Montessori Classrooms in Australia: An English as an International Language Perspective

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Abstract

English has established itself as a global language, international language and lingua franca. This change in global status and usage of English has been the focus of study for scholars in paradigms such as English as an International Language (EIL), English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) and World Englishes (WE). These paradigms suggested that English native speakers are no longer the sole ‘custodians’ of the English language (Braine, 1999; Holliday, 2005, p. 14; Widdowson, 1994) and the language should now be viewed as a pluricentric language with linguistic and cultural diversity. Current literature suggested a need for the teaching EIL to be “pervasive” throughout the curriculum (Kubota, 2001b) but so far, no research has been done on implementing EIL framework into primary school (Years 1-6) settings. With EIL as an analytical framework, this research thesis aims at addressing this research gap through investigating the teaching of English language and culture in three Montessori classrooms in Victoria, Australia and the possibility of implementing EIL framework into a Montessori elementary school context. A qualitative case study methodology is used through the collection of portraits of classroom interaction, teacher’s comments and classroom teaching materials. This study found that the teaching of language and culture in Montessori classrooms already reflects components of the EIL framework and the educational approach undertaking by Montessori teachers demonstrates awareness of the local and global linguistic reality and prepares its students to become true global citizens. Thus, this affirms the Montessori Method as a truly international and multicultural education pedagogy. The findings showcase Montessori classrooms as an example for the implementation of EIL pedagogy in elementary years.
Statement of Declaration

This thesis contains no material that has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any educational institution. To the best of my knowledge and belief, it contains no material previously published or written by another person, except where due reference is made in the text of the thesis.

The research for this thesis received the approval of the Monash University Human Research Ethics Committee (MUHREC), project number CF14/3190-2014001735.

Jennifer D. Leung

October 22, 2015
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1. Introduction

A typical school year in the Montessori classroom of 6-12 year olds starts with the telling of the Story of Language (see Appendix 3). Students were told how the English alphabet was adapted from the alphabets of the Phoenicians, Greeks, and Roman alphabets. Although the telling of the story stops at the point when English develops its own alphabet, the actual story of English does not stop there. The English language continues to evolve and diversify from a language originated by Germanic tribes called the Angles, Saxons and the Jutes (Burridge, 1998) into an international global language spoken by 335,491,748 people as a first language, and 505,000,000 people as a second language worldwide (Lewis, Simons, & Fennig, 2015). English is now used as one of the official languages in many countries with colonial past, and is being taught as a second or foreign language in many other parts of the world. English is also used as a lingua franca between speakers who have no common native language(s) and in contexts such as multinational corporations, media, international relations and much more (Jackson, 2014b; McKay, 2002).

The implications of the changing status and usage of English as an international language has been a focus for scholars in paradigms such as English as an International Language (EIL), English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) and World Englishes (WE). These paradigms suggest that English native speakers are no longer the sole ‘custodians’ of the English language (Braine, 1999; Holliday, 2005, p. 14; Widdowson, 1994) and English should now be viewed as a pluricentric language with linguistic and cultural diversity.

Much of the discussion on English as an international language occurred at a pedagogical level, or at an empirical level in English Language Teaching (ELT) contexts. However, little is known about the possibility of introducing EIL at elementary school years (ages 6-12). As a Montessori teacher practitioner-researcher myself, I have observed much similarities with the way language is being taught in the Montessori classroom, with what is being proposed in the literature of Teaching English as an International Language (TEIL). In order to address the research gap on the lack of research in the implementation of TEIL paradigm in elementary schools, this research study investigates the possibility of the teaching of EIL in Montessori age 6-12 classrooms. This case study aims at giving a portrait of how English and culture is taught in three Montessori classrooms in Victoria, Australia through the perspective of EIL and TEIL.
The two research questions being investigated through this research are:

i. Is the Montessori classroom in Australia a viable context for the implementation of TEIL pedagogy?

ii. How does the teacher’s perception of English and culture influence the teaching of EIL in the classrooms?
2. Literature Review

The changing role of the English language today has influenced the use, the teaching and the role of English. The aim of this chapter is to provide a general overview of the historical and contemporary spread of English as studied in paradigms such as English as an International Language (EIL), World Englishes (WE) and English as a Lingual Franca (ELF) and the implications that they have on teaching of English as an International Language (TEIL) literature. The section concludes by addressing the research gap in current literature and significance of this research study.

2.1 History of English

Languages around the world has undergone cycles of evolution, changes and rapid restructuring (Graddol, 2004). The evolution of the English language gives evidence to the dynamic and pluralistic nature of the language. Sir William Jones (1786) (as cited in Burridge, 1998, p. 27) proposed that the English diverged from the language family of “Proto-Indo-European”, the parent language for most European, south-western Asia and northern Indian languages. Modern linguistics have categorized English as part of the “Germanic language” family that shares its roots with modern day German based on phonetic and grammatical similarities between the languages (Burridge, 1998). The English language is believed to be a mixture of the languages spoken by Germanic tribes called the Angles, Saxons and the Jutes in the mid 400AD. Since then, the language continued to be influenced by other languages such as French, Greek and Latin, forming the English language through borrowed words and other linguistic forms from other languages. Figure 1 is adopted from Burridge (1998, p. 28) to showcase the genealogical tree in which English came from.
The era of Modern English has undergone efforts of standardization and codification. Samuel Johnson’s first English dictionary in the 18th century, Bishop Lowth’s publication of *A Short Introduction to English Grammar* in 1762, and the introduction of the Received Pronunciation in 1917 are examples of attempts to standardize the language (Burridge, 2004). “One country, one language” was the linguistic norm and English was considered the national property of English-speaking countries such as the United Kingdom and the United States (Berns, 2011).
However, the language continued to evolve and adapt to change. Graddol (2004) suggested that we have now entered a new linguistic landscape categorized by ‘global diversity’ which is introduced by international communications, migration/colonization, mobility and technology (Graddol, 2004; Marlina, 2014). Many countries worldwide has also made English an official language or a foreign language, establishing the status of English as an international language. Kachru (1990) introduced the term ‘World Englishes’, with English in a plural form to signify the diversity within the language.

2.2 English as an International Language
Smith (1976, p. 38) defined an ‘international language’ as “one which is used by people of different nations to communicate with one another”. McKay (2002); Smith (1976, 2015) suggest that an international language is a language that serves both global and local functions. On a global scale, Crystal (2003) gives evidence that English dominates as the medium of communication in international relations (i.e. the United Nations), international travel (i.e. English on restaurant menus), international safety (i.e. air traffic control, marine navigation), communications (i.e. postal, phone or electronic communications), education (i.e. international conferences) and the media (i.e. TV, movies). Locally, Crystal (2003, p. 60) suggested that there are around 75 territories worldwide that hold English at a special status as an official language or one of the official languages. Although the spread of English can be traced back initially to its historical colonial past and migration, the current spread of English is mainly due to individuals acquiring the language to perform functions outside of traditionally English-speaking countries. Many users of English today are bilingual or multilingual speakers of English. Crystal (2003, pp. 67-68) suggested a rough estimate of 400 million people who learned English as a first language (L1) (including English-based pidgins and creole speakers), and 430 million people who learned English as a second language (L2) in the early 2000s. Graddol (2006) observed that nearly 80% of communication in English takes place between bilingual and multilingual speakers, and that monolingualism will soon place people in an economic disadvantage. English is used in “many walks of life,” from international domains to everyday life (pp. 29-30).

This understanding of English as a cross-national lingua franca and an intra-national local language serves as the conceptual background for the methodology and analytical framework of this research thesis.
2.3 Kachru’s Concentric Circles
This study uses Kachru’s concentric circles as a categorization framework to identify the different roles and functions that English plays in different context.

In this model, the countries that use English are divided into three circles: Countries where English is spoken as a native language, such as the United Kingdom, United States of America, Canada, Australia and New Zealand, are classified as “Inner Circle countries”. Inner Circle countries are considered the “norm-providing” countries where the varieties of English spoken in these countries are commonly perceived as the ‘standard’. Countries where English has an official status as a second language are called “Outer Circle countries”. These countries include Singapore, Sri Lanka, Philippines and India. These countries are considered norm-developing countries where emerging varieties of Englishes, New Englishes, are being established. Countries where English is taught or being used as a foreign language, such as Korea, Japan, Brazil, and Italy, are part of the “expanding circle countries”. They are considered norm-dependent because the variety of English being taught in these countries is usually one of the inner circle varieties.

Current literature continued to critique Kachru’s Concentric Circle model as an oversimplistic representative of the changing role of English today: Kubota (2001a) criticized the model as over-generalization by viewing all the countries in the same circle or same nation as having similar characteristics or as homogenous. Kubota further supported her argument through showing how even within the US, there are many domestic varieties. Therefore, in order to conceptualize the linguistic reality of English accurately, one must not treat the boundaries of the different circles as defined and definite. Acknowledging some of the drawbacks of the model, this thesis continues to
use the concentric circle terminology to reference different countries. However, it also recognizes the fluid and flexible role that English plays across all three circles.

2.4 English Today
New ‘owners’ of English

Many studies have been done on understanding the changing functions and role of the English language in Expanding Circle Countries: Challenging the notion of Expanding Circle Countries being the “norm-dependent” countries, Berns (2011, p. 412) suggested that Expanding Circle Country varieties of English also has distinct “phonological, morphological, syntactic, or lexical” characteristics, and hence should be rightfully recognized as varieties with “distinct identity.” English is used not simply because English L2 speakers have a need to communicate with monolingual English speakers, but also due to individuals learning English as an L2 for international communicative needs within their own contexts (Canagarajah, 2006). English no longer belongs exclusive to England, as its name ‘English’ suggests, but has become “a language, other than the first language, which is used by nationals of a country for internal communication… [with] as wide or as limited a use as is felt desirable (Smith, 2015, p. 159).” This establishes multilingual English speakers as the ‘new’ co-owners of English.

These Outer Circle and Expanding Circle users of English also contribute to the enrichment of the English language. The ELF corpora also has started summarizing common linguistic features used in ELF communications between groups of English speakers from different circles. For example, the International Corpus of English (ICE) draws on 18 inner and outer circle country English samples; the Vienna Oxford International Corpus of English (VOICE) project draws on expanding circle samples of English to show distinctive lexical and phonological features of Outer Circle/Expanding Circle varieties of English. Furthermore, Jenkins (2006) observed that in an Australian context, a range of Southeast Asian English words have been incorporated into the Macquarie Dictionary (Australia). The above suggests how Outer or Expanding Circle Countries could also act as the norm-provider in today’s era. Therefore, each variety of Englishes can arguably be considered linguistically “equal in standing (Berns, 2011, p. 411)”. Bolton (2005, p. 78) stated that “the native and non-native users of English [should be considered] as equal partners in deliberations on users of English and its teaching internationally,” hence, establishing co-ownership of the language among all English users across different circles.

This understanding is imperative for critically evaluating the representation of monolingual and bilingual teachers in schools. English language teaching has traditionally been ‘native-speaker’
dominant and the employment of ‘native speaker’ teacher is viewed as the norm (Holliday, 2005). As English continues to become denationalized from its traditional owners of the language, the standard for English communication should not rely on Inner Circle country norms (McKay, 2002) anymore; Rather, mutual intelligibility between English speakers of different backgrounds becomes the main goal for intercultural communication. The EIL paradigm adopted by this research continues to advocate for the gradual movement away from native speaker fallacy by investigating how the teaching of English is approached in Montessori classrooms.

2.5 Australia as Context of Study

The context of this case study is set in a Montessori elementary school in the state of Victoria in Australia. It is essential to look at the background of the nation in order to understand how the teaching of English corresponds with the local linguistic and cultural landscape. The focus of this section is on how Australia fits into Kachru’s Concentric Circle model and its implication on Australia as a multilingual Inner Circle country:

One of the major diaspora of English expansion occurred when the first British settlers (prisons and free settlers alike) settled in Australia, New Zealand and Canada in 1788 (Burridge, 1998; Clyne & Kipp, 2002; Kachru, 1997). After WWII, a large wave of immigrants came to Australia from non-English speaking countries, such as the Netherlands, Malta, Italy, Greece, Macedonia and other German-speaking countries. In the 1960s and 70s, another wave of Arabic, Turkish and Yogoslav language speakers came followed by a new wave of migrants came from Asian-speaking countries in the mid-1970s (Clyne & Kipp, 1997). Data from the 2001 Census showed that many languages other than English were spoken at home as a result of migration, and Italian, Greek, Cantonese, Arabic and Vietnamese were the most widely used community languages in Australia (Clyne & Kipp, 2002, p. 30). Therefore, as Sharifian (2014) argues, despite the assumption that “the majority of the population in Australia speaks Australian English (p. 35),” 240 languages (Clyne & Kipp, 1997, p. 472) co-exists with English as languages of communication. Clyne (2005, p. xi) observed that Australia is renowned by overseas visitors for its multilingualism through its flexible use of languages in the media (i.e. SBS television and radio), high school examination systems, multilingual public services (i.e. telephone interpretation services, multilingual holdings in public libraries) and the number of foreign languages spoken as community languages. Despite its monolithic stereotype as an Inner Circle Country, multilinguals in Australia also play an important role in localizing English to suit their own diverse cultural and linguistic needs. Australians speak different varieties of English: British English, due to Australia being part of the Commonwealth and
therefore British norms, as well as other varieties of English spoken in multicultural suburbs such as Sudanese African English, Chinese English, New Zealand English, British English, Aboriginal English and Greek English, just to name a few (Sharifian, 2014). Sharifian further remarked that “Australia presents a microcosm of the complexity of the use of English in and around the globe (p.41).”

