

**HOW UNTRAINED TEACHERS DEVELOP THEIR TEACHING SKILLS AND
PERCEIVE THEMSELVES AS SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHERS –
A CASE STUDY IN MALAYSIA**

Thesis submitted for the degree of
Doctor of Education
at the University of Leicester

by

Rosaline Eu
Department of Education
University of Leicester

October 2011

DECLARATION

This thesis is my own work and no part of it has been submitted for a degree at this, or any other university.

Rosaline Eu

Rosaline Eu

Abstract

This thesis investigates how teachers who are non-native English speakers and who do not have the necessary qualifications for the Teaching of English as a Second Language manage with their work at a private language centre in Malaysia. The three research questions that helped guide the study are: (1) What strategies do such teachers adopt when planning their lessons? (2) How do institutional support mechanisms, both formal and informal, enable their work, and (3) How do they construct their professional identity?

As the aim was to explore how the teachers learn to teach English as a Second Language (ESL) in the absence of a traditional teaching qualification, the study focused on an alternative pathway through a socio-cultural approach to enable teachers to gain pedagogical knowledge as they build their professional identity in the process.

The aims of the study and the research questions meant that its design necessitated a qualitative approach within an interpretivist paradigm. Data were collected through face-to-face interviews, classroom observations and documentary analysis with seventeen teachers at the language centre. In this case study approach, the teachers were the individual cases. The data were analysed using inductive analysis to form themes. The findings concluded that the nurturing school environment and culture supported teachers' learning and knowledge construction which stemmed from the leadership and management policies that were grounded in educational research and values.

The study offers a set of facilitative conditions for the development of untrained teachers which emanated from the teachers' perspectives about their experiences and their decision-making as they progressed from the novice stage to being competent teachers in adopting lesson planning strategies. The critical role of the institutional culture and continuing professional support system is highlighted in enabling them to develop their teaching skills and thus, the development of their sense of teacher identity.

Acknowledgements

I would first like to give thanks to God for enabling me in this journey, a journey that has been filled with many lessons learnt.

It is with a deep sense of gratitude that I acknowledge all the supervisors who have offered me advice along the way. I am indebted to my supervisor, Dr Chris Comber for guiding me along this educational journey. I would also like to thank Professor Clive Dimmock for his teaching and tutorials during the study schools in Singapore, and to Professor Bernard Barker who was my tutor in the earlier stages of my study.

I would also like to thank the Director of Studies, Datin Valerie Mashman for her encouragement, support and consent in allowing me to use the centre as the context for this study. My sincere thanks go to all the teachers at the language centre who consented to participate in the research and offered a rich tapestry of data. Many thanks also go to Ms Betty Wong and Ms Loh Kim Foong who helped proof read and offered helpful comments on an earlier version of this thesis.

Finally, the support and understanding from my family members have made this journey possible at this stage in my life. To my dearest husband, Dr Joo Kiong Lim, thank you for your love, support and understanding that have helped me arrive at this point. To my three beautiful children, Tim, Faye and Edward, thank you for giving me the peace of mind to study once again. And finally, the love for education that my loving parents Mr & Mrs H. C. Eu instilled in me will always be appreciated.

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Chapter One

Introduction

The issues in context

1.0 Introduction

This thesis is about how a change in a language policy at the national level has affected the educational landscape in Malaysia. It sets out to find how this change has impacted the learning of English as a Second Language (ESL) in Malaysia. More specifically, it focuses on how teachers, who do not have qualifications in Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL) manage their work in a private language centre in Malaysia. In order to study this issue in-depth, the nature of the research problem must first be understood.

1.1 The Research Problem

During the British colonial period in the early part of the 1900s, the English language was the official language of the British administration and trade in what was then Malaya and in the territories of Sarawak and Sabah. An education in the English-medium schools, many of them founded by Christian missionaries, was preferred over vernacular-medium schools (such as Chinese, Malay or Tamil schools), as proficiency in the English language was crucial in gaining employment and further career development as well as providing upward social mobility.

With the birth of a new nation Malaysia in 1963, various efforts were made to establish a national system of education. English lost its position both as the language of administration and education (Benson, 1990, quoted in Subramaniam, 2007). In the process of forging a new nationhood identity, the Language Act of 1967 relegated English as the official language to a second language after Bahasa Melayu, the national language. Nonetheless, Asmah (1982) claims that English was still extensively used by the government and other institutions nationwide. From 1970 onwards, English was phased out in stages as a medium of instruction in all national schools. This policy was a result of a political will to drive towards racial harmony (Ministry of Education, Malaysia, 2001). The thrust of the new education policy was the creation and establishment of a new and common identity which the multilingual and multicultural communities could identify with.

Today, English is a compulsory second language in all national primary and secondary schools. Students start learning English formally as a second language in Primary One

(age 7). In spite of a perception of the general decline in the quality of the teaching and learning of the language, English still remains important as a language of business, especially as the private sector responds to the age of globalisation and the Internet.

In tertiary education, the lack of academic resource materials in Bahasa Melayu led to the retention of English as a crucial language for research. Following the Asian financial crisis of 1997, foreign universities were given permission to start branch campuses in a bid to reverse the outflow of capital. Currently, there are five such branch campuses, Nottingham Malaysia and Monash Malaysia near Kuala Lumpur, Newcastle University Medicine Malaysia in Johor, Swinburne University of Technology in Kuching and Curtin University of Technology in Miri. In addition, there are also hundreds of private institutions of higher learning such as colleges and university colleges being set up. Hence, the demand for learning English has increased significantly as the medium of instruction in these tertiary institutions is English.

Reports in the national press indicate that there are concerns that the standard of English taught in national schools are perceived by parents to be lacking in rigour (for example The Star Education, 27 April, 2005). Prospective employers have lamented the lack of proficiency in English in fresh graduates from the local public universities, rendering them unemployable (The Star Education, 9 May, 2004). The Malaysian education system is very exam-oriented, and the drive to get excellent results in public examinations (at ages 12, 15, 17 and 19) is the overriding concern for most parents. Furthermore, for many Malaysian children, it is the first foreign language learnt after their mother tongue, which may be Mandarin, Malay, Tamil or other indigenous dialects.

In response to these concerns, parents are investing time and money in sending their children for tuition at private language centres or tuition schools to improve their English language proficiency. Consequently, there has been a huge increase in demand for English language classes, and in turn, more teachers have been recruited to teach them. In Malaysia, the relevant English Language Teaching (ELT) qualification is a Bachelor of Teaching of English as a Second Language (B TESL), or a Bachelor of Applied Linguistics, although a Certificate or a Diploma in TESL are also generally considered acceptable qualifications.

However, many of those recruited to teach in these language centres do not have any of these specific qualifications (although they may have a general teaching qualification or other non-teaching qualifications and work experience), as the demand has greatly exceeded the supply. Yet, research (Bailey, 2001:609) shows that 'effective language learning depends to a large extent on appropriate teaching'. This situation then creates a dilemma in which non-native English speaker teachers (NNEST) are teaching ESL without having the relevant qualifications. In Malaysia, such non-qualified teachers only need to be registered with the Education Department (Private Sector)

and of course undergo a successful interview which includes an in-house language test with the private institution.

In the context under study, a private language centre offering English tuition classes for over 1600 students from ages 6 to 18+, there are about 53% (17 out of 32 teachers) who do not have any formal teaching qualifications, and 22% (7 out of 32) who have a general teaching qualification and only 25% (8 out of 32) have a relevant teaching qualification in TESL.

