
Appropriately, this innovative work is part of Springer’s Educational Linguistics, a multi-disciplinary series offering new methodological approaches. The book’s contributions include a masterful use of grounded theory which is seldom applied to educational research, an exploration of the difficulties in EAP teaching in universities, and an explanation of how EAP centres operate at the periphery of higher educational institutes (HEIs) where their personnel are often exploited. Hadley attributes these problems to the current neoliberal model of university financing and governance.

Chapter 1 outlines his novel use of grounded theory (see Glaser & Strauss, 1967/1999), a popular social science research paradigm for deriving theory from “grounded” findings or observations of different communities. To determine the actions, practices, and values of individuals working in EAP, Hadley interviewed 98 informants at 18 different institutes in Japan, the U.K., and the U.S., some of them multiple times. His data include more than 1300 pages of interview transcripts, coded observation notes, email correspondence, and archives of professional journals. He describes his use of collocations to analyze reported speech, even texts from professional journals, and he excerpts interview transcripts in the book.

Initially, Hadley describes how he began his research after a pivotal event in his academic career. Some may object here to him writing from the first person point-of-view, an adoption of the informal academic style of the “Chicago School” of sociological research (see Goffman, 1959/2005), but it makes his account accessible and allows him to reveal his biases. He made a visit in 2004 to an American HEI, (pseudonymously) “Polaris State University,” on behalf of his institution in Japan, “Nippon University of Global Integrated Studies” or “NUGIS” and he conjectured that the “market-based reforms” of the “neoliberal model of HEI governance in the US and the UK” were becoming increasingly prevalent even in Japan (pp. 1–2).

Chapter 2 provides an impressive overview of the literature on this neoliberalization and argues that there have been two developments. The first is a de-emphasis on academic knowledge toward one promoting “the knowledge and vocational skills needed for economic development” (p. 26). The second is that university administrations have become more powerful than academic departments, and as government funding declines, they pursue HE as a business providing education to growing numbers of student customers.

Hadley’s critical theory of EAP in universities begins with the “massification” of education expressing itself in 4 types of HEI (p. 35–37). First are the countless “Sausage-makers,” for-profit institutions that tightly control their teachers and curricula and accept almost any student who can pay. Second, almost as numerous, “Mass Providers” take in large numbers of learners and provide them with “marketable credentials,” often in the service industry. Next come the various “Dream-weavers” whose marketable brand attracts students with better skills than the other two institutions. Teachers at these places have greater autonomy, seek to improve their students’ academic abilities, and EAP often exists as an auxiliary part of an academic department. Finally, at the top of this HEI typology are the few “Ivory Towers,” prestigious institutions with the highest reputations, and therefore, least affected by economic pressures. These universities enroll students with high levels of language and academic proficiency, and focus on raising their abilities even further.

U.K. and U.S. universities expand through enrolling international students who pay higher tuition rates than British or American ones, but these students require EAP teachers. Hadley describes EAP units within universities as operating in what Whitchurch (2008) terms a “Third Space” which is neither a traditional academic department nor an administrative one. Instead, these units combine administrative services, student support, and the development of academic skills. Often administrative pressure forces them to streamline and sacrifice academic integrity and student support, reconfiguring themselves as “Student Processing Units” or SPUs.
Citing numerous sources, Hadley argues that this model of economic development, dependent on teaching EAP, is even spreading to countries such as Japan where English is a foreign language. However, Japanese government aspirations that student graduates will be speaking English will likely prove very hard to achieve. This can be seen in a summary by Matsutani (2013) of a government policy document that Japanese universities might promote English ability by incorporating TOEFL tests into their admission exams. He notes that the policy would require high school students to achieve at least 45 points on the 120-point TOEFL test and ask that their high school English teachers have a score of 80 — something only 50% of them presently can achieve.