Bilingual users of English in Inner Circle countries
In Australian schools, the term ‘LOTE’ (Languages other than English), as opposed to ‘foreign languages’ or ‘second language’, is used to showcase the recognition of the linguistic diversity present in Australia. For many students in Australia, a heritage language other than English is spoken at home and English may be a ‘second language’ or a ‘foreign language’ for them (Clyne, 2005, p. 112). However, McKay (2002) also observed that the bilingual users of English in an Inner Circle Country may differ in language preferences and needs compared to bilingual users of English in Outer or Expanding Circle countries: In an Inner Circle Country, English is used in all public domains, and sometimes even in private domains with family or friends. With English as the default lingua franca, bilingual users in Inner Circle countries differ significantly in terms of their personal language hierarchy and identification with the language(s) and culture(s). These understandings were taken into consideration when analyzing the perception of bilinguals and multilinguals in the findings and discussion chapter.

2.6 Teaching English as an International Language (TEIL)
2.6.1 Theoretical Framework
The changing dynamics, characteristics and functions of the English language since the global spread of English in the current era has been the focus of study for scholars of “English studies”, sociolinguistics, applied linguistics, lexicography, popularizer approaches and critical linguistics (see Bolton, 2005).” Seidlhofer, as cited in Jenkins (2006, p. 160) clarifies that the term “International” in English as an International Language does not suggest one “distinguishable, codified and unitary variety called International English” but a conceptual framework under applied linguistics referring to the paradigm first proposed by Larry Smith, and later elaborated by scholars such as Hino (2010), McKay (2012a), Seidlhofer (2005), Matsuda (2012) etc. EIL conceptualizes English as pluricentric language (Marlina, 2014) that performs functions in international, multilingual contexts (Friedrich & Matsuda as cited in Matsuda, 2012).
The study of EIL is an emerging movement in the study of language education. The topic of “World Englishes (WE)” was non-existent before 1991 (Jenkins, 2006, p. 158) but now there is a substantial growth in research publication in the categories outlined by Kachru. The increasing number of published journal articles on the topic, “conferences, sessions and workshops dedicated to the discussion of TEIL (Matsuda, 2012, p. 5)”, and the establishment of EIL/WE programs in the higher education level (see Jenkins, 2006; Sharifian & Marlina, 2012) show the influential role that TEIL and WE-related discussions have on language teaching. This case study, therefore, contributes to this emerging field of study through investigating EIL from a teaching-practice perspective.

While this project acknowledges the pedagogical differences adopted by EIL, WE and ELF scholars (cf. Jenkins, 2006), the term EIL, as used in this study, draws upon all three disciplines in the understanding and rethinking of English as a language that has many varieties used, and is used by people across the globe: The term “English” is understood as a dynamic and changing entity that encompasses many manifestations, namely, “varieties of English”. This study adopts the perspective proposed in Marlina (2014, p. 4) that EIL is the “linguistic and epistemological lens” to:

- Revisit and reconsider ways of conceptualizing English
- Re-assess analytical tools and approaches in the research and teaching of English
- Revise the pedagogical strategies English language education with the understanding of the changes that English has undergone.

**TEIL: A Three-level Framework**

Much research has been devoted into establishing the pedagogical framework of TEIL: Topics of study include varieties of English (Kirkpatrick, 2006; Matsuda & Friedrich, 2012), cross-cultural communicative competencies (Celce-Murcia, 2008; Sharifian, 2013), and teaching models and principles for the teaching of EIL (J. D. Brown, 2012; K. Brown, 2006; McKay, 2012a). In this section of the literature review, a conceptualization framework derived from Chattin-McNichols (1991, p. 5) and K. Brown (2006, pp. 680-681) is used to analyze the EIL paradigm in three levels: (1) theory & philosophy, (2) model & methods, and (3) practice & techniques. Theory and philosophy refers to the understanding of EIL as a paradigm. The theories and philosophies determine level 2: the models & methods of teaching. This level contains the discussion of an ideal TEIL classroom and plans for implementing the theories into practice. Level 3: Practice and Techniques refers to the “activities undertaken by teachers (or leaners)” to implement model & methods.
Level 1: Theory and Philosophy of TEIL

The teaching of English as an International Language (TEIL) is viewed as a paradigm shift from the traditional English language teaching (ELT). Traditionally, ELT has been associated with colonialism and linguistic imperialism (Kumaravadivelu, 2003; McKay, 2012a). It operates under the ideology of subtractive bilingualism (term coined by Cummins), in which the use of another language while learning English would negatively affect the acquisition of English. Therefore, the best way to learn English is in an English-only environment with native-speaker teachers. English is taught as “standardized English”, which has strict and defined rules of phonology, grammar and vocabulary. The culture being depicted in textbooks and curriculum is based on ‘western’ cultural norms of English speaking countries (see J. D. Brown, 2012 for more detailed analysis.). TEIL, on the other hand, promotes multilingualism in classrooms, respect for local linguistic landscape, metalinguistic awareness, intercultural communication skills, appreciation of students’ own culture and other cultures, recognition of bilingual teachers as competent, and explicit instruction about EIL and World Englishes (J. D. Brown, 2012; Hino, 2010; McKay, 2012a). A TEIL curriculum therefore would have “global appropriacy and local appropriation” (Alptekin, 2002, p. 63) where the curriculum is sensitive to the local communicative needs of where the curriculum is used, as well as a “universal approach” (J. D. Brown, 2012, p. 156) (not to be confused with a universal variety of English) for students to communicate internationally in English.

Level 2: Models and Methods of TEIL

What implications do the above theory and philosophy have on English language teaching? Traditionally, methods such as audiolingualism, grammar-translation and the Direct Method are
used in the teaching of the English language (K. Brown, 2006). Humanistic approaches such as the Natural Approach, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), task-based language learning are more commonly used today, but all of the above approaches were also criticized. CLT in particular, was viewed as a colonial construct to serve particular agendas (Kumaravadivelu, 2003) or as being insensitive to local linguistic needs (c.f. McKay, 2002, 2003). By associating a particular model as ‘the method’ for TEIL, it is assuming a “one size fits all” perspective on teaching. Scholars such as Kumaravadivelu (2003) suggested that we have entered a post-Method era and that teaching decisions should be made bottom-up, rather than based upon some method designed by curriculum writers or school administration; Teachers should be empowered to make decisions on the teaching strategies based on understanding of the theoretical framework and local communicative needs. Therefore, the role of the teacher is emphasized in this project, and relevant literature is discussed in section 2.7. The choice of educational methods should take consideration of how it prepares the students for effective communications within and outside the classroom (Waters, 2009).

**Level 3: Practice and Techniques**

TEIL is not a curriculum or a model by itself, but recognizes that many different preexisting teaching strategies can be used to “EIL-ize” the curriculum or program. Here are some of the examples of teaching strategies used in real-life within different studies:

- Role-plays (Hino, 2010, p. 2).
- Localized methodology (Hino, 2010, p. 5).
- Extensive Reading (Maley, 2012).
- Listening to audiotaped samples of English with different accents (Kubota & Ward, 2000, p. 83).
- Use of videos to showcase vignettes of linguistic diversity around the world and within own context (Kubota, 2001b, p. 51; Kubota & Ward, 2000, pp. 83-84).
- Inviting guest speakers from a country different from the home context to explore strategies for intercultural communications (Kubota & Ward, 2000, p. 85).
• Teaching of politeness strategies and ten general rules for intercultural communications (Hempel, 2009, p. 12)

Teaching Materials
Mckay (2012b) draws attention to the importance of the analysis of materials in the teaching of English as an International language. Hutchinson (1987) (as cited in Mckay, 2012b, p. 70) claimed that “materials represent an embodiment of the aims, values and methods of the particular teaching learning situation.” That is why Mckay (2002, p. 23) emphasizes on how textbooks and other teaching materials are used to depict cultural or linguistic portrayals, especially of linguistic imperialism, in her study. Mckay (2012b) proposed five principles that should inform the selection and development of EIL materials (p. 81-82). She further emphasizes that the selection and design of the materials should be informed by the classroom teachers, who are the most knowledgeable and aware of the needs of their students. These principles are used as the theoretical framework in the analysis of teaching materials in this project.

2.7 Role of the Teacher
The role of the teacher, particularly the bilingual teacher, has been a studied topic in EIL (i.e.Mckay, 2002; Renandya, 2012; Sifakis, 2004). Mckay (2002) (as cited in Renandya, 2012, p. 65) considered the teacher as one of the key factors for successful implementation of TEIL. The native speaker model and the over-reliance of Inner Circle native speakers as role-models of English has been highly criticized in the literature (see Braine, 1999; Holliday, 2005; Mckay, 2002; Smith, 1983). Mckay (2012a) proposed that one of the pedagogical implications of TEIL is to re-examine the concept of qualified teachers of English, and how the value of both monolingual English teachers and bilingual teachers should be acknowledged. In the context of a Outer Circle country, a local bilingual teacher may be more appropriate than a monolingual ‘native speaker’ of English because a bilingual teacher can serve as a role model as well as be an effective assessor of the appropriateness of the methods and materials for their local context (Mckay, 2002, pp. 44-45). TEIL calls for a wider acceptance of bilingual teachers and a more critical analysis of the role of the teacher in teaching EIL. Renandya (2012, p. 73) summarized the key characteristics of an EIL-orientated teacher as someone who reflect both traditional good teaching ideals as well as principles of TEIL. The different roles are summarized as following:

• The promotion of intercultural, rather than native-speaker competence
• The promotion of an awareness of other varieties of English
• The promotion of multilingualism in the classroom
• The promotion of instructional material that include both local and international cultures
• The promotion of social and culturally sensitive teaching methodology.

Therefore, an EIL teacher is not only a transmitter of language, but also a promoter of intercultural learning who takes on a critical stance in assessing the needs of the students and the appropriateness of the current methodology. These criteria are used as a framework for re-interpreting the role of a teacher in an EIL-ize Montessori setting.

2.8 Previous Studies and Research Gap

Matsuda (2012, p. 6) critiques that most TEIL discussions occurs at an abstract level and that it is “not practical enough” in providing specific ideas or suggestions in implementing change. Acknowledging the need for research on the practicality of the EIL framework, many scholars conducted research in various countries and cities around the world to explore the possibility of putting TEIL into practice; There are several studies that explored the implementation and design of tertiary level courses on World Englishes and EIL offered in the United States, Japan, the United Kingdom, Sweden, Germany, South Africa, Hong Kong, Korea and Australia (Baumgardner, 2006; Hino, 2010, 2012; Marlina, 2014; Sharifian & Marlina, 2012). Many case studies have shown the possibility of implementing EIL in tertiary education but none was done at earlier years of education. Kirkpatrick (2012) suggested the possibility of introducing EIL at earlier years by proposing a theoretical “lingua franca approach” for the teaching of English in elementary years in Asia. Nieto (1996) further expanding on this point, claiming that “education for affirming ethnic, cultural, and linguistic diversity should not only start early, but also be pervasive throughout the curriculum (as cited in Kubota, 2001b). Despite of this proposed importance of TEIL education in early years, little is known about any teacher-initiated EIL teaching strategies in elementary classrooms. This research study act as a starting point for investigating the possibility of implementing TEIL in elementary schools (ages 6-12).

Another research gap that this research project addresses is the role of the teacher in a Montessori classroom in implementing EIL approach. As discussed in section 2.7, teachers play an important role in the successful implementation of TEIL principles. This research project contributes by investigating how the teacher influence the teaching of EIL.
Montessori Method as an alternative educational pedagogy that has been relatively under-researched in academic literature. Literature were predominantly written by the founder of the Montessori Method, Maria Montessori, or other Montessori professionals. Bagby, Wells, Edmondson, and Thompson (2014) conducted a survey on the number of Montessori articles published in non-Montessori professional periodicals in 2010-2013, and they found that there were only a mere 83 articles. A number of research has been conducted on similar topics as this thesis, on global citizenship, peace education and adaptation of the Method in different contexts (c.f. Bagby et al., 2014; Brunold-Conesa, 2008, 2010; Whitescarver & Cossentino, 2008), but the sociocultural linguistic perspective of the Method has not been explored, nor were any of the studies done in Montessori schools in Australia. This research aims at contributing to the literature in applied sociocultural linguistics and educational studies by connecting two relatively new research paradigms as the focus of investigation.
3. Methodology
Uncovering and understanding real-life language teaching practices in an elementary classroom can be complex and the scenarios may be multifaceted. In order to study the issue at hand in a holistic way, classroom observations, teacher interviews and the evaluation of the physical environment and teaching materials was used in a qualitative case-study approach. This chapter provides detailed description and rationale for the methodology used in this research study through addressing the following topics:

1. Rationale for a Qualitative Case study Approach
2. Site of Case Study and Participants
3. Ethical Considerations
4. Data Collection
5. Data Analysis
6. Procedures to address trustworthiness and credibility

3.1  Rationale for a Qualitative Case-study Approach
The methodology used for this research paper is a qualitative case study. A qualitative approach was chosen in order to discover the complexity of this “new and uncharted area” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 39), as well as to present a description of the teaching of EIL in a particular chosen context. The study of Montessori elementary classrooms in the perspective of TEIL is a relatively new and uncharted area as there are no similar studies done in the literature. Through the use of a qualitative approach, this allows for the inquiry to be open, rich and fluid. The study aims at deriving meaning at an insider’s view through studying the participants’ teaching in a naturalistic setting (c.f. Dörnyei, 2007, pp. 35-38; Friedman, 2012).

3.1.1  A Case Study Approach
Yin (1989) (as cited in Remenyi, 2012, p. 2) defined a case study as “an empirical enquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real life context, when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident, and in which multiple sources of evidence are used.” Table 4, as based on Yin (2009, p. 18), presents the characteristics of a case study and compares it to surveys, history and experiments in order to showcase the strengths and characteristics of the case study approach:
In other words, a case study is useful in understanding a real-life phenomenon comprehensively, due to its highly contextualized approach (Yin, 2009). EIL scholars such as Alptekin (2002); McKay (2003) emphasized the significance of an EIL curriculum that is informed by theories of language learning, as well as awareness of the complexity of the linguistic and cultural diversity within the context. The case study approach therefore allows the research topics to be studied in a situated context (a Montessori school in Australia) without undermining the complexity of the possible variables in the teaching of TEIL.