1.2 Statement of research purpose and research questions

The aim of this thesis is make a theoretical contribution firstly, as to how teachers without formal teaching qualifications manage their teaching duties, with a specific focus on non-qualified teachers of English in a Malaysian language centre. Secondly, the effectiveness of the institutional support system, both formal and informal, is investigated. Thirdly, it aims to investigate how the teachers construct their professional identity.

The discussion for the first research purpose focuses on the pre-lesson planning stage. More specifically, it investigates what planning strategies the teachers adopt, where they get their planning resources from and how they use [them](#). This is followed by a classroom observation of how the actual lesson went and finally, how the teachers reflect on the effectiveness of the lesson plan after it had been carried out. Secondly, it aims to investigate how effective they find the in-house Continuing Professional Development (CPD) programmes in helping them in their work. Are they able to gain pedagogical knowledge by participating in the CPD programmes? Thirdly, how do the teachers perceive themselves as teachers? Have their feelings regarding being a teacher changed since they forged a career in teaching?

The study explores these issues through participant perceptions of their experiences based on the perspectives of the teachers themselves. It adopts a qualitative research methodology.

1.2.1 The research question

This thesis seeks to answer the overarching Research Question (RQ) which is:

How do teachers who are non-native English speakers and who do not have relevant teaching qualifications for the teaching of English as a Second Language at a private language centre in Malaysia, develop their teaching skills and perceive themselves as teachers?

The three Specific Research Questions (SRQs) which are used to help guide the research are grouped into three sections to provide a framework:

1. Curriculum development and lesson planning strategies

SRQ 1 What strategies do such teachers adopt when planning their lessons?

2. Effectiveness of Continuing Professional Development programmes

SRQ 2 How do institutional support mechanisms, both formal and informal, enable their work?

3. Development of Teacher identity

SRQ 3 How do they construct their professional identity?

1.3 Locating the context of the study

In this section, the global, national and institutional context of ELT and more specifically TESL is presented.

1.3.1 The global context

Globally, the demand for English language and English language education has increased with economic globalisation. It is the language of business, technology, science, the Internet, popular entertainment and sports (Nunan, 2001 in Duff and Bailey, 2001). In academic contexts, Swales (1987) estimates that over 50% of the millions of academic papers published each year are written in English and the percentage is increasing yearly.

Crystal (1997) reported that there were now more non-native speakers of the language than native speakers. Now universally accepted as an international language and a *lingua franca*, 'English is now spoken by almost 20 per cent of the world's population' (Sweeny, 2006:4). Graddol (1997) asserts that there is a shift away from the native-speaker model as the target, towards an aim for what is comprehensible. This means that learners' English is marked by national identity in terms of accent and native-speakers of the English language need to develop the ability to negotiate understanding with another non-native speaker.

Graddol (1997:10) goes on to say that 'there are three kinds of English speaker: those who speak it as a first language (L1), those for whom it is a second or additional language (L2), and those who learn it as a foreign language (EFL), and it will be those who speak English as a second or foreign language who will determine its future'.

Sweeney (2006) notes that the internationalisation of English means that it is no longer territorially bound, but has become another tool of communication, and together with the rise of the Internet, has become half of the twin engine force that was driving contemporary globalisation. In an increasingly borderless world, globalisation is a phenomenon dominated by multinational corporations. Neoliberalisation and privatisations, free (but not necessarily fair) trade, access to developing markets, acquisition of natural resources in developing countries and the liberalisation of financial and telecommunications sectors are areas where the US and UK have significant advantages. New world economic giants such as China and India are in this race for globalisation. Hence, the status of English as the language of contemporary globalisation is beyond dispute and it is impossible to disassociate the ELT industry from it.

The response to this demand by governments around the world has been to introduce English as a compulsory subject at a young age, often without adequate funding, teacher education or the provision of appropriate resources. In business, industry and government, workers are increasingly expected to develop proficiency in English. This has created many challenges as well as opportunities for TESL educators internationally (Nunan, 2001 in Duff and Bailey, 2001).

Concomitant with the global expansion of English as the language of international communication is another expansion that is taking place in the teaching and learning of English as a second or foreign language. With the growing need felt by millions of people, there will never be enough professional teachers of English who are native speakers to meet the demand the world over. In fact, native speakers will inevitably be in the minority as teachers. Hence the question is whether a professional teacher of English who is non-native speaking is in a disadvantaged position compared to the native speaker. On the other hand, could the former have some advantages over the latter?

NNEST, having being second or foreign language learners of English themselves, have better insights into the language learning process. According to Medgyes, (1992), these teachers have the ability to share effective learning strategies, anticipate language difficulties, and empathise with the learners' needs and problems.

1.3.2 The East Asian context with special reference to the national context

The term East Asia is used to refer to the 16 countries or education systems of Brunei Darussalam, Cambodia, P.R. China, Hong Kong SAR, Japan, Indonesia, South Korea, Lao PDR, Malaysia, Mongolia, Myanmar, Philippines, Singapore, Taiwan, Thailand and Vietnam. Kachru (1996) observed that the impact of globalisation and the changes of power and wealth are already having their effect felt in the education system and teaching of English in these countries. Although each country had its own special

reasons for teaching English in the early days, the language grew for pragmatic reasons. There is therefore, great interest in learning English in the region and the percentage of the population of English users in some of these countries is estimated to be high.

Different countries have taken different positions towards the relationship between English and their respective mother tongue. In Singapore and the Philippines, English is the predominant language for education and trade due to the colonial legacy left behind by the British and the Americans respectively. The status of English would be regarded as a second language in some countries and as a foreign language in others. In Indonesia, Hong Kong and Brunei Darussalam, English is the second language (ESL), while it is a foreign language (EFL) in the other countries such as Cambodia, Vietnam, Thailand, P.R. China, Japan and South Korea.

In Malaysia, English is a second language, and is taught as a subject in the national school curriculum. The New Education Policy of 1971 and the Education Act of 1996 have reaffirmed English as the second most important language. The time allocated in the school timetable for teaching the English language was streamlined and standardised according to the type of school as follows:

Primary Schools

National Primary school (Malay medium)		National-type Primary school (Chinese/Tamil medium)	
Standard 1 to 3	240 minutes per week	Standard 1	none
		Standard 2 to 3	60 minutes per week
Standard 4 to 6	210 minutes per week	Standard 4 to 6	90 minutes per week

(Source: Ministry of Education, Directive 7/1994)

Secondary Schools

Form One to Form Five (all in Malay medium)	200 minutes per week (5x40 minute lessons)
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(Source: Ministry of Education, Directive 7/1994)

Table 1.0 Time allocated for English lessons in Malaysian national schools

Due to the constraints in time allocated to teach the subject in the national schools, there is a burgeoning demand in the private sector to cater for the higher expectations

of parents who want their children to have extended contact hours for language enrichment. The demand for English at all levels is growing, and private language schools are mushrooming to offer English to an increasing demand, in tandem with the advent of IT, the Internet and the booming e-economy market. In the context under study, the students spend between 240 to 360 minutes per week learning English in addition to what they get in their national schools.

1.3.3 The institutional context

The institution under study is a private language centre in Malaysia which is modelled after the British Council language schools. The centre provides English language tuition to students aged 6 to 18+, currently with a student enrolment of around 1800. The students attend classes at the centre after school hours. They have the option to enrol in a 4 hour class or a 6 hour class per week. The curriculum is streamed to cater for students based on their learning needs and language proficiency. There is a basic stream which uses an EFL curriculum to cater for students who need a basic programme to enable them to learn the language systematically and be confident users. The other advanced stream uses the UK National Curriculum to provide enrichment studies for those who are fluent users of the language.

