

Innovation and Leadership in English Language Teaching
Volume 1

Language Program Leadership in a Changing World: An Ecological Model

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INNOVATION AND LEADERSHIP IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE
TEACHING VOLUME 1

LANGUAGE PROGRAM LEADERSHIP IN A CHANGING WORLD: AN ECOLOGICAL MODEL

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INVESTOR IN PEOPLE

PREFACE

This book grew out of a fortuitous and highly satisfying collaboration by the two authors, who have been friends and colleagues since the time when we both attended graduate school in Linguistics at the University of Pennsylvania. Even though we were soon located in different parts of the country and later the world, connecting only very occasionally at conferences, we maintained a sense of friendship, collegueship, and mutual interest in and admiration for each other's work over the years and across the miles. In the intervening period, we each gained extensive administrative, leadership, and academic experience in language programs, universities, and organizations at state, regional, national, and international levels, while also pursuing scholarship through research and teaching in English language, applied linguistics, and sociolinguistics.

Martha had originally contracted with Elsevier (in 2003) for a book on language program management that would draw on her previous writings going back to the mid-1980s and place these within the framework of an ecology model which she had introduced in the Higher Interest Section panel at the TESOL conference in 1999. After three years, having made little progress on the book, Martha invited Barbara to join the project as a co-author, a role she took up with gusto. The contributions Barbara made to the book have been substantial and have changed it greatly from the original conception, as the title emphasizing not *Management* but *Leadership in a Changing World* suggests.

The resulting work is the product of the highly stimulating interaction and synergy of the two of us working together, mostly at a distance, over four years. It is very much a collaborative effort, with most chapters no longer identifiable as one or the other author's work. It is in addition, we believe, a quite original book that seeks to theorize language program leadership and to characterize it in all its complexity as situated practice. It breaks new ground in its broad-based view of language programs as incorporating many kinds of tangible and intangible resources, its approach to leadership in English language teaching based on an ecology metaphor, and its balancing of theoretical and research perspectives with practical examples and case studies.

In the chapters that follow, we situate the leadership of language programs in both global and local contexts and consider their hybrid nature as educational and business enterprises. Our book goes far beyond a discussion of either curriculum and instruction or management, linking

leadership of language programs to the larger field of language teaching, especially English language teaching at university level, and its complex identity as instruction, academic discipline, profession, business, and service. The centerpiece of the book is an ecological model that highlights the multiple components and contextual facets of a language program, their highly interactive relationships, and their continually evolving nature.

A novel feature of the book is its separate chapters on students and faculty written from the perspective of leadership functions, in addition to a chapter devoted to reviewing concepts of leadership and research on the leadership of language programs. We introduce a general curriculum development model which we carry through to a broader discussion of program development and strategic planning. The book also offers directions for discussion based on the case studies of aspects of program leadership and for research on language programs and their leadership, making this book suitable for current as well as future program leaders. The case studies in this volume have been created by the authors to illustrate issues based upon many years of experience in language program administration. All names are pseudonyms. Resemblance to particular people or programs is coincidental as actual identifying information has been changed. The composite nature of the case studies does, however, reflect real dynamics and should ring “true to life” for those in the profession. Given its comprehensive nature, its links to the larger field of language teaching, and its theoretical and practical content, we believe it could be of value for graduate students in applied linguistics, offering views of the concerns of language programs and the field of language teaching, along with researchable topics.

When Emerald acquired Elsevier’s language list, our book was slated to be the first in a new series that Martha would launch on “Innovation and Leadership in English Language Teaching.” We are excited to see our book, which has had a long time to grow and evolve, published in this series by Emerald, and we look forward to readers’ responses to it. We hope that English language program leaders, as well as university administrators charged with international education and others connected to language teaching find something useful and perhaps inspirational in our book. If the text transmits to readers some of the excitement we have felt in meshing and synergizing our ideas and experiences in developing its content, then we will feel that we have succeeded in communicating our conception of *Language Program Leadership in a Changing World*.

Martha C. Pennington
Barbara J. Hoekje

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PART I

THE CONTEXT

CHAPTER ONE

THE LANGUAGE PROGRAM IN A CHANGING WORLD

Language program leadership is situated in the context of a globalized world and complex and rapidly changing educational environments. The context of language program leadership is described in relation to the spread of English, the increase in international exchange, the language program as a community of practice, the multiple functions of language programs, and the ecological model that is the centerpiece of this book.