Yin (2009) and Hancock (2011) argue that although case studies are often considered an exploratory approach, case studies can also be descriptive and explanatory. This research design can be classified as both exploratory and descriptive: It could be seen as an initial attempt to explore the possibilities of implementing EIL pedagogies into a Montessori elementary school setting, as well as a descriptive approach to present a portrayal of a phenomenon within a particular context through an EIL perspective.

3.1.2 A Generative Approach
This study is based on the belief that teachers are “generative practitioners” (Ball, 2009), and “co-constructers of knowledge as opposed to passive recipients” (Marlina, 2014, p. 13) for
advocating change. Teachers are seen as being initiators of change; through the observation of the changing linguistic and cultural needs of their students, teachers may have already shown awareness and motivation to initiate change in the classroom to address issues in the contemporary world. In other words, rather than imposing a particular model (i.e. EIL paradigm) from a top-down perspective, this research study assumes an inductive approach, as proposed in Marlina (2014), to discover how change has already taken place and is being implemented. The ideology behind the methodology used in this research study resembles many characteristics of an action research in educational research. Action research is typically done by a “research-engaged” practitioners (as oppose to an academic researcher) or in a partnership between teachers and university academic researchers (Baumfield, 2008). This type of research is viewed to be an effective method in combining policy with theory and practice. Through incorporating some of the characteristics from action research, this project aims at addressing the issues on a theoretical and practical level.

3.2 Site of Case Study and Participants
A Montessori School in Victoria, Australia has been chosen as the site of the case study due to prior personal engagement and contact with the school (For more details, see 3.6.1 Personal Biography: Reflexivity as a researcher). The school is also an ideal setting for the research study due to its well-established history as a Montessori school in Australia. It is one of the few schools that offers education across a broad age range from 2-15. It has a well-recognized reputation in the Montessori community both locally and internationally. It has close affiliation with the Montessori Australia Foundation and Montessori World Education Institute (MWEI), which are recognized Montessori accreditation/ teacher training associations in Australia.

   At a Montessori school, classrooms are organized based on the developmental stages proposed by Maria Montessori (Montessori, 1967), where students of 3-6, 6-9, 9-12 and 12-15 years of age are put into mixed age group classrooms (Chattin-McNichols, 1991, p. 2). The scope of the study addresses the age range of 6-12 (traditionally referred to as elementary school in mainstream Australian education). There are a total of four 6-9 classrooms and three 9-12 classrooms at the school. Purposive sampling was used to recruit participating classroom teachers for the project. The selected participating classrooms were chosen based on qualification and experience of the classroom teachers. All three participating teachers (one from a 6-9 class and two from 9-12 classes) are qualified Montessori teachers from accredited Montessori organizations with over 2.5 years of teaching experience at the participating Montessori school. The cultural background of the teachers was not part of the selection criteria although all three teachers turned out to be linguistically and
The participating teacher’s profiles are as following:

Teacher 2 (T2) is a teacher at the 6-9 level at the school. She is originally from India. She is an AMS-accredited Montessori teacher in the age range of 6-12, as well as a qualified teacher of India, New Zealand and Australia. She has university teaching degrees from India and New Zealand. She has 11 years of experience in mainstream schools in India and 18 years of experience teaching in Montessori schools in 6-9 and 9-12 classrooms. She identifies herself as Indian, although she has New Zealand citizenship. When asked which nationality or cultural background she would identify with, she claims that her “ethnicity is Indian and [she] would stick with that.” She is a multilingual fluent in Hindi, Konkini (a dialect spoken in Goa), Marathi (the state language of Goa), and English. She also has learned French for 3 years when she was in school.

Teacher 3 (T3) is a teacher at the 9-12 level at the school. She identifies herself as a “multiracial, international human-being” due to her complex cultural background. She is ethnically Indian, but identifies herself with both South African and Australian culture. She is a qualified teacher of Australia and South Africa. She has obtained a Bachelor in Education and a Bachelor of Arts in Montessori Education. She is also an AMI-certified teacher for ages 3 through 12. She has more than 30 years of experience in different age levels of Montessori, and has been working with the participating school for 28 years. She is a fluent bilingual in Afrikaans and English, and has started learning Hindi. She also enjoys learning Greek and Latin from her students.

Teacher 4 (T4) is also a teacher at the 9-12 level at the school. She identifies as being Irish. She has a Bachelor degree in finance and a Bachelor of Arts in Montessori Education in age levels 3-12. She has 15 years of teaching experience, in which 4.5 years was in Montessori schools. She has been teaching at the participating school for 2.5 years. She considers herself an English monolingual speaker, even though she has studied the Irish Gaelic
language through school. She has lived in the UK, the United States, Canada and Mexico prior to coming to Australia.

3.2.1 History of Montessori Methods and Montessori Schools
Montessori Methods is an education paradigm and method started by Dr. Maria Montessori in 1907 in Rome, Italy. The first Montessori School, Casa dei Bambini, was established in the slums of Rome, Italy. Through careful observation of the needs of the children, and incorporation of theories by Jean-Marc-Gaspard Itard and Edouard Seguin, Maria Montessori established new principles of education based on freedom, preparation of the environment, innate potential of a child, mix age-group classes, peace and global citizenship (Hainstock, 1997).

Since then, the Montessori Method has established its international presence, with schools in over 110 countries around the world (Whitescarver & Cossentino, 2008). There are a number of Montessori organizations around the world that aims at regulating Montessori schools and training qualified Montessori teachers. Organizations, include those where the participating teachers were trained at, are the American Montessori Society (AMS), Association of Montessori Internationale (AMI), St. Nicholas Montessori College in Ireland and North American Montessori Teachers Association (NAMTA). AMI alone has training centers over five different continents. Its global and international presence has proven the curriculum and method to be “adaptable and beneficial to all socioeconomic levels and specialties within the educational spectrum (Hainstock, 1997, p. 1).” The medium of instruction in Montessori schools varies across countries, but many of them have English as the main medium of instruction. Trudeau (1985) pointed out that one of the earliest Montessori schools was set up in a multicultural and multilingual environment, India, by Maria Montessori herself, and therefore, the curriculum design and Montessori pedagogy reflects this multicultural global perspective. Therefore, pedagogically, there are much similarities between Montessori and TEIL.

3.2.2 Rationale behind Selecting Montessori Schools
There are four reasons for why Montessori Education has been chosen as the context of study. The main reason behind the selection of Montessori schools as the context of study is due to the researcher’s personal teaching experience in Montessori schools. As a Montessori teacher myself, I realized that I have utilized many of the teaching strategies proposed in the principles of EIL even prior to any formal studies in EIL or applied linguistics. Based on my personal experience and
linguistic knowledge, I have made strategic decisions in regards to the way I teach language. A second reason is the theoretical alignment between Montessori pedagogy and TEIL. While learning about TEIL during my Master’s coursework studies, I have also critically analyzed some Montessori materials in the way that English or language is being represented and have found close theoretical alignments between both pedagogies. A third reason is due to the adaptability of the Montessori Method to different languages and cultures, as shown by its successful establishment of schools internationally. Although Dr. Maria Montessori originally designed the program in Italian, the Montessori materials have been effectively adapted to teach different languages; English, Chinese and Spanish just to name a few. Montessori schools are also pioneers in establishing English learning environment within multicultural and multilingual communities, such as India (Trudeau, 1985). The last reason is that, with Montessori Schools being an alternative education method from the mainstream schooling system, those educators and families who choose to engage in Montessori Schools are usually more open-minded about trying new approaches (Hainstock, 1997, p. 49). With EIL also being a paradigm shift from traditional perceptions of language, implementation of a new paradigm is most likely to be more successful in a context where parents and education professionals are open-minded to change and innovation. This makes Montessori schools a good match for the implementation of EIL framework.

3.2.3 Montessori Pedagogical Principles
This section outlines some of the key aspects of the Montessori pedagogy:

Theories of Child Development and learning
Montessori (1976) viewed the purpose of education as a process towards the formation of man. Unlike traditional mainstream schools, “education should not limit itself to seeking new methods for a mostly arid transmission of knowledge: its aim must be to give the necessary aid to human development” (p.84). Education, therefore, is achieved through guiding and assisting children with their own development. ‘Sensitive periods’, ‘prepared environment’ and the ‘absorbent mind’ become key concepts in achieving this goal. “Sensitive periods” refer to the lengths of time in which a child’s brain is especially receptive to the mastery of a developmental milestone (Montessori, 1983, p. 38). At the sensitive periods, children’s brains are ‘absorbent minds’, capable of taking in and making sense of stimuli in the environment with very little effort. In Montessori (1989), the acquisition of language is used as an example of the ‘absorbent mind’. From 7 months to 6 years of age, the child is able to pick up his/her mother tongue without any effort. A child at around the age of 2 is able to master “particular sounds, the prefixes and suffixes of words, their declension, the
conjugation of the verbs and the syntactical construction of the sentences (p.63)” without formal instructions. “By merely ‘living’ and without any conscious effort, the individual absorbs from the environment even a complex cultural achievement like language (p.64).” Montessori claims that learning does not need to be forced- in fact, it is quite the opposite. Children were born to learn if the environment is right. The students, the instructional materials, the teacher and the physical environment are all part of the ‘prepared environment’, and must be carefully structured to suit the child’s needs. Students are given the freedom in the classroom to explore materials of their own choice and at their own pace. The Montessori teacher’s main role is to ‘follow the child’ and prepare the environment for the students to learn independently (Eissler, 2009).

Cosmic Education
By 6-12 years old, the child enters a plane of development that is characterized by the emerging of the imagination, the need to be organized, and a concern for morality. The curriculum ‘The Cosmic Plan’ or ‘Cosmic Education’, aims at addressing the needs of children at the elementary school age through presenting them the story of the world and how all aspects of life are interconnected with one another. In the core of the curriculum are five stories called the Great Stories (O’Donnell, 2013). These stories are:

- The Creation of the Universe (otherwise known as “The God without hands” or “The Birth of the Universe”)
- The Coming of Life
- The Coming of Human Beings
- The Story of Numbers
- The Story of Language (Otherwise known as “The story of communication and signs” or “The Ox and the House”)

These stories were told at least once every year from 6 years old. Montessori created these stories aiming at presenting the students with an impressionistic view of the world, which would lead to any sub-branches in their studies, including math, science, language and culture. Figure 4 Montessori Cosmic Education Hexagon, which was created by a former colleague of the researcher’s, shows a graphic representation of how the rest of the Montessori 6-12 curriculum is related to the Great Stories.
Role of the Montessori Teacher

The Montessori teacher, otherwise known as the directress, is a key part of the Montessori prepared environment. As discussed in the sections above, the teachers are entrusted with the important responsibility of directing and guiding children towards their development. O'Donnell (2013) summarized the role of the Montessori teacher based on Maria Montessori’s work:

- A valet to serve the spirit: The teacher is a spiritual role-model and guide to the students.
- A custodian of the environment: The teacher prepares and maintains the classroom environment.
- A facilitator of learning: “She acts as the trait d’union between the materials and the child” (O'Donnell, 2013, p. 136)
- A caretaker of children: The teacher takes care of the physical and emotional well-being of the students.
- An observant scientist: The teacher observes the students in her/his class and is open-minded to make discoveries and inquire.
- A researcher: The teacher makes careful observations and documentations of each child in order to make individualized learning plans for each student.

Compared the characteristics summarized in Renandya (2012) outlined in section 2.7, it can be observed that there are many overlaps between the two descriptions. Both Renandya and O'Donnell described the teacher as someone who makes observations, monitors students’ learning carefully,
facilitates learning through organizing and mediates between child and materials. The role of the teacher is viewed to be an essential aspect of the successful implementation of a curriculum. Implications on the role of the teacher will be further discussed in Chapter 4 Findings and Discussions.

**Multicultural Curriculum**

Another one of the key elements in the Montessori Method is ‘peace education’, which Brunold-Conesa (2010) argues as an important component for the promotion of global citizenship and multiculturalism within the classrooms. Maria Montessori initiated an advocacy for peace through education after the conclusion of World War II, possibly as a response to her experiences with cultures and countries. Tolerance, acceptance, cooperation, respect for other cultures, concern for human rights, and belief in the unity and interdependence of humanity were advocated as part of Montessori’s idea for peace education (Brunold-Conesa, 2010, pp. 264-265). These key themes are evident in the curriculum: The history-geography lessons on the fundamental needs of humans can be used as an example for how Montessori lessons promote “a global citizen perspective.” In the lessons, students were taught that as humans, we all share similar physical and emotional needs, that “we are first citizens of the earth, and only secondarily Japanese, American, or Polish, for example (p.265).” In the geography and history 6-12 curriculum, students conduct research on continents, cultures, and countries through comparing and contrasting the different fundamental human needs. Intercultural sensitivity and awareness, arguably, are imbedded within the Montessori curriculum itself. Barron (1992) (as cited in Brunold-Conesa, 2008, p. 43) affirms that “the Montessori paradigm already fits the demands of the information era. It supports individuality and cultural pluralism with a global cultural context.” Barron’s claim enhances the selection of Montessori schools as a possible context for the implementation of the EIL paradigm.