The centre is headed by a Director of Studies who is a native speaker of English and assisted by an Academic Advisor who is a non-native but fluent English speaker, and English is her main language of communication and interaction. The teaching staff comprises 32 teachers, of which only 2 are native speakers. 53% (17 out of 32) of the teachers do not have any relevant TESL qualifications of any kind, whereas 22% (7 out of 32) have a general teaching certificate and 25% (8 out of 32) have a relevant TESL teaching qualification which could be a Cert TESOL (Certificate in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages), B TESL or MA TESOL.

This creates a situation in which just over half of the teachers are doing a job where they have no pre-service training or relevant qualifications. The focus of this thesis then is about how these unqualified TESL teachers manage with a complex process involving the use of the curriculum in planning their teaching strategies, the impact and effectiveness of the CPD on their work, and how they perceive themselves as teachers. All these are normal issues facing teachers with qualifications. However, it could be anticipated that a lack of qualification would result in greater challenges; otherwise this would undermine the whole point of formal teacher training programmes. It is also worthwhile mentioning here that while the presence or absence of qualifications may influence student learning, as well as the quality of teaching, it is the latter which is the focus of the thesis.

The working premise underpinning the research arises from my roles as a colleague and Academic Advisor at the language centre. Formal and informal observations as

well as discussions with some of them seem to indicate that a lack of relevant qualification may not automatically be a barrier to effective teaching. Instead, with their varied past working experiences, they may turn what might be perceived as shortcomings into strengths.

This fuels my interest to explore these issues in greater depth via a research study, since this seems puzzling – without TESL qualifications, one would expect these teachers to face challenges, especially in their first year of teaching, so how do they cope? Thus, this is the seed that is planted in the study, revealing the growth of an alternative professional journey these teachers undergo to enable them to develop their teaching skills.

In the institution under study, an in-house CPD programme delivered via the use of teacher training workshops is held on a monthly basis to enable all the teachers to come together for training. In addition, teacher support groups (known as curriculum groups), classroom observations, the analysing of critical incidents and peer coaching also take place within the school throughout the whole academic year. Besides these, there are professional development opportunities for staff (both qualified and unqualified) beyond this programme. Support for attending external training such as the annual MELTA (Malaysian English Language Teaching Association) conference is also given in the form of paid leave and financial sponsorship for travel expenses and conference fees.

Finally, it must be mentioned that it is not the intention of the present study to compare non-qualified teachers with qualified teachers, or to question how ‘good’ they are as teachers, but rather, it concerns the process of managing teaching, developing pedagogical skills, and developing an identity as a teacher, in the absence of a formal TESL qualification route.

1.4 Significance and Rationale of the Study

This research addresses the phenomenon of how teachers who are non-native English speakers with no teaching background or relevant TESL teaching qualifications manage to do a job that is normally carried out by teachers who have undergone the traditional formal route of pre-service teacher training. It focuses on the alternative way in which teachers ‘learn on-the-job’. This is an important area of research globally as well as regionally because the problem seeks to address a burgeoning growth in ELT and the need to meet the supply and demand of the ELT enterprise. As indicated earlier in the context, trained teachers who are native English speakers are a minority, and the need to train teachers who are non-native English speakers to meet this demand in Asia is urgent and necessary.

This thesis is solely based on an institutional case study. However, the rationale for conducting this study takes into consideration the national and international contexts as the desire to understand and therefore improve conditions or provisions for non-qualified TESL teachers can be of relevance to the wider context beyond the institution under study. These issues are considered more fully in Chapters Four and Five.

A trawl of the literature has indicated that few, if any, studies have looked at how untrained ESL teachers engage in pre-lesson planning, lesson execution and post-lesson reflections. Most previous research has focused on pre-service teachers undergoing the traditional academic pathway model whereby their practicum is the time when the theory is put into practice (see Kuzmic, 1994; Sandholtz, 2001; Farrell, 2008.) There is also very little literature on how untrained ESL teachers construct their professional identity after undergoing a career change.

Because these teachers have entered the profession from a previous career mainly unrelated to teaching, the importance of institutional support cannot be underestimated. There is however, a dearth of literature on how these untrained teachers manage their teaching in the private sector in Malaysia, their sense of professional identity, and what these private institutions provide in terms of professional support. The increased number of students taking up extra English tuition in the private sector warrants a detailed study to make the enterprise of ELT more professional.

The findings of this study intend to fill this gap to help educational institutions and leaders provide an effective, alternative model for teacher learning, taking into account the teachers' previous academic and professional skills and background, as well as provide additional training and opportunities to enable them to transfer these skills and knowledge to their teaching jobs.

1.5 Assumptions made in the study and researcher positioning in respect of the research

The assumption made in this study is that teachers without the necessary TESL qualifications are not necessarily struggling in their work, as classroom teaching is a dynamic process and contingent on a myriad of factors such as the individual's personality, charisma, people skills and diligence, among others. Other external or contextual factors such as school culture and the existing support system also play an important role.

I am interested to study how these teachers use the curriculum to plan and carry out their lessons, how they construct their sense of professional identity, and how they perceive the effectiveness of the institutional CPD in enabling them in their work. For example, do they see themselves as a 'real' teacher, or 'just a tuition teacher?' Or have

they experienced any critical moments and life changing decisions in finally finding their niche in life?

1.6 The outline of the thesis

This thesis is structured into six chapters. Chapter 1 is the Introduction which states the research problem, a statement of the research purpose, the overarching research question and the three specific research questions. This is followed by an explanation of the context of the study, the significance and rationale of the study. It ends with a clarification of the assumptions made in the study and the researcher positioning within the study.

Chapter 2 uses the three specific research questions as a framework to draw up a trawl of the relevant literature. This will be discussed critically to offer a point and counter point exposition to help inform the study and to develop a conceptual framework.

Chapter 3 discusses the Research Methodology underpinning the study and justifies the research paradigm adopted and the case study approach.

Chapter 4 reports on the Findings for each specific research question.

Chapter 5 is the Discussion of the findings from each research question with regards to previous literature and builds on existing literature by focusing on the teachers' perceptions and experiences in their work context in Malaysia which have not been previously studied.

Chapter 6 is the Summary of the findings to the research question and specific research questions, its Implications and the Conclusion with recommendations for future research.

Chapter Two

Literature Review

2.0 Introduction

This literature review chapter aims to establish a context for the current study and its contribution to the current research literature. This will be achieved by placing in perspective some of the key research findings from previous research relating to the research areas of the present study, in particular, relevant perspectives of how teachers learn, with particular reference to untrained ESL teachers in general and in Malaysia, in particular.

The chapter is organised so as to relate to the research questions. It begins with an introduction on how teachers gain pedagogical knowledge through the traditional cognitivist approach via a degree pathway. This is then compared to how untrained teachers developed their teaching skills through an alternative pathway via the socio-cultural approach. Hence, a review of these two approaches is presented in Section 2.1. A short discussion of the training of teachers of English in Malaysia is also included here as it follows the former approach. It ends with the Vygotskian view (1978) on how knowledge is internalised, transformed and mediated by others initially, and later, how it becomes self regulated. This overall introduction sets the scene leading to the next section on how teachers do their lesson planning.

