 'together' and see each other's body language. This allowed us to better build rapport and identify support needs.

Teacher agency and identity

The greater importance of technological knowledge increased the profile of less-experienced EAP teachers, while other highly-experienced EAP teachers with less-developed technological knowledge found their professional identities threatened. Therefore, while encouraging peer support was

important, we needed to be aware of the potential impact on teachers' sense of professional identity and relations within the team.

Similarly, some early decisions had compromised teacher agency: for example, as mentioned above, presenting learning materials in a course-wide Class Notebook limited teachers' ability to adapt materials for their groups. This decision had a negative impact in terms of teacher identity and therefore relational spaces. On subsequent courses, we have given teachers more choice over the virtual spaces they use and enabled them to adapt or create their own materials.

Explicit community building

On De Pauw's subsequent six-week summer pre-sessional, she and her co-lead created some cross-team spaces, for example, a student café channel, which aimed to socialise students into the wider university by helping them connect with others with the same destination programme or who perhaps lived nearby in their home countries. They also integrated wider Language Centre activities by posting links to other online social spaces and events. Responsibility for sustaining these initiatives was shared out among the teaching staff via a rota, distributing the workload. Perhaps equally importantly, sharing this responsibility also encouraged cross-team collaboration from teachers on short summer contracts, an opportunity that may not have existed as explicitly before COVID-19.

CONCLUSION

As has been discussed (e.g., Blum, 2020), teaching online can be exhausting for many reasons. Using the CMC framework of spaces described above can be helpful for pinpointing where attention is being redirected away from main goals, and thus some of the sources of frustration, as well as how workload issues might subsequently be addressed. The responses mentioned here seem to have had a positive impact. Teachers have reported fewer issues with workload and stress, for example, although some teachers may have been reluctant to share their struggles with us, particularly those on fixed-term contracts and/or who continued to struggle for longer. It is also difficult to know to what extent improvements were due to our responses rather than colleagues gradually adjusting to online teaching. Despite these caveats, there do seem to be steps that can be taken to manage online teaching more effectively, thus somewhat mitigating the negative impact on teachers.

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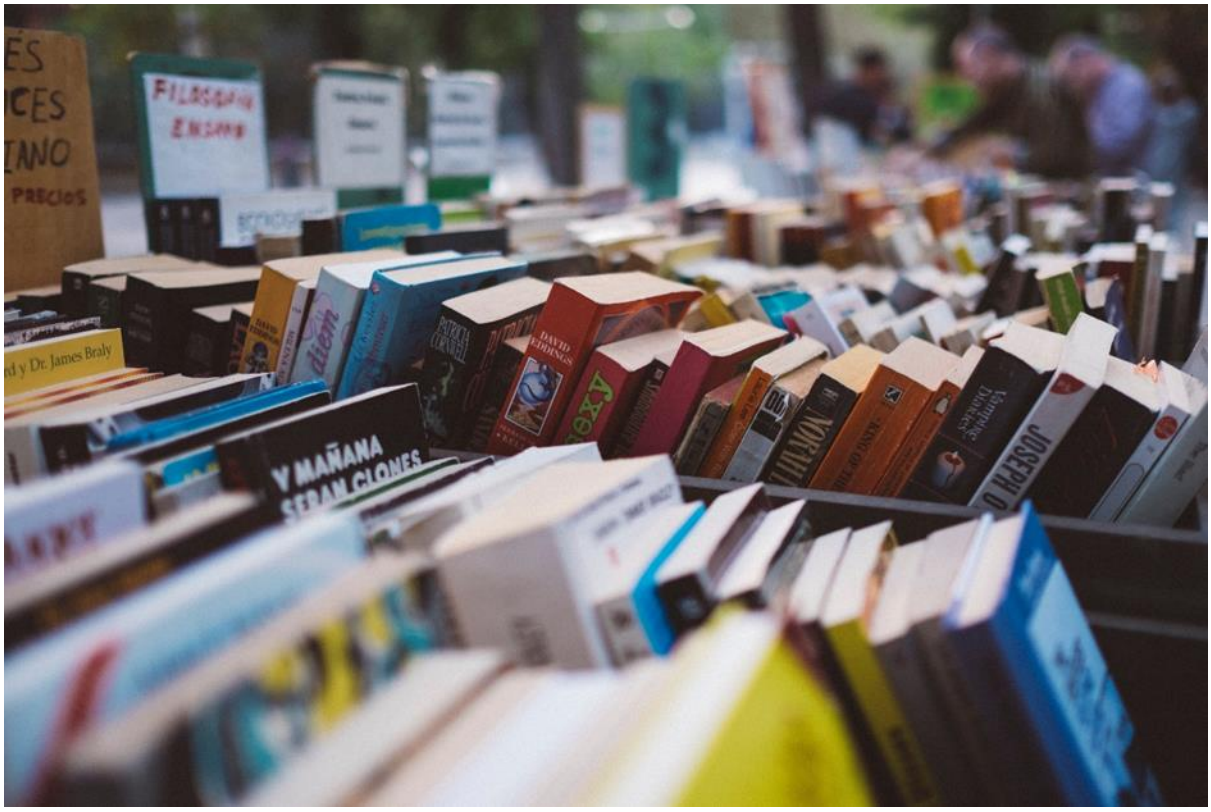
Reviews



Book review of: MacDiarmid, C. and MacDonald, J. J. eds. 2021. *Pedagogies in English for Academic Purposes: Teaching and Learning in International Contexts*. Bloomsbury. eBook: £64.80. ISBN: 9781350164819.