THE GLOBAL CONTEXT OF LANGUAGE PROGRAM LEADERSHIP

Despite the interruption to international education in the United States in the years immediately following the September 11 terrorist attacks in 2001, worldwide interest in programs of international educational exchange and language study has been growing steadily in the 21st century. These programs include credit degree programs, non-credit certificate programs, international work and internship experiences, and language programs. In the years ahead, some of these language programs will survive, thrive, and become known for offering quality language education that raises the standard of professional practice generally. Other programs will fail, offering claims for fluency or other services or revenue generation that could not be delivered.

It is the intent of this book to provide a framework for viewing and managing language programs that demonstrates the complexity of the enterprise and its *ecological* nature—that is, the relatedness of the various components of English language teaching and language programs to each other and to a larger sociocultural, economic, and political context. An understanding of language programs as ecologies allows the leader of a language program to engage in strategic leadership that is future-oriented, innovative, and strategic. This is especially important in today's globalized world, where events occurring in one country affect people and activities in another.

ENGLISH IN A GLOBAL SOCIETY

English is now widely recognized as the world's main *lingua franca*, a truly international language (Jenkins, 2007). In numbers alone, English is one of the world's major languages. Crystal (2003, p. 65) reports the number of "L1" (first language or "mother tongue") English language speakers worldwide at about 329 million. To that number can be added 80 million speakers of English-based pidgins and creoles, for an approximate total of over 400 million mother tongue speakers of some variety of English (*ibid.*, p. 67).

For second-language ("L2") speakers, that is, speakers who have learned English in addition to their mother tongue, Crystal (2003, p. 65) estimates another 430 million speakers worldwide. Linguasphere Observatory (<<http://www.linguasphere.org>>) sets the number of speakers of English as a first or second language as already at one billion. In addition, Crystal (p. 68) reports British Council estimates of as many as another billion speakers learning English as a foreign language. Conservative estimates are that one in four people in the world can communicate to some degree in English (p. 69).

What makes English a truly global language has to do with (a) the breadth of its spread throughout the world and (2) the depth of its institutionalization in countries beyond the primary-use English language countries. Kachru (1986) has provided a useful model for capturing the historical situation of English in the world, with a three-ring model of *inner circle*, *outer circle*, and *expanding circle* countries where English is spoken. The "inner circle" countries are those where English is a primary language, including Australia, Canada, the United Kingdom, and the United States. "Outer circle" countries include India, Singapore, Nigeria, and Papua New Guinea, where English has been spread primarily through colonization and other historical contact situations. The "expanding circle" countries are those where English is rapidly being acquired as a foreign or international language, such as China and the countries of the former Soviet Union.

Most of the countries with an English-based colonial past have continued to use English in institutional contexts such as education and government, and in businesses having an international scope. A knowledge of the English language is therefore of value in those former colonized countries, where its presence has been maintained in the schools and universities. At the same time, many from these countries choose to study abroad, so that "Western universities have become zones of escalating cultural contact as increasingly large numbers of students from former colonized nations enroll in these institutions to acquire a Western education" (Singh & Doherty, 2004, p. 12). The fact that so much of human knowledge and the world's information in

the present day is transmitted and developed in English means that at higher levels of learning, a knowledge of English is a virtual necessity. To be competitive in an increasingly international academic marketplace and to keep on top of developments in most fields requires a high level of knowledge of English, and this fact has contributed significantly to the accelerated and continuing spread of the language.

In his book *Globalization and Culture*, Tomlinson (1999) describes globalization as “complex connectivity” in increasingly interdependent networks of communities throughout the world. In this time of globalization, “[p]olitical ideas, technological innovations, and economic models and influences, as well as cultural resources move rapidly, at times instantly, across the globe” (Singh & Doherty, 2004, p. 14). Appadurai (1996) describes such changes in terms of global *flows* or *scapes* involving movements and shifting influences of people (*ethnoscape*), media (*mediascape*), technology (*technoscape*), ideas and ideologies (*ideoscape*), and money (*financescape*). A further flow or scape is certainly language itself (*linguascape*). In addition to the global trends, Appadurai discusses the complex local responses to these shifting world flows or scapes. This perspective can also be applied to language, especially the ways in which English has flowed around the world and been combined in creative ways with other languages (Pennington, 1994b, 1996a, 1997e, 1998b, 1998d, 1998e, 1998f). Fairclough (2006) and Pennycook (2007) apply such notions to the spread of English and its associated cultural features, the former stressing the dominance of Western influence on global flows and scapes and the latter stressing the appropriation and creative redefinition of these to become *transcultural*.