Section 2.2 has its focus on curriculum and lesson planning strategies. It explores different approaches to teaching classroom curriculum, with particular reference to the different planning strategies in which teachers engage. This is then followed by a discussion of the Dreyfus and Dreyfus (1986) model of skill acquisition. This is specifically related to the first specific research question.

There is a huge corpus of work on pre and in-service teacher training using various models of professional development programmes in many parts of the world, focussing on teaching strategies and identity development. However, there is little that has been conducted in the context of providing a model of professional development for untrained ESL teachers. This study aims to help fill that gap by exploring how a group of non-native English speaker teachers who did not have formal TESL qualifications shared learning among themselves and developed their professional identity. The aim is to investigate how this model of teacher inquiry provides opportunities for such teacher learners to discuss topics and raise issues collaboratively, and to develop a much needed practical model of English language teacher learning in Asian countries such as Malaysia.

Sections 2.3 and 2.4 relate to the second specific research question and look at different approaches to continuing professional development - the delivery model, where learning is done through transmissive approaches is compared to the systemic model where learning is viewed as practice. Section 2.3 looks specifically at theories of research related to the effectiveness of CPD models in helping these untrained teachers build up their repertoire of knowledge and skills to enable them to be competent teachers. Five approaches using workshops, teacher support groups, classroom observations, analysing critical incidents and peer coaching to facilitate professional development in language teaching and which are particularly relevant this study are discussed here.

Section 2.4 concentrates on research models of knowledge transfer related to how teachers use their prior knowledge and skills and apply this tacit knowledge to their current job. It examines the place of personal practical knowledge in teacher thinking and reflective practice.

Finally, Section 2.5 focuses on answering the third specific research question by exploring the teachers' sense of professional identity through the learning process.

The chapter concludes by refining the understanding and the importance of the research questions and its relevance to the study.

2.1 How teachers gain pedagogical knowledge

How teachers gain knowledge is the common theme of the research questions and is therefore, central to this research. Teacher education – a key component in this process of knowledge acquisition - is an overarching term which comprises initial teacher training and continuing teacher development. The teacher training process is typically a pre-service programme and involves a period of study at a university or teachers' training college through an institutionally determined course structure involving academic lectures and assignments. The final outcomes of the training would be evaluated through academic work such as examinations, assignments and a successful teaching practicum.

On the other hand, Rahimi (2008) stated that the focus on teacher development is generally about continuing teacher education, and it takes into account teachers' personal experiences and background knowledge. In contrast to the teacher training process, the final outcome is usually evaluated through self-assessment techniques such as reflective thinking. Freeman (2002:76) pointed out that typical teacher development includes 'teacher study groups, practitioner research or self-development activities'. In this context, ELT training refers to the policies and procedures designed to equip prospective teachers with the knowledge, attitudes, behaviours and skills to teach English effectively in the classroom.

In countries such as the UK, the US, Australia, Singapore and Malaysia, the training of teachers has traditionally been through a few established traditional pathways. In the consecutive model, an individual first obtains a university degree, and then studies for a further period to gain an additional qualification in teaching such as the Post Graduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) or the Diploma in Education (Dip Ed). In the concurrent model, the individual studies the academic subject and the ways of teaching that subject, leading to a qualification as a teacher of that subject, such as Bachelor of Science (Education). These models represent the traditional organisational approaches towards teacher training.

2.1.1 The traditional language teacher training pathway – the cognitive pedagogical approach

Traditionally, teacher training is defined as ‘learning about teaching’, and is presented to trainee teachers through a programme on content knowledge and pedagogy. It is ‘characterised by a strong emphasis on theory that is transferred to teachers in the form of lectures’ (Ben-Peretz, 1995, cited in Korthagen, Loughran and Russell, 2006:1021). For both the consecutive and the concurrent models, this takes place in the university or teacher training colleges and the only bridge to practice comes ‘in observing teachers and in practising classroom teaching’ (Freeman, 2002:73). This cognitive approach to teacher education, or what Cochran-Smith and Lytle (1999) called knowledge-of-practice is being challenged for its many limitations. In the context of this literature review, three of the main limitations will now be discussed.

Firstly, Singh and Richards (2006), a learner and educator team, having been in the field of teacher training (the former as a learner, and the latter as an educator of more than three decades), bring a balanced perspective of their experiences in teacher development based in-situ. They assert that ‘in most areas of language teacher education (LTE), the people who work as university lecturers see themselves primarily as subject matter specialists and may not have any formal study or qualification in pedagogy, even less so in the field of adult or teacher education’(Singh and Richards, 2006:2). This is not an ideal situation and may be a common occurrence in Malaysia or Singapore, but, in many countries such as the UK, the US and Australia, teacher educators are almost always ex-teachers or headteachers.

From this perspective, the traditional language teacher training pathway means that a language teacher studying for a degree such as B TESL can be trained through attending a training programme for three or four years, after which a period of teaching practicum which may last for around ten weeks ensues. Therefore, knowledge, skills, input and competency are the essence of ‘what’ teacher training programmes provide trainee teachers with during the training period after which he or she is deemed competent to teach.

This knowledge-transmission view towards teacher training has not been without its criticism for its many problems and limitations. Even after years of studying through attending lectures and doing assignments, the knowledge base of university-based teacher training is still rather inadequate to fill the gap between 'theory' as it is treated in teacher training programmes and the reality of teaching in the classroom. As such, the experience in the ivory tower is far removed from the actuality in the field. Despite this, university-based teaching is still the predominant approach to initial teacher training in many other countries. This brings us to the next point.

Secondly, the *reality shock* experienced by new graduate teachers as they step into the classrooms and the problems they face in their early teaching days (Veenman, 1984, cited in Korthagen, Loughran and Russell, 2006:1021) further concluded that the transfer from theory presented during the lectures into the actual teaching experience is often minimal. That is to say, no amount of head knowledge can ever prepare a teacher adequately for the real challenges in a typical classroom.

Thirdly, Singh and Richards (2006:151) have cited findings of research by Roberts (1998) and Lamb (1995) which found that 'LTE courses tend to be ineffective in changing teachers' classroom practices as they have ignored how human learning is emergent through social interactions, and where context and identity play crucial mediating roles'. This is especially so as teaching is such a dynamic activity, which is constantly in a state of flux with a myriad of variables that can make or break a lesson.

In the light of these findings, the cognitivist model has been exposed for its inadequacies in understanding the multiple aspects of teacher learning. Kelly (2006), in his study advocating teacher learning via a socio-cultural perspective pointed out that cognitivism has omitted Schön's (1983, 1987) perspective of knowledge-in-practice as well as the part played by tacit knowledge as espoused by Sternberg and Hovarth (1999). Neither is the fact that the process of knowing is distributed (Pea, 1993), or shared across people and settings (Lave, 1991). This is a serious omission as the part played by tacit knowledge in the overall build up of teachers' knowledge cannot be underestimated.

Kelly (2006) continues that, in addition, cognitivism is based on the assumption that a process of transfer takes place - knowledge acquired during formal lectures is readily transferred to the realities of the classroom. However, it is argued that the realities of the classroom are far from being predictable, and research reviewed by Desforges (1995) has contradicted this assumption that knowledge is readily transferred, in line with Veenman's (1984, cited in Korthagen, Loughran and Russell, 2006:1021) similar claims. The fact that knowledge generation is a dynamic process moving from the periphery to full participation as teachers turn from novices to experts (Lave and Wenger, 1991), and the place curriculum resources such as textbooks or e-resources have in the journey of teacher education suggest a different viewpoint from

cognitivism. This will be discussed in greater detail in a later section. Finally, as cognitivism is mainly about gaining knowledge through delivery and transfer models, it has not viewed how teachers build their identities in the social setting they work in (Wenger, 1998; Woods and Jeffrey, 2002).