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KEYWORDS: critical thinking, pedagogy, context, collaboration, EAP, practitioner

INTRODUCTION

Pedagogies in English for Academic Purposes: Teaching and Learning in International Contexts is the second in the Bloomsbury book series 'New Perspectives for English for Academic Purposes', which aims to represent 'what happens when it's the practitioners who ask the questions' (p.14). This book certainly does that, focusing on questions that in my experience concern EAP teachers most - course and lesson planning, teacher and student interaction, learning and its transfer to other contexts. Each of the 11 chapters, reported from South Africa, Brazil, Canada, the US, Turkey, Norway and the UK, describes a specific course or lesson. The chapters are ordered from general towards more discipline-specific practices, representing a spectrum of specificity rather than perpetuating the traditional and often unhelpful dichotomy of English for General or Specific Purposes - EGAP and ESAP respectively - which is often laced with pejorative tones towards the former (for a useful discussion of this, see Bodin-Galvez and Ding, 2016). In the spirit of challenging these dichotomies further, I have organised this review by the chapters' relative emphasis on three aspects of their contexts: social, linguistic and institutional.

Social contexts

The first two chapters set out to help students develop a critical approach to their immediate environments. Working with undergraduate students on a foundation year in Canada, McGaughey

and Song (Chapter 1) describe an attempt to develop students' 'critical intercultural communicative competence', drawing on critical multicultural education and critical race theory. In the United States, Conrad (Chapter 2) tackles the ethically murky issue of 'literacy brokering', presented as degrees of outside involvement, with contract cheating at one extreme, moving to proofreading and then more informal support from friends/family at the other. The lesson described aims to raise students' awareness of 'the collaborative and social aspects of the writing process' (p.45). The lesson activities are explained in detail and include accompanying resources. The chapter concludes with students' written reflections on this lesson, which provide a fascinating insight into the impact of Conrad's pedagogy. In a similar way to chapter 1, the result of the pedagogical intervention is that students have a more critical awareness of the social context in which they are studying.

Chapters 4 and 5 also concentrate on social context through questioning assumptions and encouraging students and teachers to 'make the familiar seem strange' (Thomson, cited in Molinari, 2017). Chapter 4 (Solli and Muir) outlines an Academic Writing Programme for PhD students with professional backgrounds at OsloMet university in Norway. The chapter explores pedagogical responses to the tensions students experience between their identities as practitioners and as researchers. Many of the innovative lessons described ask students to step out of the rules of academic writing to explore their research, and themselves as researchers, with an unfamiliar gaze. My personal favourite is 'glorious failures' from Paré (2010) in which students write about their research in forms not for conventional publication, such as fairy tales or cartoons. Ferreira (Chapter 5) responds to the peripheral positioning of Brazilian academic writers in global knowledge production by developing her science students' 'theoretical thinking' at the university of São Paolo, Brazil. Both lessons described expose students to the rhetorical patterns of academic writing but present these in their wider historical or social context, providing space (often through guided questions, which are helpfully shared) for students to decide to 'resist or to use... in their service' (p.97). This approach is underpinned by a 'Developmental Teaching' method, in which teachers and students create visual models of the writing concepts they are learning, adapting them as their understanding develops, applying them to different contexts and evaluating their learning as a result, from which critical thinking emerges. What I particularly appreciated about this method is the symbiotic attention to both student *and* teacher development - teachers are sometimes overlooked in discussions of criticality, perhaps on the assumption that we don't need to do this or can do this already.

All but two of the chapters in this book were multi-authored, illustrating the very social nature of EAP work. Perhaps unsurprisingly the process of collaboration was most explicitly discussed in the later, more discipline-specific, chapters of the book. Lu and Zou (Chapter 8) report on subject tutors' perspectives of collaboration with EAP tutors in a Chinese EMI university. They present many practical examples of EAP-subject tutor collaboration, providing a relatively unseen perspective on collaboration from the 'other side' of EAP work. MacDiarmid et al. (Chapter 11) describe the integration of EAP and discipline-specific pedagogy on a pre-sessional course for medical students at the University of Glasgow. For EAP teachers working within specific departments, this chapter suggests that being attentive to discipline-specific pedagogies could be a fruitful area of enquiry. In Chapter 10, Carr et al. focus on collaboration *between* EAP Practitioners across the UK as a method of enquiry in the form of Collaborative Autoethnography. This method involves a collective pooling of experiences which can reveal a rich picture of teaching contexts and the roles EAP can play (the authors' recent webinar expands on this). Based on their shared experiences of working on creative arts courses, the authors' findings provide insights into an under-researched area of EAP work, including the challenges of teaching in a garden and making sense of unfamiliar genres such as the 'visual essay'.