### 3.3 Ethical Considerations

The process of data collection, data disposal and confidentiality adhered to the ethical practices as outlined in the university’s Human Research Ethics Committee. The research has been approved by the ethics committee on November 6, 2014 and the certificate of approval, the explanatory statement provided to the participants and a sample of the consent form has been included in the Appendix. Protocols for observations and collection of material artifacts adhere to the Montessori School’s privacy policy.
Anonymity and confidentiality are carefully considered in the project. All participants are given code-names or pseudonyms and the name and location of the Montessori school is protected. Special consideration has been given towards disclosing the gender of the teachers. Due to the disproportional ratio of male and female teachers in elementary schools, Doyle (2007) observed that the disclosure of the gender of a male teacher at a school may reveal the identity of the teacher despite the use of pseudonyms. Therefore, the gender of the teachers were not specified in the description of the participants and all teachers are de-identified through the use of feminine pronouns.

3.4 Data Collection
3.4.1 Instruments
The research utilizes three methods of data collection - classroom observations, semi-structured interviews, and analysis of material artifacts - to gain insight to multiple perspectives of the same topic.

a. Classroom Observation
Classroom semi-participant observations are used to examine the “complex relationships among factors in a learning situation” (Duff, 2007, p. 976). In a Montessori classroom, individual work, group work, and teacher’s lessons are conducted at the same time in the same room. Therefore, the focus of the observations would be on the teacher’s lessons and her interaction with the students. Details on what the teacher has said while interacting with students, implementation of lessons (specifically language lessons), and feedback given to student’s writing or language work would be the focus of the observation. Adhering to policies regarding the protection of privacy of the students, the researcher utilizes only running field notes to record observations in the classroom. The observations are semi-participant in nature in which the researcher walks around the classroom in order to gain access to different areas of the classroom, and on occasion, participate in lessons or engage with individual students with the teacher’s permission.

Each classroom was observed for a total of 12 hours, including four three-hour work cycles. While a longitudinal study in which the researcher is able to observe the same classrooms at different time of the year to gain a wider spectrum of language lessons and activities in the classroom would be ideal, time is not considered a major inhibiting factor towards the quality and type of activities available for observation. Since the Montessori curriculum stresses on repetition and the preparation of the classroom for all levels of study, a combination of teacher-directed learning and the students’ self-discovery learning through repeating and practicing previously
learned concepts (Chattin-McNichols, 1991) are visible in the classroom. Due to the characteristic of a three-year mixed-aged classroom, a wide variety of language activities at different abilities and developmental levels were also visible despite being a cross-sectional study.

b. Semi-structured Interviews

Interview is a method of enquiry commonly used in qualitative research and case studies (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 134). An in-depth interview allows interviewees to comment on the facts and give their opinions, whereas a more structured interview allows interviewee to have input on facts that the researcher has already established (Yin, 2009, pp. 107-109). Semi-structured interviews with the teacher participants in this study are used to gain insight on the teaching objectives or strategic decisions made by the teacher as demonstrated in lessons or the teacher’s interaction with her students. Each teacher was invited to participate in a 20-40 minute interview after the 12-hours of observations. The interviews were audio-recorded and later transcribed for analysis by the researcher. The content of the interview focuses on both behavioral events such as what is being done in the classroom, as well as opinions and attitudes towards a particular topic. The interviews followed the general structure of the interview guide listed in Appendix 2. However, additional follow-up questions and clarification questions were added based on the classroom observations and the respondent’s answers. This interview process also acted as part of the respondent-validation process where the researcher’s observations notes were shared with the participants to verify the authenticity of what was recorded in the field notes.

Although efforts were made to audio-record all the interview conversations, some conversational exchanges happened during the observations when the researcher spoke to the teacher to ask for clarification or explanation, and therefore were not audio-recorded. Therefore, precise transcription were not available, although the general content of the conversations were documented in the researcher’s field notes immediately after the conversations.

All of the audio-recorded interviews (including the interview in the pilot study) were fully transcribed with the names of the participant de-identified in the transcription. Due to the focus of the project is on the teaching strategies and representation of the English language in the classroom, the transcriptions focused on the meaning of the data (verbatim transcription) rather than being phonologically transcribed.
c. Material Artifacts

The material artifacts are collected and analyzed to better understand the language tasks being presented to the students. Teaching materials in a Montessori classroom serve as a tool for individual discovery learning and is an indispensable part of the “prepared environment” (Montessori, 1983) for learning and teaching. In a Montessori classroom, a structured environment is set up with a range of didactic apparatus to prepare or guide students to achieve a certain understanding of a concept or skill. The materials have built-in ‘control of error’ so the students would know the correct solutions when ‘discovering’ knowledge through manipulation of the materials (Hainstock, 1997). In a qualitative research perspective, written text or images are considered useful resources for examining the content as well as studying the culture behind it (Richards, 2005, p. 40). A sample of the materials used by the students during the observations were collected, photographed or photocopied.

3.4.2 Pilot Study

An exploratory case study, or a pilot study, was done with a substitute (casual emergency relief) Montessori teacher in the same school. Dörnyei (2007) pointed out that there is value in testing out the techniques and methods used for data collecting in a qualitative study, although its role is not as significant as in the quantitative study. The purpose of the pilot study is to test the instruments and research methods that will be used in the study to ensure that the methods are effective in informing the researcher about the topics of study (Yin, 2009, p. 92).

Teacher 1 (T1) was chosen as a pilot case study due to convenience and access. As the researcher was planning for observations and interviews with Teacher 3, teacher 1 was scheduled to substitute for Teacher 3 for three weeks due to teacher 3’s long service leave. Teacher 1 was also highly recommended by teacher 3 as a professional teacher and a good resource. The researcher approached teacher 1 to invite her to participate in the research project.

Teacher 1 (T1) is a retired teacher who took on the role of a casual relief classroom teacher while the main teacher of the 9-12 classroom was on leave for three weeks. The teacher is a qualified Montessori teacher at 9-12 level and received her qualifications through the Montessori World Education Institute (MWEI). She has 15 years of Montessori teaching experience and 10-12 years of English and history teaching experience at mainstream schools. T1 is a former parent and staff at the Montessori school, and has returned to teach as a casual relief teacher during her retirement. T1 has done casual relief teaching in the previous school year in the same classroom so the teacher was quite familiar with the year 5 and 6s in the class and the daily operation of the
classroom. Due to the emergency relief status of the teacher, the teacher did not have full authority over the curriculum design and decision-making of the classroom, and some of the interview questions were deemed irrelevant to her situation. The use of data collected from the pilot study was therefore included in the final findings and analysis only at a minimal level.

The process of testing out the classroom observations and some of the interview questions showed that these tools were quite useful in refocusing the topics of studies. Through the pilot study, it was found that the interviews were useful in clarifying some of the themes derived from the observations. For example, during one of the observations, the researcher noticed the idea of ‘proofreading’ and ‘editing’ one’s writing was prevalent. That become one of the focus of the interviews, which lead to the discussion of specific teaching strategies on teaching writing.

Prior to the pilot study, the collection of material artifacts was viewed as a supplementary resource for analyzing language use in the classroom. However, after observing how the use of language cards and reading comprehension materials played a significant part of the students’ everyday learning, the researcher decided to make the analysis of teaching materials a more significant tool in investigating language teaching in the classroom. Richards (2001) further pointed out that “instructional materials generally serve as the basis of much of the language input that learners receive and the language practice that occurs in the classroom” (as cited in Tomlinson, 2012, p. 144) and therefore it is important to analyze the way that teachers adapt existing materials or create their own materials within the Montessori classroom. Although much of the Montessori didactic materials are standardized and are produced by leading Montessori material-production companies such as Nienhuis Montessori and Albanesi Educational Center, there were also a wide range of materials and worksheets from non-Montessori material-production companies, and few designed and made by the teachers themselves. This highlights the importance of teaching materials in the analysis of language teaching.

3.5 Data Analysis
A total of 3 interviews with the three participating teachers are digitally recorded and transcribed. A total of 64.5 pages of classroom observation field notes were recorded over 7 school days. All the data collected from classroom observations, interview transcripts and material artifact analysis were put into categories using qualitative coding. The process references the coding procedures described in Richards (2005), and are both deductive and inductive: ‘In vivo’ topical categories and analytical coding based on TEIL framework were used for the interpretation of the data collected.
The topical categories obtained after the coding process were checked for reliability by an EIL scholar (the thesis supervisor) and Montessori educators (the participating teachers) as part of the respondent validation process (Refer to 3.6.3). The initial codes, labeled field notes, material artifacts and interview transcripts were organized and analyzed based on common themes.

3.6 Procedures to address trustworthiness and credibility
Scholars who take a positivist attitude towards research are concerned with the validity, reliability and generalizability of the research project. Remenyi (2012); Richards (2005) argues that in a qualitative or interpretivist approach to research, issues of credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability should be addressed in place of validity, reliability and generalizability (p.21). Credibility, therefore, answers the question ‘how would you and your reader know if the argument or explanation proposed in the research is trustworthy?’ In order to establish credibility, three strategies, reflexivity as a researcher, use of triangulation and use of respondent validation, were used.

3.6.1 Personal Biography: Reflexivity as a researcher
The role of the researcher in qualitative research, especially within participant observations, has been an important topic of discussion within qualitative research. Paechter (2013) considered the role of the researcher in social research as being “at the center of the research process” (p. 74): Researchers participate in the process of inquiry through observing and analyzing. My role of the researcher and practitioner of the research field needs to be accounted for while establishing the accountability and reflexivity within the research project. This section discusses my role in the research project as a mixture of an insider and outsider, and evaluates the potential advantages and disadvantages.

There are many advantages and disadvantages in assuming the role of an insider in a classroom research setting. Gaining access to participants and into the field becomes much easier as an insider (Paechter, 2013). Getting permission to conduct observations, or research in general, can be difficult due to the “perceived invasiveness of such practices or reluctance to draw attention to one’s abilities and actions” (Duff, 2007, p. 977) When the researcher is an insider, the school and participants were already acquainted with the researcher, and therefore they are more trusting in allowing the researcher to conduct research. Researching as an insider also allows for the researcher
to obtain data that is considered to be more reflective of the actual natural setting. Participants are less likely to be affected by the Observer’s Paradox due to the familiarity with the researcher. However, one of the main criticism of the insider/outsider dilemma is the tension of reporting possibly ‘insider’ information to an ‘outsider’ audience. The researcher may seem ‘disloyal’ to the community if negative comments were made in the analysis (Brewis, 2014; Dörnyei, 2007). Some of these issues are discussed specifically in the sections below.

My role in the research can be mostly defined as a practitioner-researcher. Since arriving in Melbourne one year ago, I have been involved with the participating Montessori School as a volunteer to make materials. I have also been working as a casual relief classroom assistant in the 3-6 year-old classrooms, as well as an administrative assistant in classrooms with ages 9-12. My qualifications as an American Montessori Society (AMS) accredited Montessori teacher-guide places me as a member of the community of Montessori educators and my position as a casual staff at the school puts me in a role as an insider/practitioner.

My role as a practitioner shifted towards an outside researcher since I decided to conduct my Master’s dissertation on Montessori schools. My role as an assistant continued, but I have noticed that my conversations with some of the teachers have changed. On top of the material making and administrative tasks, I was asked if I could assist a group of girls in a literature group starting July that year due to my expertise in language. I also started speaking to teachers about my research topic and my role as a researcher within the school. Ironically, being a researcher closed the gap between the teachers, the students and I; I was more involved in the classrooms as a result of my research engagements with the school. Students came to know my name, and the teachers and I were able to engage in discussions about teaching and language. However, the teachers also showed a sense of uncertainty when I spoke to the teachers as a researcher. All three teachers are fully qualified and experienced, but they all expressed doubts in their ability to contribute to the research. This suggests the power imbalance between researchers and participants, as described in Creswell (2007, p. 151). As a researcher, I found myself in a position of reassuring that I was not there to criticize or judge their teaching; instead I was there to understand the teaching practices of the classrooms and learn from them. This power imbalance is also further reduced through empowering the participants through the respondent-validation process.

My multiple role as a casual staff member and a student researcher at the school brought both advantages and disadvantages. As described above, the position as an insider allowed me to gain access to the school that might otherwise be hard to gain permission to observe and research. Montessori Classrooms also is perceived to have its own context-specific jargon and philosophy
attached to the method and being a practitioner allows me to understand the methods of teaching in the classroom better. However, as a practitioner-researcher, the tension of striking a balance between giving a detailed and rich description of what was happening in the classroom, and giving an unbiased evaluation of the situation without being considered ‘disloyal’ was an issue of initial concern. The triangulation process and validation from both the respondent and fellow EIL researcher (discussed in 3.7.2 and 3.7.3) hold me accountable to the evaluations I have made.

3.6.2 Triangulation
Triangulation is achieved in the research design through the use of three different research methods in this study. Each research method has its own advantage and disadvantage and the use of triangulation allows the researcher to see the same topics using different ‘lens’ (Remenyi, 2012, p. 95). Remenyi (2012) further explains that triangulation achieves two purposes, one is to provide a cross-check of results across different methods, and the second purpose is to enrich the evidence. The process of triangulation can be further explained through how the three research methods work together to establish reliability in figure 6 Triangulation.

3.6.3 Respondent Validation
The final and most useful tool for checking reliability is through the use of respondent validation, otherwise known as ‘member checking’ (Richards, 2005) or ‘community of practice’ (Dörnyei, 2007).
The process refers to the process in which the coding and interpretation of data are being ‘checked’ by the respondents. Through the interview, some of the observations were being validated by the teacher-respondents themselves. The coding and interpretation of the data was validated by an EIL scholar (my supervisor). This process of validation allows others to give feedback on the way the data has been coded and interpreted. Lincoln and Guba (1984:314) (as cited in Creswell, 2007, p. 252) referred to this method of validation as being the “most critical technique for establishing credibility.”
4. Findings and Discussion

Although there are variations in the actual lessons and techniques used in the three observed classrooms, the differences may be described as variations on three common themes: (1) Multilingualism; (2) Explicit Teaching of EIL; and (3) Intercultural Communications. Each of these major themes is described and analyzed based on principles and literature of TEIL. The chapter concludes with the implications, contributions and limitations of this research study.