These four aspects of the deficits in the cognitivist model of teacher training which represent a subject-based/lecture style model of teacher training will be counter proposed by a constructivist view that has emerged in the past 15 years or so in a later section. This would include reflective practice such as reflection-on-action, and reflection-in-action as suggested by Schön (1983, 1987). But first, a brief discussion of the training of teachers of English in Malaysia is presented here.

2.1.2 The training of teachers of English in Malaysia

In Malaysia, pre-service teacher training is conducted by the local public universities and traditionally follows the cognitivist model. Johari (2006) in her paper on the Malaysian ESL classroom reported that the training programmes for teachers of English are conducted by the Ministry of Education, with the Teacher Education Division having the responsibility to train both the pre-service and in-service teachers.

In line with the implementation of the new KBSR (Kurrikulum Baru Sekolah Rendah) English curriculum in 1983 (Kementerian Pelajaran Malaysia, 1983), in-service courses were provided for teachers to orient them to the new curriculum. The learning strategy included group teaching for students of same ability or mixed ability groups, class teaching and individual instructions, that is, pupil-centred teaching. However, Johari, (2006:101) reported that

‘observations carried out by the Committee for the Planning and Coordination of the English language programme in schools throughout the country in 2000 revealed that very little group activity was being carried out, insufficient attention was paid to the teaching of listening skills, and there was not much evidence of wider reading. In addition, the teaching of writing skills lacked the extended expression of ideas. Teaching and learning materials or aids which had been produced by the Ministry of Education State Education Departments and local universities had not been adequately utilised by the English teachers’.

A prominent Malaysian language academician, Gaudart (1994: 85) observes that ‘while advocating pupil-centred teaching, many teacher education classes are more inclined to be teacher-centred. Our teacher preparation programmes forces them into a mould which we have created for them’. This observation has revealed that the actual teaching in the classrooms has completely failed to achieve the original goals of the KBSR curriculum, which itself remains an empty rhetoric.

This has led to a decline in the proficiency in the English language in the government school system. As the demand for private tuition increases (see The Star Education, 20 February, 2011) due to a perceived decline in the quality of teaching in national schools, a whole industry has sprouted in the private sector to cater for the concerns of parents who want to give their children a competitive edge. Hence, the need to train ESL teachers or retrain graduates whose first degree is not TESL through an alternative pathway is urgent as the demand for ESL teachers has outstripped the supply.

In the following section, a different teacher education model to that discussed above is considered. This is of particular relevance to the central premise of the study which is to explore alternative pathways to professional development for teachers who did not go through the traditional training route.

2.1.3 An alternative pathway to teacher education- a constructivist perspective

As mentioned earlier, an alternative pathway to teacher education was proposed by a new wave of thinking due to the many deficiencies in the cognitive approach. This approach is characteristic of many modern teacher education programmes in the UK for at least a decade. Drawing on research-presented evidence, educators such as ten Dam and Bloom (2006), Korthagen, Loughran and Russell (2006) have redefined professional knowledge and the relationship between theory and practice within the context of teacher education. This alternative viewpoint warrants a paradigm change in perspectives to overcome the entrenched system.

The cognitive learning theory perspective has many deficiencies which see learning as the acquisition of knowledge and cognitive skills removed from the pragmatics in the classroom. In contrast, the socio-cultural perspective focuses on the process of becoming a member of the teaching community. This socio-cultural perspective which is based on the situated and social nature of learning, (Lave and Wenger, 1991) is a recent useful alternative perspective. Learning to teach, according to this view, is a constructive and socially and culturally situated process. As Britzman (2003) asserted, learning to teach does not follow a linear process, an apt description as the dynamic nature of teaching and learning in the classroom is anything but linear, given the state of flux a classroom can be in at any given time.

In addition, ten Dam and Bloom (2006:651) stated that 'becoming a teacher means developing a professional identity' and this involves the development of a personal belief of how one regards oneself as a teacher. This is an important aspect of being a teacher as they have noted that there is a 'growing group of unqualified teachers who have worked for a long time in education before they even start their training and are still considered outsiders'. This point is particularly relevant given the context of this study.

In order to resolve this feeling of being an outsider, Wardekker (2004, cited in ten Dam and Bloom, 2006:651) argued for a 'secondary apprenticeship system' whereby teachers function in a 'community of inquiry' where there is a balance of participation and critical reflection. It can be argued that the teachers form their identity through interacting with their surroundings, generating knowledge which is distributed among all participants. This should occur in such a way that a teacher can contribute, exchange, co-operate and collaborate within the situation, thereby enriching the learning opportunities of those in that situation. A more detailed discussion on teacher identity will be presented in a later section.

This participation in a community of learners contributes to their personal and professional identities, thereby taking ownership of their own role in relation to that of others and to the context of the school. The school culture thus plays an important role of such a professional learning community (Hord, 1997). It is viewed as having a rich life which unfolds over time as events and processes interact and shape the way participants think, feel and act. It encourages teachers' learning through their peers by a collaboration based on shared goals and values. In such a community, teachers can share their individual practices with the aim of sharing good practice based on the outcome of collective inquiry, hence reducing professional isolation.

The premise for this literature review then is to explore the validity of an alternative approach to make the overall teacher education more developmentally-oriented. In this context, the Vygotskian socio-cultural theory (SCT) (Vygotsky, 1978, Wertsch, 1985) is a useful theoretical lens through which teacher learning can be understood. It is argued that a socio-cultural perspective on teacher learning is relevant by using the key constructs of the theory such as internalisation and transformation, the zone of proximal development (ZPD) and mediation to help understand teacher learning. Hence, advocacy is made for the socio-cultural perspective with regard to teacher learning. This will be reviewed in the following sections.

2.1.4 The socio-cultural perspective on teacher learning

Smagorinsky (1995) posited that socio-cultural theories provide a particularly useful framework for studying teacher learning as they focus on the social nature of teaching and learning activities with the individual and the social context interacting together. Lantolf (2000) argued that the human mind is mediated by socially constructed symbolic artefacts, including language. The perspective that thinking and memory originate in and are fundamentally shaped by the social activities in which we participate was built on work done by Flavell, Miller and Miller (1993), who saw professional knowledge as being constructed by each individual teacher through interactions with other teachers.

In the context of teachers' work, this means the juxtaposing of multitasking activities to help shape the teachers' thinking which form the basis of their reasoning. Hall (2000) in his study of language classrooms, saw teacher learning as thinking about what they and others were doing, thereby laying the foundation for the development of more complex and creative activities. This means that teacher learning is contingent on the social context in which it takes place.

Schön (1983, 1987) provided an alternative view that considers professional knowledge to be knowledge-in-practice. Cochran-Smith and Lytle (1999) likened it as being 'in action', which is similar to craft knowledge. Hence, teachers need to be engaged in knowledge making, reflect upon it, question and seek more meaningful forms of knowledge. Cochran-Smith and Lytle (1999) went further to conceptualise knowledge as knowledge-of-practice, whereby teacher learning was viewed as being embedded with a particular context or construct and viewed teachers as generators of knowledge.