More than any other development, the trend to electronic connectivity is globalizing society and opening up access to information and the opportunities which come with that access. At the same time, in this information age, “information is not only perpetrated worldwide, but also developed at a local or individual level, in response to mass media” (Pennington, 1996d, p. 14). As Warschauer (2000) has observed:

Globalization is unfolding in a two-stage manner. In the first stage, global media and businesses extend their reach into new domains throughout the world. In a second stage, these same businesses and media are relocalized in order to best meet the economic and social imperatives of functioning in different regions of the world Just as businesses and media have experienced globalization and relocalization, so has the English language Increasing numbers of people around the world turn to English as a requirement of international communication, but in order to project their identity and values, they emphasize their own local variety of English rather than submit to colonial standardized norms. (pp. 512–513)

While English has a unique historical, commercial, and cultural role in the world, it is not the only language of interest to learners. As commercial interests outside the West are gaining ground through their access to global markets and media, so are the non-Western languages associated with those interests, such as Chinese, Japanese, and Arabic. Language study has become one of the primary drivers of international educational exchange.

INTERNATIONAL EDUCATIONAL EXCHANGE

International educational exchange has become a feature of education worldwide in the 21st century: “The most visible and widely [publicized] indicator of educational globalization is the increasingly diverse ethnic and linguistic composition of the student population on Western university campuses” (Singh & Doherty, 2004, p. 9). This trend can be seen in the United States, the United Kingdom, New Zealand, and Australia, where international students have long predominated in some graduate fields, such as engineering. In Australia, recent figures (<http://dest.gov.au/highered/statistics/students/06/tables.htm>) show over 20% of the university sector as made up of international students, primarily from Asia. In the United States, despite a downturn in the years following 9/11 and more recently in the global economic crisis, international student enrollment at universities has risen to higher numbers than ever; even small private colleges will have a significant proportion, amounting to at least five percent, of international students.

According to Currie and Vidovich (2009):

Since 1980 the number of international students has doubled, with the vast majority of the 2.5 million students in 2006 going to four countries: US (22%), UK (12%), Germany (10%) and France (10%). Germany and France gained many of their students through the ERASMUS student exchange scheme, and for France also from its former colonies.... [M]any English-speaking countries have prioritized recruiting international students in an attempt to raise revenue, such as Australia.... (p. 449)

The international students are considered valuable as full fee-paying students and also for the overseas contacts and arrangements they make possible for continuing and widening exchange as well as research and commercial partnerships. In the United States, the United Kingdom,

Australia, and New Zealand, international education is a multibillion-dollar industry. In the United States alone, international education brought in an estimated \$13.5 billion in the 2005–06 academic year and is the fifth-largest service export (Smith, 2007).

Many factors have made international education a major aspect of education in the new century. These include:

- The formation of the European Union, with its efforts to provide a common framework for education across the member countries;
- The rise of China's involvement in international education as both a sender and a receiver country;
- The continuing influence of English as an international *lingua franca*;
- The growing interest for business and international affairs of language study in Spanish, Chinese, Japanese, and Arabic.

Whereas in the past, the United States, Canada, the United Kingdom, and Australia were the predominant receiver countries, now the map of sender and receiver countries has become an intricate web of multidirectional connections involving these countries and many others. Language programs, not only for English but also for many other languages, are one type of program that has proliferated for study abroad, with options ranging from business, to science, to cultural programs (<www.iiepassport.org>). There has also been steady growth in home-country language programs on university campuses and in the private sector, especially for learning English but also for learning other languages.

The number of people studying English in universities and independent language centers is enormous and still growing. According to figures cited by Walker (2003, p. 2), as of January 2002, there were almost three-quarters of a million overseas students in the United Kingdom enrolled in English courses, spending over one billion pounds (<www.arel.org.uk>).¹ The economic impact of students studying English in Australia and New Zealand in the same period was about three-quarters of a million dollars (in Australian or New Zealand dollars). *Language Travel* magazine (The global market, 2007) reports that the global English language market generated U.S. \$8,974,161,379 in 2006, with the United Kingdom, the United States, and Canada being the biggest markets. The market share for the United States alone is estimated at \$2,336,613,094 for 2006.

A CLOSER LOOK AT LANGUAGE PROGRAMS

Program Types

There are many types and structures of language programs. In Australia, New Zealand, Canada, the United States, and the United Kingdom, there are English language programs offered for immigrant adults through community or religious service organizations. There are also English language programs for international students on student visas coming for language study either as the main program of study or as a pre-academic program to matriculated coursework. Language programs may also be set up as auxiliary units of companies or schools in order to assist their recently arrived workers or students coming from other countries.

Foreign language study within a country is geared to teaching languages which are not in primary use in the community. Typically, “ESL” (English as a second language) refers to English learned in a country where it is spoken as the primary or native language, while “EFL” (English as a foreign language) refers to the learning of English in a country where it is not a native or primary language of communication. However, not all practitioners in the field of language teaching make this distinction, and in the United Kingdom and Australia, the term “ELT” (English Language Teaching) is often preferred over either ESL or EFL.