4.1 Multilingual Approach

One of the key themes identified in the teaching practices across the Montessori classrooms was the use of other languages. Despite English being the main medium of instruction in the classroom and Italian being taught as a second language at the school, other languages such as community languages, students’ home language or the teacher’s heritage language, were used as commands and birthday celebration within the classroom. Texts and reading material in other languages were also observed in the classrooms.

4.1.1 Simple instructions and commands

Multilingualism is shown through the use of simple instructions and commands in different languages. Simple repetitive phrases in languages other than English were spoken by teachers and students alike. In Teacher’s 4 classroom, phrases in Irish and sometimes French were used as simple commands as part of the daily classroom routine. When the teacher wanted whole-class attention to make an announcement, she called out “mo chairde” (My friends) while the students replied “Sea, mo mhúinteoir” (Yes, my teacher) in Irish Gaelic. Before school ended, the students gathered in a circle with their hands stretched out to the middle. On a count of three, the students cheered “Slán abhaile” (Good-bye) in Gaelic and put their hands in the air. The French phrases “comprenez vous” (Do you understand?) and the response, “Oui, je comprends” (Yes, I understand), were used in lessons by the teacher and students as instructional phrases. When this observation was brought up in the interviews, teacher 4 explained that these instructional phrases were ways of sharing her culture with the class, and serve the purpose of educating the students about other cultures and to unify the classroom:

Part of it was to show that there are other cultures, and to show and bring my own culture, I suppose. Those are things that I did when I was growing up in school, like, "An bhfuil cead agam dul go dtí an leithreas?" (can I go to
the toilet); Every Irish kid knows that… [The use of LOTE phrases] helps to bond and unify us as a community within the bigger community. And it is that little special thing that we do… that sets us different from everybody else… And I think, a part of it is … to instill in them, that there is a world outside of Australia, and… [to] get them paying attention a little bit more.

Although the use of other languages as instructional phrases was not observed in the classroom, teacher 2 also reported that she used phrases in Maori language as simple instructional commands when she taught in New Zealand:

In fact, if I knew Italian [LOTE taught in the school], I would have used words in Italian to speak to them. Like in New Zealand, we spoke Maori. So I would use words in Maori like… let’s stand, ‘itu’; ‘E no ho’, sit. And Mārena, hello, and Kia Ora, ‘good morning’.

Both T2 and T4 reported that the purpose of using other languages in the classroom was to raise cultural and linguistic awareness; T4’s use of Irish and French and T2’s use of the local Maori aboriginal language help students become aware of the multilingual environment around them.

4.1.2 Birthday celebrations
Birthday celebration was another example of the promotion of multilingualism within the classroom.
In Montessori classrooms, it is a common practice to celebrate birthdays through singing the birthday song in different languages and conducting a birthday walk.

Birthday walks are typically done in the classroom with 3-6 year olds, but elementary school teachers often modify and adapt similar concepts into the 6-12 classrooms. In Teacher 2’s classroom, birthdays were celebrated in the typical Montessori celebration, where the birthday child took the globe and walked around a candle, which symbolized the Earth going around the sun. The child walked around the candle the same number as the age that they have become. This represented the number of times that the child had gone around the sun, or the number of years in which he/she had been on Earth. Then, the teacher instructed the class to start singing the happy birthday song in English, followed by the same song in Italian. The teacher then signaled a Slovakian student in the class by saying “go”, and the child started leading the class in singing the birthday song in the Slovakian language. This was followed by the singing of the song in French and Chinese led by students with a French heritage and a Chinese-Jewish heritage respectively. After singing the song in Mandarin Chinese, one of the students asked the Chinese-Jewish student if he knew the Hebrew birthday song. The student thought about it, and said “Ah!” and started singing the Hebrew birthday
song starting with ‘Hayom yom huledet’. Interestingly, this song had a completely different tune to it than the birthday song in English. Teacher 2 later commented on this celebration practice as something “that is [typical of] Montessori” and she said, “understanding every culture and embracing [every culture]... that’s what I would like to do.”

Similarly, birthdays were celebrated in teacher 3 and 4’s classrooms through the singing of birthday songs in different languages. Teacher 3 commented that the purpose of this practice is to allow the child to feel a sense of belonging and to nurture the child’s cultural heritage.

The choice of languages for the birthday songs depended on the linguistic background of the teachers and the students, and each classroom may select different languages for the celebrations. Multilingual or multicultural students were responsible for teaching or showing the class how to sing the birthday songs in their own language. The student thereby contributes to the multilingualism within the classroom by being a cultural resource. The celebration of linguistic diversity becomes a classroom ritual during birthday celebrations.

4.1.3 Reading in another language
Multilingualism is also promoted through the inclusion of multilingual reading material. The decision of the inclusion of text in another language can be self-initiated by the students or by the teacher. In one of the observations in T2’s class, a student was observed to be reading a Chinese novel with Chinese characters and pinyin (Romanized pronunciation of the words) on the pages during reading time.

Teacher 3 and 4 also consciously included texts in LOTE that was taught in the school: A poem in Italian was posted on the bulletin board. During one of the observations in Teacher 4’s classroom, two students were standing right near the poem trying to memorize the poem. The two girls took turns reciting the poem until both of them could memorize the entire poem. In a previous lesson, the Italian teacher had asked the class to memorize this poem and the students were encouraged to practice and review the poem during class time.

Although one student from Teacher 2’s class was observed to be reading a book in a language other than English, Teacher 2 commented that reading in another language was not something that she consciously encouraged; Teacher 4, on the other hand, reported that she would like to include texts in different languages in the classroom:
“And one of the things that I would love to [do] was getting more Italian in here, since we do Italian here in the school: Just getting Italian words to put around the classroom... We used to have that kind of thing in Ireland- every board... or every window, door would have a laminated Irish word up on it.”

Although the two teachers showed different perspectives on how to include written texts in languages other than English, the teachers demonstrated an acceptance towards the use of texts in other languages in their own classrooms.

4.1.4 Perception of Bi-/Multi-lingual Teachers and Students
Other than the teaching practices in the individual classroom, appreciation of multilingualism was also evident in the representation of bi-/multilingual teachers in the school. Although nationality was not a requirement for participant selection of the case study, it turned out that two out of the four participants were bilingual/ bicultural teachers (Indian-New Zealander and South African/Indian-Australian). The other two (T1 from the pilot study and T4) identified themselves as monolingual English speakers, but both of them had international outlooks and experiences. This shows that in the participating school, multilingualism and/or multiculturalism of staff members are valued traits.

Canagarajah (1999) (as cited in McKay, 2003, p. 8) observed that most bilingual teachers of English exhibit anxiety and inhibition as effective teachers due to their status as a non-native speaker. McKay (2002) observed that bilingual English teachers in Inner Circle countries often feel insecure about their language ability, and is often viewed as less competent as non-native speakers. However, this was not observed among the teachers teaching in the participating school. Teacher 2 commented that being ethnically Indian “does not bother [her] at all.” She expressed that students and parents alike accepted her for who she was. Teacher 3 expressed that being bilingual “tease[s] your mind a lot” and “it helps the child understand language better.” She enjoyed learning languages and phrases from others. Although she does not use the other languages she speaks in the classroom, she communicated with parents and staff from South Africa in her native tongue, Afrikaans.

While teacher 4 identified herself as a monolingual, she believed that being bilingual is important. “Being bilingual is so important because it gives you so many more opportunities in later life.” She continued to describe how her sister, who is a trilingual, was able to get more job opportunities worldwide because of her language skills. This is one of the reasons why T4 is a strong advocate for the inclusion of Italian and other languages in the classroom. T3 also viewed bilingual
students positively. When talking about her bilingual students in the class, she enthusiastically described a girl called Janice in her class who was brought up with three languages, Cantonese, English and Hebrew. T3 remarked that “you can see that in her work and her approach to life: She’s really well-rounded, she accepts people for who they are. She has an interest in a lot of different things.”

From the anecdotes presented above, it could be concluded that all three teachers strongly advocate the importance of bilingualism and multilingualism. Furthermore, the two multilingual teachers embraced their identities as multilinguals, serving as a role-model. Despite self-identifying as being a ‘monolingual’, T4 appeared to be an active proponent for bi-/multilingualism. The research results supports the proposition made by Clyne (2005, p. 64), that one of the important prerequisites for developing multilingualism is for the individuals to escape the “monolingual mindset” and to view the ability to speak multiple languages as an asset, rather than a deficit.

4.1.5 Multilingualism in Montessori Worldwide
Multilingualism is not only promoted within the participating school, but a priority in many Montessori schools around the world. Rosanova (1991) documented English-language immersion Montessori schools in India, Pakistan, Tanzania, Argentina, Brazil, and the United States, and detailed her experience in raising her children in a bilingual environment in a Montessori school in Hong Kong. This priority is in line with Maria Montessori’s vision of education, which aims at creating “culturally appropriate early childhood immersion environments- environments fit to deal with the daily realities of multiculturalism and multilingualism” (Rosanova, 1991, p. 2).

Montessori teaching practices promotes sensitivity towards the current global multilingual landscape. McKay (2002) observed that one of the features of an international language is that “it develops alongside other languages” and therefore the teacher of EIL should take into account how English is used in bi-/multilingual contexts (p.24). As discussed in the literature review in chapter 2, English is established as a lingua franca in Australia and is used alongside many other community languages within the linguistically and culturally diverse population in Australia. This notion of English being a lingua franca within a diverse local linguistic and cultural landscape becomes particularly relevant to Montessori classrooms in Victoria because it reflects the situation in Australia. Through incorporating spoken phrases and texts into the daily classroom routine, and the hiring of multilingual and monolingual teachers, the school demonstrated a multilingual awareness of the function in which English serves in the local Australian context, as well as the globalized world.
This shows that active encouragement and advocacy towards appreciation of multilingualism are common features in TEIL and Montessori Schools.

4.2 Explicit Teaching of EIL
The second key theme identified is the explicit teaching of EIL-related concepts. Although none of the interviewees were explicitly trained on EIL, some of the principles of EIL (language variation, history of English, and the critical analysis of language) were evident in the teaching of spelling, speaking, vocabulary, reading and writing in the classrooms. Due to the scale of the study, analysis of the Montessori language curriculum is limited to lessons and classroom activities conducted within the classrooms during the time of the observations.

4.2.1 Teaching about Varieties of English in Speaking, Spelling and Reading
TEIL promotes an awareness and exposure of different variations in English use, and this idea is being promoted in Montessori classrooms through exposing students to a wide-variety of Englishes through instructions and modelling in speaking and reading:

**Speaking**
The way in which different varieties of English and accents are being demonstrated and negotiated in spoken English in the classrooms advocates for an awareness and respect for diversity, as promoted in TEIL. As an Irish English speaker, Teacher 4 spoke a different variety of English than most of the students in the class, who spoke Australian English. When asked about whether or not the Irish accent affects her teaching in anyway, teacher 4 explained that over time, students became familiar with the accent and adapted to the phrases. It was a process of mutual accommodation where Teacher 4 adapted and used words in Australian English (texters) while the students learned to associate things with different terms used by the teacher. Sometimes the older students who have been in the class for longer were able to explain to the younger students about what a particular word meant. It sometimes led to discussion about different ways of referring to the same thing in English. As a way to further “break the barrier”, T4 would sometimes make fun of Australian phrases by saying phrases such as "g'day mate!" to the children. The students would respond and say "top o’ a mornin’ to ya". This approach makes students consciously aware about the different varieties of English, and the process of mutual accommodation demonstrates how differences are negotiated in intercultural settings.
Accent is a feature of language that often elicit discrimination and unacceptance within a multilingual classroom. Teacher 3 commented that some students would say “in Australia, we don’t say it like this” to students who spoke in a different accent or a different variety. In response, Teacher 3 encouraged the students to teach others how to say it in their way, but further emphasizes that how a person says it does not matter as long as communication is established and what is said was understood:

Previously, I have had Vietnamese children or Chinese children and they don’t emphasize the ‘h’ sound... They put an "l" in front and some children would pick them out and say, "you don’t say it like that." and I’d say, "you’re right. You can teach that person how to say it, but have a look, when the child has written it, it is written correctly.” That’s important too because, when they are reading it, the children who are reading it actually know what that word says... It really is the understanding and comprehension- and that’s the important thing, when you are speaking to somebody.

The above example shows how the teacher helped students in resolving conflicts through promoting an appropriate and accepting attitude towards phonological differences. In this example, it is evident that when addressing accent differences, teacher 3 advocated for the importance of intelligibility, rather than a native-speaker/ Australian accent as the model of speaking. This is supported by Dalton and Seidhofer (1994) (as cited in McKay, 2002, p. 72), who suggested that a native-speaker accent may be used as a point of reference, but should not be viewed as the norm. By instructing the students to “teach that person how to say it,” the teacher was encouraging the students to help the Chinese/ Vietnamese students to pronounce words by using the Australian pronunciation as a point of reference. However, T3 subsequently stressed on ‘understanding’ and ‘comprehension’ as being the most important factor in communication and intelligibility was viewed as the main goal. Similarly, Jenkins (2000) (McKay, 2002, p. 72) also argues that “there is nothing intrinsically wrong with L2 pronunciation that does not conform to a NS[native speaker] accent, but varies in the direction of the speaker’s own L1” as long as the accent is understandable. Both examples above showed that the pedagogical approach towards phonological variations promoted in Montessori classrooms as in line with what is proposed in the literature in TEIL.