In addition, Schön (1983, 1987) also proposed a process of reflection-in-practice whereby professionals draw on both their knowledge-in-practice and knowledge-of-practice; encompassing what Sternberg and Horvath (1999, cited in Kelly, 2006) called *tacit knowledge* - knowledge which is grounded and created in professional activity by practitioners in their workplace. This view is particularly appealing in the context of the present study where a group of untrained teachers are expected to teach in order to learn about teaching. This is what Schön (1987) referred to as the paradox of learning. This then begs the question how then, does such a teacher learn.

In the socio-cultural view, the constant iterative engagement of beginning teachers in constructing and reconstructing their own knowledge base through collaborative problem solving, enquiries and dialogues to address problems allows creativity and innovation to surface (Dunscombe and Armour, 2004, cited in Kelly, 2006:509). The product of this engagement is a rich tapestry of knowledge which can be shared and distributed among the teachers in the community (Lave and Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998).

Another socio-cultural perspective view which sees teachers learn in a community of practice (Lave and Wenger, 1991) views teacher learning as a journey from the periphery (novice) to full participation (expert) in the specific working environment. An additional important issue is the development of teacher identity which is a significant aspect of how they see themselves as teachers (Wenger, 1998, Woods and Jeffrey, 2002). They must develop self-awareness and a new perspective on themselves – *selves as teachers*, and learn to develop professionally. Thus, these are relevant useful perspectives which this thesis aims to build upon.

In the next section, the work of Vygotsky (1978) is discussed as it offers a perspective that enables the understanding of knowledge acquisition.

2.1.5 Internalisation and transformation of knowledge – the Vygotskian view

Vygotsky (1978) coined the term ‘internalisation’ to mean the progressive movement from externally socially mediated activities to the internal self. This view was further explained by Johnson and Golombek (2003:731) in their inquiry into teacher learning which stated that ‘internalisation involves a process in which a person’s activity is initially mediated by other people or cultural artefacts, but later comes to be controlled by the person as he or she appropriates resources to regulate his or her own activities’. This Vygotskian perspective suggests that learning involves the use of cultural and symbolic tools to generate knowledge. Cultural artefacts include physical tools such as teaching aids, lesson plans or a reflective journal; or symbolic tools such as language in the journal that are culturally constructed, and used over time and modified.

Thus, according to Johnson and Golombek, (2003:731) beginning teachers (or untrained teachers) initially ‘may rely on a lesson plan or teacher’s book to help them through a particular lesson’. With time, they ‘develop the internal resources to move successfully through a lesson by making choices about what resources to use and which to disregard’. Thus, Vygotsky’s notion of higher cognitive development is a dialogic process of transformation of self and activity rather than simply the replacement of skills (Valsineer and Van der Veer, 2002, cited in Johnson and Golombek, 2003:731). For teachers, this process of internalisation may appear in how they understand aspects of their teaching practices as well as in the actual practices they engage in during classroom teaching. This leads to a consideration of the ways how teacher knowledge and skills are internalised through the zone of proximal development and other mediational means (Vygotsky, 1978).

Vygotsky (1978) laid the groundwork for learners to utilise a social support system as a kind of learning process whereby one can bridge the gap (zone of proximal development, ZPD) that exists between what one knows and what one needs to know. Vygotsky’s contribution was made initially in the context of how children learnt with the help of adults. His work was not well known in the west, until its translation into English made it accessible. His seminal work (cited in Johnson and Golombek, 2003) can be applied to various learning situations where co-construction of knowledge takes place. The ZPD can be defined as the difference between what a person can achieve independently and what that person can achieve in collaboration with others or with someone more expert, or with the help of cultural artefacts and ‘is a metaphor for observing and understanding how mediational means are appropriated and internalised’(Lantolf, 2000, cited in Johnson and Golombek, 2003).

Johnson and Golombek (2003:733) noted that there are various ways in which mediational means could happen. Firstly, it can be 'object-regulated, in which individuals seek help from cultural artefacts in their environment such as a lesson plan'. Secondly, it can be 'other-regulated, in which individuals seek help from other people such as discussions with other teachers' and thirdly, it can be 'self-regulated, in which individuals gain control over both their cognition and activity, such as reading'. This process is 'not linear, but dialogic, in that a person can move from being object-regulated to self-regulated and back to object-regulated again'. This explanation is appealing as it seems to be able to explain what most teachers – experienced or novice, are experiencing in reality.

This perspective will now be taken a step further in the next section which discusses the lesson planning strategies teachers use in approaching their curriculum.

2.2 Lesson Planning strategies - different approaches to classroom curriculum

In this section, the different approaches to teaching classroom curriculum using a variety of lesson planning strategies are discussed. This is specifically related to SRQ1, which is 'What strategies do teachers adopt when planning their lessons?'

Richards (2001) has suggested that curriculum teaching materials can be used for developing teachers' professional knowledge. Shawer (2010a), in her work on EFL curriculum materials has built upon the work of various authors (such as Remillard, 1999; Tomlinson, 1998; Westbury, 1990; and Elliot and Woodward, 1990), defined curriculum materials as any pedagogical input that comprises textbooks, workbooks and teachers' guides, in addition to any software and audio-visual materials which represent an institution's formal curriculum, and supplementary materials as anything added to the core materials.

However, Tomlinson (1998) cautioned that the use of these curriculum materials needs reduction, addition or adaptation. Westbury (1990:1) asserted that 'textbooks are central tools and objects of attention in all modern forms of schooling', while Elliot and Woodward, (1990) made an advocacy for the strong role of textbook in providing ready-made decisions about course aims, content and pedagogy. These authors have provided definitions for formal and supplementary curriculum with a cautionary note that these need to be adapted by teachers for use in the classroom, despite the fact that they are central to teaching and learning.

Shawer's (2010a) comprehensive work in this area incorporated Bhola's (1999) claims that textbooks might stifle creativity and lacked the flexibility to meet differences in student learning. O'Neill's (1990) view was that teachers were expected to adapt and supplement textbooks because as Woodward and Elliot (1990:183) put it, 'they cannot anticipate all the contingencies of local use, or fully provide for individual differences'.

The role of textbooks in an ESL programme is discussed in more detail in a later section.

The following section will look into the ways teachers can make use of the curriculum to enable them to teach. Previous work done on this area (reviewed in Shawer, 2010a) have included a critical survey of the literature related to *curriculum fidelity approach* (using curriculum-transmission strategies), *curriculum adaptation approach* (using curriculum-development strategies) and *curriculum enactment approach* (using curriculum-making strategies). In her work, Shawer (2010a) drew upon the work of Craig (2006) and King (2002) regarding teacher professional development and its impact on student learning and motivation respectively, highlighting the importance 'to examine and understand how teachers approach the curriculum at classroom level' (Shawer, 2010a:173). This will be reviewed in the next section.

2.2.1 Curriculum fidelity approach using curriculum-transmission strategies

First, Synder, Bolin and Zumwalt (1992:427, cited in Shawer, 2010b) defined the *curriculum fidelity approach* as 'a course of study, a textbook series, a guide and a set of teacher plans'. This means what teachers teach is determined by externally-mandated policies from national or institutional forces, making them mere transmitters or technicians who teach in a prescriptive manner. This approach reflected Tyler's (1949) classic linear model that specified objectives, content, and means of achieving and assessing pre-determined learning outcome. The teaching and learning experiences adhered closely to the textbook specifications, covering each unit following the activities and tasks set in each page. According to Shawer (2010b), this type of approach maintained standards (Gordon, 1981), but was focused on organisational rather than local needs (Brady, 1995), and failed to encourage teacher development and active learning (Craig, 2006) as the teacher was a mere transmitter of knowledge to the students.