Furthermore, as Japanese society ages, and competition increases among universities for a shrinking number of eligible students, English language requirements are more likely to drop than rise. In my own university, a “dreamweaver,” several departments no longer require English in their entrance exams at all and courses in English have been eliminated, even in the Business Department.

In addition, it also can be argued that other factors besides economics marginalize EAP teachers. Language teaching and college preparation courses have long occupied a contested area in tertiary education (Howatt & Widdowson, 2004). For example, Spanish linguistics and literature as objects of study are very different from Spanish language learning which requires many hours and is often taught by sessional lecturers rather than professors. As for college preparation courses, Mina P. Shaughnessy’s well-documented experiences teaching in the “Open Admissions program” in 1970s at City College in New York City is one example of the bureaucratic in-fighting between established academic departments and new ones such as hers that focused on student access through better academic preparation (Maher, 1997).

Chapter 3 provides the most compelling part of Hadley’s critical theory, a description of the teachers in EAP (TEAPs) and their supervisors. The latter are a new, non-tenured, and very expendable type of HEI worker, part administrator and part academic, Whitchurch’s “Blended Professional” (2009) which Hadley adapts here to EAP; terming them BLEAPs. It is a name chosen with wit, Hadley well aware that in popular parlance, a “bleap” refers to the high-pitched electrical sound censoring an obscene remark made on TV or radio. Accordingly, his BLEAPs are sometimes “tricksters” who can “think outside the bureaucratic box” and help institutes that are Mass Providers, the bulk of HEI, to better market themselves (p. 54).

Despite their wide ranging responsibilities, BLEAPs find that their power depends on an upper level of administration. To advance to this higher, better paid administrative level, BLEAPs figure out “how to get there, which entails cooperating in whatever activities, agendas, and projects” are assigned to them (p. 51). Yet as middle managers, they are caught between these demands and the needs and desires from below, the teachers in the SPUs whom they risk alienating. Later in the book, Hadley provides an excerpt from an interview in which he asks a BLEAP why administrators aren’t graded and assessed like students and teachers.

Informant: The administrators would not want feedback on their work, because they would get terrible results. (E-mail Interview, October 29-November 1, 2010), (p. 119).

A BLEAP’s success in mediating between the two groups determines if the BLEAP will become “Upwardly Mobile” (prosper and move into higher areas of management), “Transactional” (maintain their current positions), or “Sinking” (ultimately forced to leave their institution altogether).

The following three chapters elaborate on the activities of BLEAPs and their interactions with teachers and the administration. This brings us to the book’s excellent diagrams. Very illuminating is the figure “Social processes for blended EAP professionals” (p. 58). The diagram shows SPUs developing from “the Third Space” and these give rise to BLEAPs who maintain the SPUs through “hunting and gathering” (recruiting international students, generating publicity for the unit, leeching resources such as enlisting students to recruit other students, or engaging them as assistant peer tutors). Next, the BLEAPs take part in “moulding and shaping” (making strategic decisions about the SPU, focusing on curricular innovations, implementing decisions from the university administration). Third, the BLEAPs engage in “weighing and measuring” (assessing EAP programs, teachers, and students).

Chapter Seven, the last part of the book, describes the consequences for BLEAPs. “Professional disarticulation” occurs as these individuals grow more “dislocated from their vocational identities as a result of organizational dynamics” (p. 158). BLEAPs begin with a professional identity as teachers, but assume a new role in managing SPUs. As a result, without any training or mentorship, they struggle to control their units and provide leadership to their teachers.

Hadley’s book provides a thorough analysis of EAP in universities. It can aid individuals in this area to improve their teaching and learning environments, to chart suitable career paths, and to strive for a better approach to funding and operating universities than a neoliberalist one. Altogether, this ambitious book serves as an excellent primer for the use of grounded theory in educational research, and a rare and compelling description of the roles of teachers and supervisors in EAP.