Language teaching is a growing business worldwide, including an expanding industry of second-language programs for English and other languages such as Chinese, Japanese, Arabic, and Spanish outside English-speaking countries. Unlike traditional foreign language programs, these programs are sometimes modeled on English language teaching theory, pedagogy, and program design, and show a similar range of types—from independent for-profit businesses to language institutes within universities which provide teaching and carry out research on the learning and teaching of the target language by non-native speakers.

There are language programs aimed primarily at adults, and others aimed at young children in the elementary or pre-school years as part of early childhood education. Approximately 1,500 early language programs are listed in the U.S. National Directory of Early Foreign Language Programs, which was compiled by the Center for Applied Linguistics as a searchable website for foreign language programs offered in schools below grade 7. The website, which also provides links to immersion and bilingual programs in the United States, is maintained and updated by the ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics (<www.cal.org/resources/earlyfl>). These early

language programs have special characteristics, such as orally based teaching and assessment methods for very young children, which are outside the scope of this book.

English language and other language programs may or may not be authorized to issue the documents that allow students to enter the country. Typical of programs authorized to provide documents for students to enter the country are study abroad programs or language programs affiliated with a university. Those not so authorized may be programs geared specifically for in-country language study by domestic groups such as immigrants.

Language programs can be distinguished by their funding structure, such as whether they are proprietary in nature or whether they are part of larger educational or non-profit entities. Proprietary schools can be part of an organization, such as ELS (English Language Services), with multiple branches worldwide and a central recruiting mechanism. In such cases, some administrative and financial processes may be managed offsite by a central office. On the other hand, language programs that are administered by their home universities are subject to the human resource, financial, and legal processes of the entire university.

The primary focus of this book is management of English language programs geared to university students or adult learners who are learning a second or foreign language subsequent to their primary language. These programs are typically revenue-generating units offering intensive English language instruction in non-credit courses. The unique nature of these programs is described by Dantas-Whitney and Dimmitt (2002) in terms of a balance of pros and cons:

Although this structure offers countless disadvantages to students and faculty (e.g., budget fluctuations, staffing challenges, rising student/teacher ratios), it does provide flexibility in curricular change and innovation. (p. 4)

A secondary focus of the book is management of such programs for languages other than English.

English Language Teaching Compared to Foreign Language and Composition Teaching

English language programs—which may be designated ESL, EFL, ELT, IEP (Intensive English Program), or other designations such as English for International Students—are unique in higher education. Although like traditional academic departments they have a strong interest in teaching and

curriculum, they are often classified as being a service unit whose main purpose is to perform remedial or supplementary instruction. Because their primary focus is neither research nor degree work, they are differently constituted than other academic departments in the areas of student admissions and graduation criteria, faculty and staff qualifications, and conditions of employment such as workload and governance structure (Pennington, 1992d, p. 8). Neither do they always match the mission of other institutional units which generate income (e.g., Continuing Education) or provide support for academic departments (e.g., International Services) but which do not themselves perform teaching functions.

Their unique mission and function often relegate the English language teaching unit more to the category of “infrastructure” than to curricular content:

As a consequence of the uniqueness of the mission and function of ELT programs, their governance and location in terms of the university management hierarchy is problematic. The difficulties of locating the ELT unit conceptually often mean that its physical and structural location is highly variable across institutions and even within one institution at different times. The fact that ELT does not fit easily within the confines of academic departments and institutions has therefore in many cases led to its [marginalization] within academic practice and scholarship. (Pennington, 1992d, p. 8)

The marginalization of English language teaching (ELT, ESL, or EFL) is seen in a higher proportion of part-time and untenured faculty and often in lack of the status, budget, and degree of independence of an academic department.

In higher education, the context and nature of language study differentiate foreign language and English language instruction. Foreign language courses have traditionally been organized around literature, whereas ESL instruction generally ignores literature in favor of competence in spoken language and English for specific purposes and functions. Thus, as Byrnes (2006) writes, a concept such as “communicative competence,” which has been widely accepted within ESL teaching, has been questioned for its appropriateness within foreign language teaching because of differences in goals, methodologies, and student populations. Pertinent issues include the focus on written (generally literature) or spoken (often transactional) language and instruction of heritage or “traditional” second-language learners. In foreign language departments where communicative goals predominate in lower-level courses, these courses and those who teach them are often of lower status as compared to the courses and faculty² that have a literature focus. Most of the temporary or non-tenured faculty in the department are likely to be teaching the lower-level language courses.