Despite these drawbacks, it can be argued that for the new or unqualified teacher, this approach is safe for one who is grappling with the myriad interactions that go on in a typical classroom. It is fair to hypothesize that, with time, teachers may or may not venture out of their comfort zone to take in new experiences. The following figure shows the approach taken by teachers using the curriculum transmitting strategies described above.

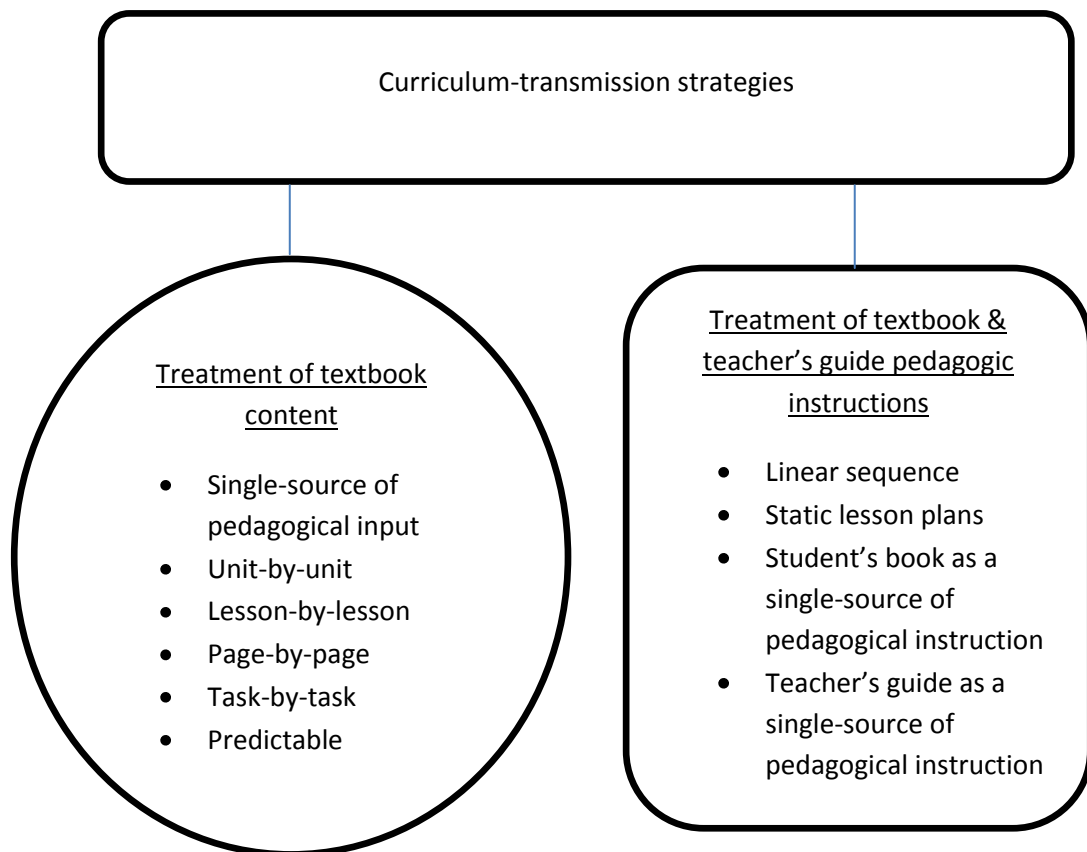


Figure 2.1 Curriculum-transmission strategies (from Shawer, 2010a:181)

2.2.2 Curriculum adaptation approach using curriculum-development strategies

Secondly, Synder et al. (1992, cited in Shawer, 2010a) described the *curriculum adaptation* approach a 'process whereby adjustments in a curriculum are made by curriculum developers and those who use it in the school or classroom context'. The teachers' role here was to introduce adaptations in the curriculum to make it suitable for use in the classroom context. For example, a lesson based on an alien phenomenon to students studying in the tropics such as *Snowed-in* could be adapted to *Floods*, an event which they can relate to more readily. Similarly, UK centric topics such as the great plague of London can be adapted and extended to include more relevant ones facing the Asian-Pacific region such as the SARs outbreak.

Teachers who used the curriculum adaptation approach employed strategies in two ways: macro and micro strategies. The former used strategies such as adapting, expanding, supplementing and experimenting resources, while the latter used strategies such as having sources of input drawing from multiple real life sources. These included newspapers, magazines and increasingly, e-resources such as YouTube

broadcasts. The teacher had a rich array of materials from which to choose from and did not feel enslaved to the textbooks, but had the flexibility to pick and choose topics and adapted them to suit the learning needs of the class.

Thus, the teachers played an important role by using their knowledge, decision-making process and experience in bringing curriculum to the students, enabling the students to interact. Doyle (1992, cited in Shawer, 2010b) concluded that it was the teacher who turned curriculum from institutional into pedagogical level. Shawer (2010a:178) summarised the above discussion in Figure 2.2.

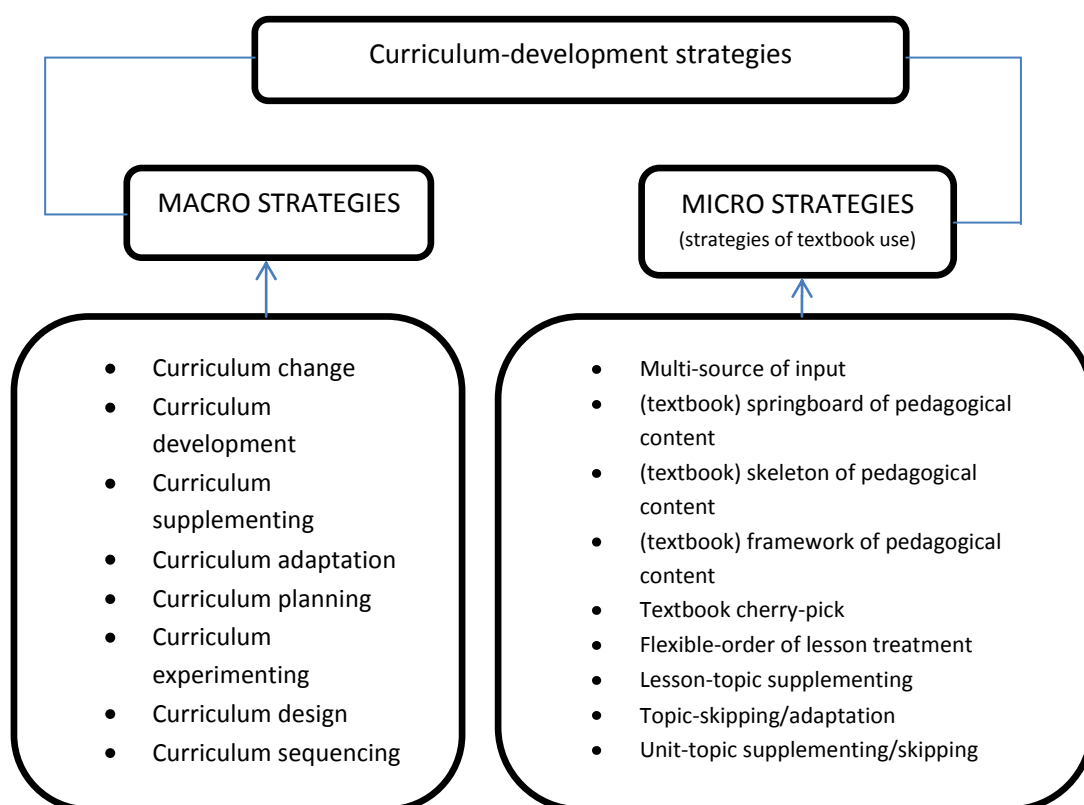


Figure 2.2 Macro and micro curriculum-development strategies (Shawer, 2010a:178)

2.2.3 Curriculum enactment approach using curriculum-making strategies

The third, the *curriculum enactment* approach allows the teachers to create curriculum as they teach. This may mean making fit-for-purpose teaching materials such as word cards, language games to empower the teaching and learning process. This would usually mean the teacher has a personal knowledge of the students' specific learning needs, thus producing a curriculum which is 'jointly created and individually experienced by students and teacher' (Synder et al., 1992:428, cited in Shawer, 2010b), an ongoing construction of 'the enacted experiences...[that] students and

teacher create' (1992:410). Drawing on the work of others, Shawer (2010a) concluded that the teacher's role here ranges from using, adapting and supplementing external curriculum to curriculum development and curriculum making (Craig, 2006), and does it by addressing learners' needs, interests and personal growth (Skilbeck, 1982).