Spelling
The representation of different English varieties in the spelling material in the classroom illustrates a representation of the diversity in English varieties. The spelling materials used in the classroom showcase a variety of English spelling rules. Due to the limited availability of Montessori materials worldwide, the materials in the classrooms are sourced from various Montessori and non-Montessori publisher around the world. For example, most of the leveled reading and language
materials were sourced from Australian publishers (i.e. R.I.C. Publications), but quite a few language materials were sourced from the UK or the US (i.e. Folens Publishers UK, Nienhuis Montessori, Albanesi Education Center etc.). Sometimes, teachers would also make their own materials. The following example of a teacher-made spelling material showcases a mixture of different spelling rules.

**Partner Test 1:**

measuring
litre
millilitre
kilometer
metre
gram
kilogram
milligram
hour
minute
second

*Figure 7 Excerpt from Spelling Program*

In this example, ‘metre’ is spelled with the Australian/British spelling, while ‘kilometer’ is spelled based on American spelling rules. This example shows how the students were implicitly and explicitly (depending on how these spelling cards are used in the class) exposed to different lexical variations of English through the teaching materials.

Examples observed in the school seemed to only showcase Inner-Circle variations of spelling, and the school may consider including real-life examples of Outer Circle and Expanding Circle varieties of English in its teaching materials. Bokhorst-Heng (2012) called for a deeper awareness of the “content and intent of the lexical items introduced” (p.220) in teaching materials. McKay (2012b) asserted that many classroom materials subtly promote Western cultures and marginalization of other cultures; However, it is “ultimately local classroom teachers who determine how such materials will be realized in the classroom (p.76)” and called for teacher’s critical judgement in the selection and implementation of materials. As discussed before, the interviewees participating in the research were not informed about the pedagogy of EIL, and therefore it is unrealistic to expect them to evaluate the materials based on TEIL principles. However, it is believed that along with a deeper
awareness of EIL-related issues and pedagogy, teachers should be able to make more informed decisions about the representation of English varieties within the classroom. Therefore, this study proposes the importance of educating teachers about TEIL through teacher-training and professional development programs. This suggest is further explored in section 4.4.

**Reading**

Extensive reading was used as a strategy to implicitly expose students to the wide-variety of English words and usage. Students in teacher 2 and teacher 4’s classrooms were given silent reading time after lunch for reading. The general set up of silent reading time met the criteria outlined by Maley (2012), who proposed Extensive Reading as a potential for promoting language acquisition. He argued that because it is unrealistic to ‘teach’ all the different varieties of English, the best way of exposing students to different English varieties is through the reading of texts drawn from a variety of geographical locations. Based on a preliminary survey of the books available in the classrooms and the library, there were a considerable amount of chapter book series by Australian authors, such as *Geronemo Stilton, Aussie Bites, Go Girls* etc. However, due to the limited number of Australian publishers and authors, there were also a lot of books by non-Australian authors, such as Roald Dahl, Ernest Hemingway, J.K. Rowling, Lin Cunxin, Laura Ljungjvist and Helen Lunn. This allowed students to gain access to different varieties of English through extensive reading. However, due to the fact that the nationality of many of the authors were not explicitly stated in the books, a more in depth study of Inner Circle, Outer Circle and Expanding Circle authors among popular children’s literature in future research would be needed.

The above examples in oral language, spelling and reading showed a promotion of different English varieties in the classrooms. While Australian English may be the default variety used by the students, students were unconsciously and consciously exposed to other varieties of English. Peters and Fee (1989) observed that inconsistency is part of the “real flux of usage” (p.146). Canagarajah (2006) (as cited in Sharifian, 2009, p. 3) affirmed that “in a context where we have to constantly shuttle between different varieties of English and communities, proficiency becomes complex... one needs the capacity to negotiate diverse varieties to facilitate communication.” This points to the importance of exposing students to different usage of English and developing students’ awareness of the diversity of English, as demonstrated in the observed classrooms.
4.2.2 Origin of English through Story Telling and Word Study

As discussed in chapter 2, English has undergone a change of ownership and therefore Kubota and Ward (2000, p. 83) highlighted “the importance of understanding linguistic diversity” and “discovering the origins and development of English” in the instruction of World Englishes. These two ideas were evident in the telling of the Story of Language and teaching of root words.

**Story of Language**

The origins of the English language is explicitly taught through a story-telling approach in the Montessori curriculum. Story-telling is an important aspect of Montessori methods. 6-12 Montessori teachers would typically start the year by telling the students about the Story of Language (see Appendix 3 for the script and more description of the Montessori Great Lessons in section 3.2.3). The story is told in an impressionistic viewpoint, explaining the origin of writing and the introduction of ancient writing systems. Building on the idea of the Story of Language, teacher 3 commented in the interview that when she told the story to the class, she would add by explaining how the English language began from a proto-Indian-European language family.

I always go back to the very beginning. The English language begin at the proto-Indian[-European] language, and that is actually the Aryan language or the Sandskrit language. And so, every word is actually taken from- that was the beginning of it. And then we talked about the Germanic language and how language has transformed and change over the period of time and how we have adapted and taken words from different... for example, restaurant is a French word, and how it comes from the French language. Catamaran... comes from the Indian language.

This example showcases how the teacher is quite knowledgeable about the origins of the English language and how the historical background of the language influenced the language as used today. The notion of English being a pluricentric and flexible language is evident in her understanding of the English language and this conceptualization was transmitted explicitly to her students through her telling of the story of English.

**Root Words**

Introducing root words (prefixes, suffixes etc.) is another strategy used to promote understanding of the origin of English. Due to the limitation of hand-written observation notes, precise transcription of what is being said in specific lessons were not available. Instead, an example of a geometry lesson plan from the researcher’s own Montessori teaching manual is used here to showcase how the introduction of root words in the Montessori curriculum contributes in helping students with understanding the dynamic nature of the lexis in the English language.
The lesson script above is an example of how etymology of words is being introduced in lessons as a way to familiarize students with the terminology. In fact, Moudraia (2001) (as cited in Bokhorst-Heng, 2012, p. 216) claims that language comparison and chunk-for-chunk language translation raises students’ language awareness. Furthermore, Montessori (1964) explains that “opportune and rational instruction” of content-specific vocabulary, and the correct pragmatic use of specific terminology “satisfies [the student’s] desire for knowledge” (p.237). The introduction of terminology imbedded in a particular context (botany, in this example) allows students to gain a deeper understanding of the formation of English words through etymology, but also strengthens the students’ mastery of the concept and content-specific terminology in English through a content-based approach.

In the 9-12 classrooms, there are also language materials that specifically introduce students to different English roots. Root words from Latin, Greek, French and even some Old English origins are introduced in this particular material. Figure 8 is a sample of a root words language card.
This material is used in the classroom to explicitly teach the students about the meaning of different roots, and how to combine the prefixes and suffixes provided to make a new word. Students engaged in lexical innovation through the systematic combination and recreation of words based on their prior knowledge of English vocabulary, and the meaning of the different root words. The students also engage in familiarizing themselves with the word-formation process of the English language. This approach to English teaching through origins and root-words agrees with the approach proposed in Kubota and Ward (2000).

**Lexical Innovation**

Furthermore, the learning of vocabulary is more than just memorizing lexical rules and combinations; students are also engaged in creative lexical innovation based on their understanding of root words. In Teacher 2’s classroom, one of the students referred to the calculators as ‘car-culators’ because the calculators used in the classroom were in the shape of cars (see figure 9). From this example, it is observed that students are also active participants in the creation and manipulation of the English language.
4.2.3 Writing
Hino (2012) and Wingard (1981) suggested that the teaching of EIL is best conducted in a content-based approach, where the use of language is presented through authentic materials. In the Montessori elementary school curriculum, the teaching of writing skills is taught by integrating writing into other subject areas as ‘follow-up activities’ as a way to respond to a new concept or subject area. Genres of writing that students created in the classrooms include research reports, Powerpoint presentations, brochures, blog entries and note-taking in notebooks.

As part of a research project called ‘Night of the Notables’, students were asked to pick a ‘notable’, someone who has made contributions to the society, and conduct a research on the notable’s life, contributions and other interesting facts by presenting the information in a Powerpoint presentation and a poster/booklet. When giving instructions about the project, teacher 3 stressed that identifying the country of origin of the notable was important. This showcases a global perspective towards the concept of ‘notables’ in which the study of famous people was not limited to local Australians. As a result, students selected a wide variety of ‘notables’ from different backgrounds: The Google Boys (American), Pierre Curie (French), Anne Frank (Jewish), Maria Montessori (Italian), Gandhi (Indian), etc.

Although much of the discussion of TEIL writing strategies focuses on English language learners, much of the principles and strategies are adaptable towards English native speakers, because the acquisition of written English is a learning process for both non-native and native speakers of English alike (c.f. Leung, Harris, & Rampton, 1997). Casanave (2012) highlighted the importance of making writing practice meaningful and purposeful for the students. Students’ writing practice should therefore be embedded within the learning context and students should be free to draw on a variety of resources, including their own cultural background knowledge or home language, when writing. Students in the Montessori classroom were able to accomplish meaningful writing practice through subject-relevant research projects and writing activities.

4.3 Intercultural Communications
Intercultural communication was being taught through implicit and explicit instruction. Sifakis (2004) proposed that “the ‘best’ [English as an intercultural language] teaching situations are those that exhibit variety in the learner’s cultural and linguistic backgrounds (p.246)” through having monolingual/bilingual/multilingual students, or having students who have travel experiences abroad. Other literature (c.f. Celce-Murcia, 2008; Sharifian, 2013) highlight the importance of the teaching of strategies to develop communicative competence for intercultural communication. In
the Montessori classrooms, the teacher, the students and the school community (i.e. former students, parents) were used as resources to enhance intercultural communication in different situations.

### 4.3.1 Teacher-initiated Examples

Teachers in the Montessori classrooms explicitly teach about the local culture and other cultures in the classrooms as a way to enhance intercultural awareness and knowledge. Byram (1997; 2002) (as cited in Jackson, 2014a, pp. 309-311) proposed that one of the five elements of intercultural communicative competence (ICC) involves gaining knowledge of the cultural practices of one’s own culture and others’ culture. Cultural studies is part of the Montessori curriculum. At the 6-12 level, most of the cultural studies is done in forms of research, timelines and continent studies. At the time of the observations, the students from teacher 3’s class were completing a project on particular country of choice. Some students decided to conduct research on their own heritage countries, some decided to research a country they did not know much about. Through showing curiosity towards a culture other than their own, students are exhibiting self-decentralization by rejecting the assumption that their own culture is more sophisticated than other cultures. Bennett & Bennett (2004) (as cited in Jackson, 2014a, p. 210) argue that such sensitivity is essential to developing intercultural competence.

Another example in how teachers enhance cultural knowledge is through introducing different cultural ideas in the classroom. The teacher proposed the idea of making ‘breads’ from different countries and asked the students to brainstorm different ideas:

Student from Greek background: Can I do *Teoureki*? It is this Greek pastry.

T: Hm... that sounds good but I am thinking more about different breads. Maybe like *roti*, or white bread roll?

S: Ok.

T: Look up ‘quick bread’ on the internet and see what you can find.

(The student did a search on the internet with another student with a Jewish background. After 10 minutes, they came back.)

S: We looked up the recipe of *Challa*. It is quite easy and we have all the ingredients ready in the class today already. It just takes flour and sugar.

T: But that does not make sense. Won’t the bread also need yeast?

S: Oh right! I have another idea. It’s a Greek bread called *Psomi*.
In this example, the teacher and the students both engaged in intercultural exchanges on a common topic, ‘bread’. Through brainstorming different foods from their own culture or experiences, both the students and the teacher develop a broader understanding or conceptualization of food around the world.

4.3.2 Intercultural Communication in Student Interaction

With the classroom being an environment for promoting intercultural exchanges, students were encouraged to engage in intercultural interaction through the sharing of linguistic and cultural knowledge. Students are not blank-slates and they contribute much to the communication and learning within the classroom. Here are two examples of how students become ambassadors for their culture and language(s):

**Excerpt 1**

Two students (One is from a Chinese background, another from European background) in teacher 2’s 6-9 classroom were working on a botany three-part-card activity in the recognition of different plants (see Figure 10 Botany Activity).

The task was to match the photos of the plants to the correct label and description. The Chinese student quickly recognized the description of the gingko tree and matched it with the correct label and photo. The European student was confused, and asked “What is a gingko tree?” The Chinese student replied, “We put it in soup!”
While reading a book on stargazing, teacher 1 and the students came across stars in the constellation that were named by the Greek alphabets. The teacher was trying to make a connection between the English alphabets and the Greek alphabets.

T: So alpha is A; beta is B; and gamma is C. D, delta. E, epsilon. What is F?

Student 1: There is no F, I think.

T: Then what is the sixth alphabet?

(A student with Greek heritage came over to join the discussion)

Student 2: There is F, it is phi. But it is different from the English alphabet that it is not the sixth letter in the alphabet. It comes in the end.

T: That makes sense! (Teacher then went on explaining an experience when she went on a game show and had to answer the name of the smallest star in the list of alpha, beta, epsilon and gamma. She answered gamma, thinking that gamma referred to G in the Greek alphabet, the seventh letter.)

As seen in the two excerpts above, the students were able to draw on their cultural and linguistic repertoire to explicitly explain ideas encountered in the classroom to help others understand cultural concepts. This ability to interpret, relate and explain one’s own culture and its relationship to another culture is a key strategy in intercultural communication (Sharifian, 2013, p. 4) and this skill is being cultivated naturally in an intercultural Montessori environment.