References

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http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2015.04.010


Being interested in various aspects of language teacher identity and myself researching the issue from the Polish perspective, I enthusiastically welcomed the appearance of this full-length edited collection. I could hardly wait to receive the hardcover copy (the paperback was inaccessible) to read and learn about “current trends and advances” in language teacher identity research, partly to reassure myself that what I am doing is in line with what other scholars researching identity are after, and partly, mindful of the promising title of “advances”, to find out about new directions in this field.

The book starts with a relatively short Foreword by Christine C.M. Goh in which she presents the current definitions and understandings of language teacher identity, touches on the implications that identity research may have on language teachers’ commitment, confidence and competence and highlights its two principal purposes: 1) “enhancing teacher professional learning” and 2) “improving the quality of teaching and learning” (p. xiv). The Foreword is followed by Introduction in which the editors, apart from describing the contents of each chapter, explain how and why the book was written, emphasizing its usefulness for “non-experts” who teach undergraduate and graduate level courses and considering themselves as “non-specialists” who are “active seekers and critical consumers of knowledge” (p. xv). I must admit I found these confessions a little confusing, especially as a quick perusal of the contributors to this collection provided me with recognizable names of scholars writing on teacher identity, such as Pennington, Trent, Richards, Nagatomo, Zhang, Matsuda and Morgan who undoubtedly have a lot of expert knowledge to convey, even for teacher identity “specialists”. The whole collection is made up of four sections: Theoretical orientations (Chapters 1–4), Negotiations and reflexivity (Chapters 5–9), Tracing identity through narratives (Chapters 10–14) and Teacher identity and responding to changing times (Chapters 15–17). The names for the consecutive parts are well-chosen because they all reflect the current research trends related to language teacher identity.

Using Bakhtin’s concepts of “dialogical rhetoric”, “heteroglossia” and “genre”, Heidi L. Hallman (Chapter 1) looks at teacher identity within the description of a prospective teacher’s Teaching Philosophy statement, required by some employers in American schools. Considering teacher identity as a “many-voiced text” is a most interesting research treatment which offers access to the intended “others” who are addressees of the Statement. At the same time, investigating pre-service teachers’ texts as teacher preparation practice can become useful in the context of monitoring their teacher identity formation. I found the chapter inspiring, although more examples of various Teaching Philosophy statements could have been provided to encourage teacher trainers to implement Bakhtin’s concepts in prospective teachers’ identity texts.

Chapter 2 by Martha C. Pennington presents a theoretical model for considering an English language teacher identity from, as she says, a frames perspective. As there are not many frameworks for teacher identity investigation spacious enough to capture its various dimensions (frames), the one that is offered seems badly needed. In addition, it is fairly practical because the author accompanies it with several practical reflective activities that lend themselves well to teacher preparation programs.

In Chapter 3, Davi R. Reis considers emotions in non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs) identities. Although the notion that native speakers are the best language teachers still echoes in many social environments, the emotions experienced by NNESTs, such as anxiety, apprehension, inferiority, to name a few, can belong to so called ’old contents and old resonances’. In fact, negative emotions experienced by native teachers of English working abroad, such as anger at the lack of job promotion, unfamiliarity with the local language and culture as well as consequences it produces, might constitute new themes. The article is replete with “shoulds” and “musts” in regard to naming, validating, externalizing and reflecting upon emotions and calls for support and mentoring of NNESTs. In reality, however, this can prove to be too little to modify language learners’ mind-sets as to the superiority of a native speaker. More seems to depend on teachers’ personalities, methodological preparations, and indeed, good language competences, rather than accents which can to an extent be improved. After all, NNESTs entering the profession cannot make victims of themselves as they should know that they will never become native speakers. Although the issue can be a problem in Inner-Circle countries, its significance can be somewhat exaggerated in Outer-or-Expanding-Circle countries, and compensated by other virtues that only NNESTs possess.

In Chapter 4, John Trent elucidates his multifaceted and multidimensional framework for investigating teacher identity. The model accommodates all characteristic features of postmodern thinking on teacher identity with its discursive,