Linguistic contexts

Two chapters focus on the explicit teaching of linguistic knowledge to help students be more critical consumers and producers of text. Walsh Marr (Chapter 3) describes teaching three 'hero moves' of Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) to her first-year EAP students at the University of British Columbia: nominalisation, Theme, and verbal processes. She acknowledges that including SFL metalanguage and concepts can be intimidating for teachers new to the theory and this chapter addresses that well by providing detailed examples of lesson activities, student-friendly explanations of SFL concepts and advice about helping students learn these concepts. She argues that such knowledge can '[propel] our students' success beyond accuracy and compliance to developing more varied linguistic resources to be deployed critically' (p.71). A similar ethos underpins Chapter 9 (Myers et al.) which describes the principles and practice of a general EAP course in a UAE university. Drawing on a wide range of theoretical perspectives - genre, SFL and critical realism - the authors argue persuasively for a teacher-centred pedagogy in order to develop genre literacy, with the goal that students are able to transfer this to discipline-specific contexts. The authors discuss the compromises that limit the benefits of the course, such as an institutionally mandated number of marking criteria resulting in students being distracted from the learning outcomes, alongside the many benefits, such as the high quality of student work and reduced cases of plagiarism. Because of

the contextual richness and what could be seen as heresy in EAP - a teacher-led, rather than student-centred approach - I believe this chapter offers many areas for reflection among EAP practitioners. Taken together, these two chapters are compelling examples of how EGAP approaches can be designed for transfer to disciplinary contexts.

Institutional contexts

Chapters 6 and 7 tackle the tensions between the institutional requirements for general EAP provision and teacher, student and empirical support for more discipline-specific provision. In chapter 6, Mpofu and Maphalala compare the EAP provision for students on undergraduate education programmes in three universities in South Africa. Using a document analysis method, examining course handbooks, syllabi, learning aims and marking criteria to gain an understanding of the principles underpinning each type of provision, they find all provision tends towards the generic study skills approach. I found the literature review of this chapter, which includes an overview of language policy and practices in South African HE, especially informative. A pragmatic response to these challenges is presented by Aksit and Aksit in chapter 7, which describes an EGAP course for undergraduates at a Turkish university. The course described is informed by four main contextual factors: university policy, critical thinking, students' academic needs and personal interests. These contextual factors are then related to the course's 'philosophical foundations' which guide course development. What could be seen as conflicting philosophies such as essentialism (mastering a set body of knowledge) and reconstructionism (challenging power structures and conflicts) sit side by side. They conclude by linking these foundations to a 'pedagogical model of EGAP'.

OVERALL COMMENTS

The introduction and afterward chapter frame the core of the book well, emphasising the often-overlooked aspect of pedagogy in EAP scholarship. As would be expected with such a range of approaches and contexts across the 11 chapters, there are conflicting rationales and approaches. I found this invigorating. And as I read, I found myself questioning my own sense of pedagogy - which approaches do I warm to? Which bristle? And why? The evidence for the efficacy of the approaches described include links to theory and some empirical accounts of student learning, but for me, the chapters do not offer a method guaranteed to work but rather an insight into thoughtful responses to different contexts and an invitation to consider what might be relevant to our own.

Two areas that I felt were underexplored were practitioner precarity and assessment. How representative of EAP pedagogy are these cases when most EAP teachers (in the UK at least) are precariously employed and have little free time or autonomy within EAP departments to develop their pedagogy in this way? Some of these voices were presented at the recent Practitioner Precarity and Coronavirus online event. I was able to consider these chapters from the stance of a relatively securely employed EAP teacher with relative freedom to teach how I see fit, but how about teachers on summer pre-sessional courses bound by strict deadlines, standardised assessments and centrally prepared lesson materials? Is there a different EAP Pedagogy for these situations? In terms of assessment, only chapters 9 and 11 consider this in detail yet the powerful influence that assessment can have on teaching and learning (Shohamy, 2001) suggests that this should be a factor in pedagogical accounts. Without this, chances of the innovative practices presented in this book becoming more widely taken up are reduced as any changes at the level of classroom practice can be undone through contradictory assessment practices, limiting the 'possibility for structural change' (Pearson, 2021).

EAP practitioners will find an abundance of practical ideas for lesson and course design which are well-contextualised and with detailed rationales. This is especially useful for areas which are ill-served (or ignored?) in much current published EAP course materials, such as the social practice of writing, the historical development of genres, SFL, academic integrity, 'theoretical thinking' and signature pedagogies. I was revising a course as I read this and found myself able to draw on activities and student-friendly explanations described in this book, refreshing and expanding my pedagogical options.

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