4.3.3 Community as Cultural and Linguistic Resource

The multicultural school community was also used as a resource to promote multiculturalism. One of the strategies advocated by Kubota and Ward (2000) was the use of guest speakers from other countries to explore strategies of intercultural communications. In one of the observations of teacher 4’s classroom, a former student, Bob, came back to visit the school, and acted as the ‘guest speaker’ for intercultural communication. Bob has moved to Indonesia with his family in the previous school year and attended an international school in Indonesia. Teacher 4 initiated a question and answer time for the class to ask Bob questions in regards to his experience in Indonesia. Students engaged in cross-cultural learning when interviewing Bob. The teacher also explicitly introduced the term ‘expatriate’ (expats) to describe families like Bob’s. Teacher 4 explained that people from English-speaking countries like Australia would move to other countries for work and the lifestyle of these expats are very different from Australian lifestyle.
The teachers and students also engaged in intercultural negotiation of word meaning when discussing about transportation around Jakarta:

Bob: There are so much traffic in Jakarta. It is basically quite developed.

Bob’s mom: It’s quite scary when you’re in the city. There are a lot of motorbikes around and they try to get through small streets to avoid the traffic.

T4: Do you have any rickshaws?

(Silence)

T4: I mean... tuk-tuks? They are these taxis that are pulled by bicycles.

Bob: Oh yes. We call them bajaj in Indonesian. There are also motorbike taxies called ojek. They are very risky to take.

When talking about the experience, different types of terminology and vocabulary that are not commonly used in everyday Australian context emerged. This led to a negotiation of terms and the introduction of new concepts and vocabulary: the teacher described what she was referring to, and Bob introduced the Indonesian term used for the same concept.

This discussion about a cross-cultural experience through the eyes of a former student allowed the class to gain a better understanding of a culture that is quite foreign to them.

4.3.4 Antidiscrimination Discussions

Antidiscrimination discussions were also used to build awareness of the politics and ‘ugliness’ of diversity. In one of the observations, T4 had a class discussion where she further problematized particular gender stereotypes when a student commented that “girls can’t kick a football”. In the discussion, T4 raised Annabelle, one of the girls in the class, as an example to illustrate how stereotypes could be false and misleading: “Look at Annabelle, she is probably up there as the top three soccer players in this school; She used to be the best in the school; She is a girl.” Further on in the discussion, T4 re-emphasized the importance of respecting everybody as individuals and giving equal treatment across gender. To further explain what respect and equal treatment meant, she gave an example with a situation related to hair that happened last semester:

At the school, all girls who have long hair were required to tie their hair up so that their hair do not cover their faces and affect their learning. In the classroom, T4 had two boys who also decided to grow their hair. When that happened, T4 insisted the boys also needed to tie their hair up, or wear a hat so that their hair do not cover their faces. T4 explained that while
the class should not judge the boys for having long hair, when the rule about tying hair up applied, it should applied to both genders. “This is what equality is about,” T4 explained.

(Researcher’s Observation Notes)

Nieto (2004) identifies this type of ‘antiracism’ and ‘antidiscrimination’ conversations being the “core of a multicultural perspective (p.347).” Nieto criticizes that multicultural education in many schools only addresses the superficial aspects of multiculturalism, such as festivals and food, but neglects the ‘ugly’ and ‘messy’ politics of being multicultural:

“Racism is seldom mentioned in school (it is bad, a dirty word) and, therefore, is not dealt with. Unfortunately, many teachers think that simply having lessons in getting along or celebrating Human Relations Week will make students nonracist or nondiscriminatory in general. But, it is impossible to be untouched by racism, sexism, linguicism, heterosexism, ageism, anti-Semitism, classism, and ethnocentrism in a society characterized by all of them. To expect schools to be an oasis of sensitivity and understanding in the midst of this stratification is unrealistic. Therefore, part of the mission of the school becomes creating the space and encouragement that legitimates talk about inequality and make it a source of dialogue.” (Nieto, 2004, pp. 348-349)

One of the areas that is seldom emphasized in TEIL is the importance of antiracism and antidiscrimination conversations. Literature on TEIL often emphasize on the sharing of ideas and culture, addressing of cross-cultural differences, and development of a reflective and critical stance towards culture (c.f. McKay, 2002). However, few scholars advocate for the need to confront discrimination, and to break down stereotypes. Nieto (2004) pointed out that the reality of our current world is filled with discrimination and inequality and Marlina (2013, p. 224) advocated for the importance of engaging in discussions about tensions/ conflicts in order for students to “strategically and respectfully deal with” these issues. Through asking questions such as “where do stereotypes come from?” “Why are stereotypes bad?” “Are stereotype true?” students were be able to develop a stronger respect for others and a deeper understanding for the sociopolitical conflicts related to diversity.

4.4 Implications and Recommendations

While scholars in EIL encourages educators to change and reconsider the way that English is being represented and conceptualized in the teaching of the language and culture, this case study
responds to Wee’s (2013) question by demonstrating that change has already taken place. Through investigating three Montessori classrooms in Australia, it is observed that the Australian Montessori school environment had already established a good context for the implementation of EIL pedagogy. The findings suggest a good fit between EIL pedagogy and Montessori philosophies: On the curriculum level, the focus on world culture within the Montessori curriculum allowed for the explicit teaching of World Englishes. English is not perceived as a monolithic language, but one that consists of many varieties, accents, roots, and pragmatic usage. On the geographic location level, the multilingual Australian context in which the school is situated allowed for many opportunities for intercultural communication between students, teachers and the community. This addresses the first research question by establishing the Montessori classroom in Australia as a viable context for the implementation of TEIL.

The research findings also reveal much about the role of the teacher in EIL-izing the curriculum. It confirms the proposition made by Kumaravadivelu (2003), who suggested teachers and educators as the best evaluator and medium for change. Braine (1999) and other EIL scholars have been advocating for the recognition of the strengths of the local bilingual teacher. Although the findings in this case study support the idea of the effectiveness of a bilingual teacher, the findings refute Braine’s claim that “the advantage that native teacher have disappear[ed]” and suggest that a monolingual teacher who is aware of multiculturalism and multilingualism could also serve as an effective EIL teacher. In this case study, T4, an Irish monolingual teacher, has demonstrated how a monolingual teacher can also play an important role in educating her students about different varieties of English and intercultural communication. This suggests that it is the professionalism, ideological beliefs and the linguistic awareness that one possesses that makes one an effective EIL teacher. This study therefore supports the proposal made in McKay (2012a) on re-examining the concept of qualified teachers of English by acknowledging the value of both monolingual and bilingual teachers. This case study also demonstrates the significant role in which teachers play as “generative practitioners” (Ball, 2009), “observant scientist” and “researcher” (O'Donnell, 2013) in the process of initiating a new teaching paradigm. This suggests that the best approach to implementing TEIL is through educating teachers and educators about TEIL through teacher training and professional development training. This way, teachers may make informed decisions when choosing materials, giving lessons and implementing classroom strategies.
4.4.1 Contributions and Recommendations

This study offers a starting point for further theoretical and practical discussions in Montessori and EIL research.

For EIL research, the case study provides a real-life example of how TEIL can be realized in an elementary school setting. Much of the criticism of an EIL model suggested the lack of practicality of the discussions and this case study showcases an example of the possibility of implementing the EIL framework in practice. Most of the classroom practices documented in the case study confirms the practicality and effectiveness of the framework and strategies proposed in EIL literature. The exploration of the teaching strategies used in Montessori classrooms further enhances the empirical study of TEIL through providing practical teaching techniques for developing multilingualism and multiculturalism. This includes developing exposure to English varieties through the use of teaching materials from different countries, teaching about the origin of the English through the telling of the Story of Language, encouraging lexical innovation through studies on root words, fostering multilingualism through birthday celebrations and other classroom management strategies and initiating discussions on the politics of multiculturalism. Although the context of the case study is set in Montessori classrooms, some of the classroom practices may be easily generalized for use in any elementary school classrooms to promote EIL.

This case study contributes to Montessori research through giving voice to Montessori teachers within the academic arena, and establishing the Method as a viable and effective pedagogy towards promotion of linguistic and cultural understanding. Through presenting the voices and teaching practices of Montessori teachers in a generative inductive approach, this case study presents Montessori teachers as being in the forefront of pedagogical reform and changes. Montessori teachers in the case study demonstrated current understanding of the role that English plays in the globalized world, and their classroom practices demonstrated up-to-date ideologies and pedagogy advocated by EIL scholars. Through observing how different Montessori teachers use their professional knowledge and global awareness to EIL-ize the curriculum, it further illustrates the important role that the teacher plays in successful implementation of any curriculum, and the changes that was brought about through empowering teachers with the responsibility to make educational decisions, an important characteristic of Montessori’s philosophy of the ‘prepared environment’. This calls for the need for a more holistic and thorough investigation of the possibility of an EIL-ize Montessori program.

This study thus further suggests that Montessori schools should be more widely recognized as a model of international/global education. Brunold-Conesa (2010) observed a disproportional
imbalance of Montessori Schools in the International Schools Directory (internationalschools.com), as compared to the International Baccalaureate (IB) despite both methods being leaders in the promotion of global citizenship. Concurring with what is suggested in Brunold-Conesa (2010), this research suggests that the strengths and distinctiveness of the Montessori Method as an intercultural international curriculum is greatly undermined and Montessori schools should play a more visible presence in the arena of international/global education. The Montessori leadership communities and individual Montessori schools at a local level should more actively promote Montessori Schools as a credible and marketable program for promoting global awareness.

4.5 Limitation of Study
There are several limitations in the methodological design of the case study. Due to the cross-sectional approach used for this research, a deep analysis of each of the approaches and pedagogical assumptions was not possible. Despite the richness of data collected in the case study, the evaluations of the topics were by no means exhaustive. Each of the major themes and major areas of language teaching (Speaking, Reading, Writing and Listening) could be analyzed separately for more detailed investigation. Other possible areas of studies, as proposed in the previous sections, include the representation of Outer Circle and Expanding Circle country authors in children’s literature and the role that teachers play in implementing an EIL-ize program.

Furthermore, the analysis of the lessons, strategies and teaching materials were limited to what was being presented during the observations, rather than displaying the entire view of the Montessori curriculum as a whole. The Montessori curriculum is arguably an integrated approach to education. As discussed in chapter 3 and the Montessori Cosmic Education Hexagon in figure 4, the entirety of the Montessori curriculum presents one holistic curriculum aiming at developing the students’ comic understanding of the world; Therefore it does not serve the curriculum justice when the curriculum is being presented only as snapshots of materials, lessons and classroom interaction, as presented in this case study. This case study’s cross-sectional approach could be compared to the testing of different parts of the car (i.e. the engine, the tires, the oil tank…) to see if the car works well. However, one cannot say with confidence that the car would run without any problems without giving the car a run as an entire system. Similarly, parts of a whole has been analyzed and discussed in this case study, but one still cannot say with confidence that the two pedagogies would be entirely compatible without looking at the two methods as two complete pedagogical systems.
One of the aspects that the researcher identified as a potential mismatch between the Montessori Methods and EIL pedagogy is the concept and approach to teaching culture. While the findings seem to present a coherent viewpoint of how intercultural communication is taught and modelled, the approach to teaching culture as an overall curriculum differs between EIL and Montessori. Based on the observations and literature in Montessori, the teaching of culture begins with establishing the commonality between humans in order to build students’ identity as “citizen of the world” before being citizens of their individual cultures/ countries (Brunold-Conesa, 2008; Chattin-McNichols, 1991). This is shown through the telling of the Great Stories and the lesson on the Fundamental Human Needs. It is only after this common ground is established that the students continue onto gaining knowledge and understanding of other cultures through researching, exposure to other languages in the classroom, examining of English root words and learning from teachers and students interaction in intercultural communication. This contradicts with what is proposed in EIL empirical research, where cross cultural differences, critical and reflective analysis of culture and the strategies to address issues in intercultural negotiation are emphasized (c.f. Jackson, 2014a). In the Montessori curriculum, the teaching of intercultural communicative strategies is not part of the curriculum, although in the research findings, teachers naturally modelled and taught intercultural communication strategies in the daily classroom interactions. In other words, Montessori’s ‘cosmic education’ emphasizes on both the homogeneity of the human race and the plurality of cultures whereas TEIL seemed to focus on differences and intercultural communicative strategies. This raises the question of whether the EIL cross-cultural, critical, reflective approach or the Montessori cosmic approach would best help students build a true respect and sympathy towards cultural diversity. Due to the exploratory nature of the case-study, the research findings give little evidence to support either of the claims. This further suggests a possible area of study in future research.
5. Conclusion

The teaching methodology and ideology in the Montessori classrooms studied reflect a multilingual and multicultural understanding of the local (Australia) and global use of language and culture; thus this establishes Montessori classrooms as a viable context for the implementation of EIL pedagogy and multicultural education. This case study also presents invaluable insights towards teaching strategies, teacher’s instructions and teaching models through a bottom-up approach to inquiry. Most importantly, the case study confirms the proposition made by Kumaravadivelu (2003) through highlighting the importance of empowering teachers to make instructional decisions- if change were to happen, the best way is through a generative grass-root approach. The study serves as an evidence to respond to Wee’s (2013) question that change has already taken place, and that we don’t have to look far, but to our own classroom teachers for valuable inspiration for educational strategies and reform.
References


EXPLANATORY STATEMENT

Project: Montessori Classrooms in Australia: An English as an International Language (EIL) Perspective

Chief Investigator: Dr. Roby Marlina
School of Languages, Literatures, Cultures and Linguistics, Monash University
Phone: +61 3 9905 2123
email: Roby.Marlina@monash.edu

Student’s Name: Jennifer Darlene Leung
Phone: +61 3 9905 2123
email: jdleu1@student.monash.edu

You are invited to take part in this study. Please read this Explanatory Statement in full before deciding whether or not to participate in this research. If you would like further information regarding any aspect of this project, you are encouraged to contact the researchers via the phone numbers or email addresses listed above.

My name is Jennifer Leung and I am conducting a research project under the supervision of Dr. Roby Marlina, a lecturer in the School of Languages, Literatures, Cultures and Linguistics, towards a Master’s in Applied Linguistics at Monash University. I am a certified American Montessori Association (AMS) lower elementary (6-9 years old) teacher and have worked in a bilingual Montessori school in Beijing, China for three years.

What does the research involve?

The aim of the study is to investigate how English language is taught in Montessori classrooms in Australia. The research involves a discussion of similarities in pedagogy between the Montessori methods and English as an International Language paradigm (EIL), and analyses the Montessori methods under the lens of EIL frameworks. The research aims to investigate the following three research questions: (1) How does Dr. Maria Montessori’s theories show understanding and appreciation for multiculturalism and multilingualism that is prevalent in today’s world? (2) How do the different teaching practices in Montessori classrooms promote the teaching of EIL? (3) What are the limitations of the EIL framework when executed in a Montessori classroom and vice versa? The data collected will be used for a dissertation research project of approximately 18,000 words towards a Master’s in Applied Linguistics at Monash University.

In the process of the research, I will be observing a three-hour work cycle each day in your classroom for one week. The purpose of this is for the student researcher to obtain qualitative data on how language teaching is done in a Montessori classroom. After each observation, you will also be asked to participate in a 15 minutes interview at a time convenient for you about the purposes and aims of
your teaching. We would like to thank you in advance for the time and effort you will be putting into participating in this research.

**Why were you chosen for this research?**

Melbourne Montessori School (MMS) is one of the well-established cycle 2 and 3 (elementary years 1-6) Montessori schools in Melbourne city. MMS was chosen for this research because of its well-established history as a Montessori school in Australia, the well-recognized reputation in the Montessori community both locally and internationally, and its close affiliation with the Montessori Australia Foundation and Montessori Institute (MWEI) in Australia. After contacting Sarah-Jane Watson, the deputy principal of Melbourne Montessori School, for the opportunity to conduct observations and research within the school in the 2015 academic year, you are then invited to participate in the research as a cycle 2/3 classroom teachers in the school. MMS’s dedication to Montessori education in Australia, its child-orientated education model, and the experienced teaching staff at the school would give valuable insight to my understanding of Montessori education and language teaching.

**Consenting to participate in the project and withdrawing from the research**

Each classroom teacher participating in the research will be required to sign and return a hard-copy version of the consent form to the student researcher indicating their consensus in participating in the research prior to the start of any observations and interviews. You have the right to withdraw from the research at any stage of the research due to any reasons. Any data collected prior to your withdrawal will be properly destroyed and deleted, and will not be included in the research.

**Possible benefits and risks to participants**

The research will benefit the Montessori community locally and worldwide in the investigation of the possibility in using Montessori pedagogy in the teaching of English as an International Language. It will also inform scholars of the international and global curriculum that is already imbedded in the Montessori Method of teaching, and how the Montessori model can be applied into different linguistic contexts and cultures in the globalized world.

The potential level of inconvenience of this research is low. Classroom observations is part of the culture of Montessori classrooms and Montessori teacher-education courses and so it will not cause any inconvenience or disruption to the daily classroom routine. In the interviews, you will be asked to give further explanation to the teaching strategies used in the classroom. Both the observations and interviews are part of regular teaching practices and there are no discomfort, inconvenience or future foreseeable risk or harmful side effects anticipated with the data collection.

**Confidentiality**

To ensure confidentiality and anonymity of the data collected, any references to the school, teachers and classrooms will be addressed in pseudonyms or codes. The chief investigator and the student researcher will be the only people having access to the observation notes, photos, consent forms and interview data collected. Any voice recordings of the interview and photos of teaching materials will only be taken with your consents. The voice recordings of the interviews will be de-identified when transcribed to protect your privacy. The audio files will be destroyed after de-identified transcripts are completed. Photos of teaching materials only will be taken to better explain the teaching strategies used in the classroom. Any photos that include any details that identifies the participants and the school will not be used in the research report and will be deleted.
A report of the study may be submitted for publication, but individual participants will not be identifiable in such a report.

Storage of data

Storage of the data collected will adhere to the Monash University regulations and kept in a secure location for 5 years. All data will be destroyed when it is no longer required.

Results

The findings of the research are accessible for one year after completion of the report. If you would like to be informed of the results of the research findings, please contact Jennifer Leung at jdleu1@student.monash.edu.

Complaints

Should you have any concerns or complaints about the conduct of the project, you are welcome to contact the Executive Officer, Monash University Human Research Ethics (MUHREC):

Executive Officer
Monash University Human Research Ethics Committee (MUHREC)
Room 111, Building 3e
Research Office
Monash University VIC 3800

Tel: +61 3 9905 2052   Email: muhrec@monash.edu   Fax: +61 3 9905 3831

Thank you,

Dr. Roby Marlina
CONSENT FORM

Project: Montessori Education in Australia: An English as an International Language (EIL) Perspective

Chief Investigator: Dr. Roby Marlina  
Student Researcher: Jennifer Leung

I have been asked to take part in the Monash University research project specified above. I have read and understood the Explanatory Statement and I hereby consent to participate in this project.

I consent to the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I consent to the following:</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
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<tr>
<td>I agree to have the student researcher observe my classroom.</td>
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<td>I agree to participate in interviews.</td>
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<td>I agree to the interviews being audio-taped.</td>
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<td>I agree to allow photos be taken of my teaching materials.</td>
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<td>I am aware that the data generated may be used by the researcher for future projects.</td>
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Name of Participant

Participant Signature  
Date
Permission Letter

Project: Montessori Classrooms in Australia: An English as an International Language (EIL) Perspective

Date: ______________________

Chief Investigator: Dr. Roby Marlina
School of Languages, Literatures, Cultures and Linguistics, Monash University
Phone: +61 3 9905 2123
Email: Roby.Marlina@monash.edu

Student’s Name: Jennifer Darlene Leung
Phone: +61 3 9905 2123
Email: jdleu1@student.monash.edu

Dear Dr. Roby Marlina,

Thank you for your request to recruit participants from [name of school] for the above-named research.

I have read and understood the Explanatory Statement regarding the research project (Montessori Classroom in Australia: An English as an International Language (EIL) Perspective) and hereby give permission for this research to be conducted.

Yours sincerely.

(Vice- Principal of School)
Monash University Human Research Ethics Committee (MUHREC)
Research Office

Human Ethics Certificate of Approval

This is to certify that the project below was considered by the Monash University Human Research Ethics Committee. The Committee was satisfied that the proposal meets the requirements of the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research and has granted approval.

Project Number: CF14/3190 - 2014001735
Project Title: Montessori Education in Australia: An English as an International Language (EIL) Perspective
Chief Investigator: Dr Roby Marлина
Approved: From 6 November 2014 To: 6 November 2019

Terms of approval - Failure to comply with the terms below is in breach of your approval and the Australian Code for the Responsible Conduct of Research.

1. The Chief Investigator is responsible for ensuring that permission letters are obtained, if relevant, before any data collection can occur at the specified organisation.
2. Approval is only valid whilst you hold a position at Monash University.
3. It is the responsibility of the Chief Investigator to ensure that all investigators are aware of the terms of approval and to ensure the project is conducted as approved by MUHREC.
4. You should notify MUHREC immediately of any serious or unexpected adverse effects on participants or unforeseen events affecting the ethical acceptability of the project.
5. The Explanatory Statement must be on Monash University letterhead and the Monash University complaints clause must include your project number.
6. Amendments to the approved project (including changes in personnel): Require the submission of a Request for Amendment form to MUHREC and must not begin without written approval from MUHREC. Substantial variations may require a new application.
7. Future correspondence: Please quote the project number and project title above in any further correspondence.
8. Annual reports: Continued approval of this project is dependent on the submission of an Annual Report. This is determined by the date of your letter of approval.
9. Final report: A final report should be provided at the conclusion of the project. MUHREC should be notified if the project is discontinued before the expected date of completion.
10. Monitoring: Projects may be subject to an audit or any other form of monitoring by MUHREC at any time.
11. Retention and storage of data: The Chief Investigator is responsible for the storage and retention of original data pertaining to a project for a minimum period of five years.

Professor Nip Thompson
Chair, MUHREC

cc: Ms Jennifer Leung
Appendix 2: Sample Semi-structured Interview Questions

Teacher's Background
1. Can you tell me briefly about yourself? (Teaching experience; Time spent in Australia etc.)
2. What languages can you speak?
3. What nationality(s) or cultural background(s) do you identify yourself with?
4. Do you identify yourself with any of the following terms? A native English speaker; A bilingual English speaker; A Bilingual; A non-native speaker; fluent English speaker; or A multilingual speaker? Are there any other similar terms that you would identify yourself as?

General Classroom Questions
5. How many students are there in your classroom?
6. What does a typical day in the class look like?
7. How are the teaching materials organized on the shelves? What subject “areas” are there in the classroom?
8. Language is part of the six major areas of the cycle 2 and 3 Montessori curriculum. How important is language in your classroom? How many language lessons do you typically give in a week? How does this compare to other subject areas?

Lesson-Specific Questions
9. What was the aim or goal for this [referring to a particular small group lesson] lesson you presented?
10. How did you decide which students to invite to your lesson? What was the purpose of grouping the students in such a way?
11. Were there any modifications you have made in the way you presented the lesson from your album (teaching plan)? If so, how and why?
12. What do you want your students to understand/ be able to do by the end of the lesson?
13. How do you check for their understanding or whether or not they have reach the goal of your lesson?

Language and Culture
14. What are the linguistic backgrounds of the student in your class?
15. What are the cultural backgrounds of the students in your class?
16. What language of instruction do you use in class?
17. Have you used another language other than the language of instruction in class? If so, in what situation or circumstances? If not, why not?
18. How is the Australian culture presented in the classroom? What types of lessons have you presented or done in the classroom?
19. Are there any other cultures that is represented in the classroom? If so, why and how?
Appendix 3: The Story of Language

This is the Story of Language, as adapted in Hendron (2012):

Remember how we talked about the creation of the Earth? And how the plants came, and frog with it’s voice, and the insects, the animals and at last, when the Earth was ready for them the Humans came. Then we had another story about the Coming of Humans, the story of the men, women and children just like you and me. We talked about the gifts they brought with them and what they did.

(allow the children to remind you of what they did)

Today’s story is about something they did a very long time ago, after they had been living on Earth for a very, very long time.

From the beginning we think that Human’s must have spoken to one another, using grunts and laughter, they would give different objects names so they knew what each other wanted and they could warn people if there were dangerous animals, let people know where foods were growing and tell them about good places to shelter if they were travelling. They would want to tell others about exciting things they had see during the day and comfort the children who were scared. But they could only tell the people they met these things and as we know people have hearts to love those they hadn’t met. You can hear me now because we are close and if I wanted to speak to someone outside I could open a window and shout loudly, but what if someone comes after we have gone home, then they can’t talk to me.

In the past people had the same problems, they wanted to leave messages to warn others and tell each other good news. At first they probably used pebbles, arranging them in certain patterns to tell people things, or they drew pictures with paint. They might have looked a bit like this.

(show a picture used by people without an alphabet which tells a story through graphics)

A long time ago in Sumatra people began to make signs using a wedge shaped tool called a stylus. They pushed the tool into soft clay and it made an impression, when it baked in the sun it went hard. People used the signs they made to make books and they had whole libraries filled with this special writing called ‘cuneiform’ writing, (it means wedge shaped from the Latin ‘cuneus’). Can you imagine how excited the people who found these libraries were?
Another group of people who lived in Egypt painted beautiful signs on walls and carved them onto stone. They discovered a plant called papyrus, a reed which grows along the River Nile, that they could use to make paper and made brushes out of plants and ink from soot.

To read it you need to know what all the signs mean, the signs are called hieroglyphs (which means holy carved writing). Because you had to know what all the signs meant not everyone who saw it could read it.

During the time of the ancient Egyptians there was a group of people called the Phoenicians. The Phoenicians could travel all over the seas on boats to sell silver, jewellery, spices, silk and Tyrian Purple, a very special dye from a special shell used for making beautiful indigo clothes. They like to trade things quickly to make lots of money and so they travelled all over the area meeting new people who spoke different languages. They were very impressed by the writing of the Egyptians and thought it would be a useful way to write down all the things they bought and sold so that they could find out how much money they had made, but the writing of the Egyptians took a long time to make and not everyone could understand it, so they decided to make it simpler. They could see that the Egyptians made messages using some pictures and some signs which told you how the word sounded. The Phoenicians decided that they would draw shapes to show the sounds made when you said the word. We think that they had between twenty or twenty two signs which could make the sounds to describe all of the things they bought and sold. The signs looked like everyday objects.

Here we can see their first two signs, the first one looks like the head of an Ox and it makes the sound ‘aleph’ and the second looked like the plan of their house, it makes the sound ‘beth’.

The Ancient Greeks also liked this idea, they wanted to use it to write down things that they thought were important, they soon forgot that the symbols were supposed to look like oxen and houses, they just knew what sound they made so the letters began to look different.

These are the first two letters they used, the ‘Alpha’ and the ‘Beta’, they are the first two letters of the Alphabeta, the Greek word for the Alphabet. The Greeks used the letters to write plays and record their ideas about life.

The Romans came later and thought having an Alphabet was going to be really useful, they could write down their plans for building roads and send messages throughout Europe, to make sure that the soldiers and governors were working together. Because the Romans liked to make carve words on their favourite buildings they decided to make the letters simpler.

So, you see the signs used by the Phoenicians were used by many people and spread throughout the world. Eventually they got passed down to us. We have them now in the Sandpaper Letters. When you know the Sandpaper Letters you can write your own ideas to tell people what you are thinking. You can read messages from people you have never met who live on the other side of the world, or people from the past. We can send messages to our friends when we are on holiday or send them cards to wish them a Happy Birthday.
Even though making the alphabet happened a very long time ago, I can use it today to tell the story to you!

Reference