The textbook might be still be used as a curriculum framework, but used only judiciously in class, with heavy adaptation as other sources of content such as student experience play a major role. Curriculum enactment provides a forum where teachers acquire ongoing professional skills through using resources from the environment on top of the pedagogical content of the institutionalised curriculum scope. Knight, Tait and Yorke (2006) concurred with current professional development trends which call for teacher development to occur through learning in the context of teaching. The enactment approach reflects what Wells (1999, cited in Shawer, 2010a) called social constructivism, as it involved active learning, and social construction of student interests and needs. Figure 2.3 summarises curriculum-making strategies.

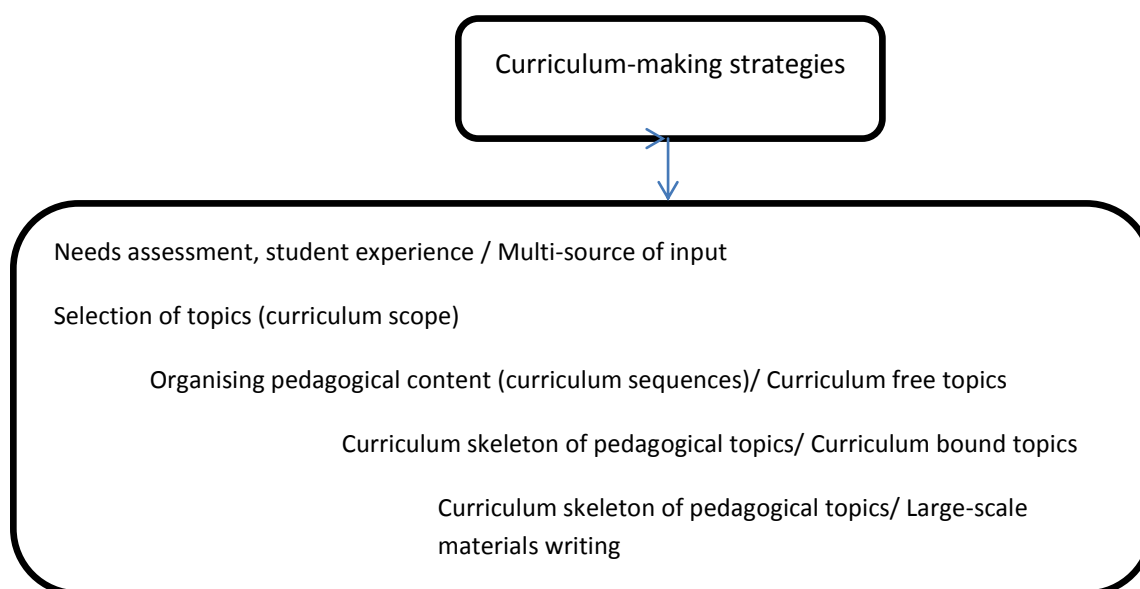


Figure 2.3 Curriculum-making strategies (Shawer, 2010a:180)

These three main approaches to EFL curriculum development can serve as a useful framework in most language programmes where commercially prepared textbooks play a key role in its success or otherwise. This is because, in many situations, as Richards (2001) argues, they serve as the main input for learners and the practice and production of language in the classroom, providing the basic content for the lesson. The textbooks may also serve as the major source of contact the learners have with the language, apart from the teacher. In the case of untrained or inexperienced teachers, textbooks may serve as a form of teacher training – those that come with a good teacher's guide or instructor's manual may provide ideas and teaching plans that the teachers can use.

However, there are both advantages and limitations to the use of textbooks in the classroom and Richards (2001) has put a balanced perspective on this issue. On the one hand, they provide structure and function as a curriculum, thereby standardising and maintaining teaching quality. In addition, they usually come with a variety of learning resources such as workbooks, CDs, cassettes, videos, CD ROMs and comprehensive teaching guides, providing a rich and varied resource for teachers and learners. They are often visually appealing and are also great time savers, freeing the teachers to concentrate on teaching. On the other hand, care must be taken to evaluate the content as they may contain inauthentic language and cultural differences and may not address the students' learning needs. Despite their many advantages, these textbooks must be used judiciously so as not to deskill teachers who may rely completely on them.

These different curriculum approaches and lesson planning strategies are now discussed further in the next section applying the work of Dreyfus and Dreyfus (1986) as they offer views and models that are particularly relevant to this study.

2.2.4 The Dreyfus and Dreyfus 5-Stage Model on skill acquisition

Dreyfus and Dreyfus (1986) proposed a 5-stage model of skill acquisition that follows from novice, through advanced beginner, competent, proficient and finally, expert levels. This model will be discussed here in the context of understanding expertise in teaching.

According to Dreyfus and Dreyfus (1986), a novice's actions are guided by rules and a set of objective facts and features related to the skills - such as following closely the steps outlined in the teacher's book and textbook when planning a lesson. When executing the lesson plan, they follow the plan closely and are merely transmitters.

When novices have had experiences applying the rules in a real situation, they begin to recognise situational elements that are needed in a specific context, for example, they may realise that a section of the lesson plan may not be working. They then move up a stage to be advanced beginners, and are beginning to use some curriculum development strategies, and thus may use a combination of transmissive and development strategies.

With more experience, competent teachers learn how to cope with more information by choosing strategies to assess the different classroom situations they encounter. Their actions are goal-directed and they make conscious planning decisions to achieve those goals. Thus, there is a greater degree of ownership or 'agency' involved in the outcomes of their decisions, in contrast to the response of novices and advanced beginners. Such teachers thus become more confident in applying more of their own curriculum development strategies.

At each of these first three levels – from novice to competent practitioners, teachers approach new situations in a relatively detached way, as observers assessing an externalised and novel situation. By contrast, the proficient teacher (the fourth stage in Dreyfus and Dreyfus' model) is able to intuitively assess a situation based on internalised experiences – that is by recalling similar situations and the course of actions taken that were effective and applying and/or adapting them to the new context. Finally, the fifth stage - the expert stage is marked by total engagement with the teaching situation such that conscious decision-making or problem solving is supplanted by a combination of intuition and expertise, with expert knowledge embedded in the teacher's responses to a given situation, rather than a body of propositional knowledge. However, according to Dreyfus and Dreyfus (1986), this stage is sometimes never achieved.

The characteristics of Dreyfus and Dreyfus' novice teacher are captured in Berliner's (1987:72) description of one who 'is typically less familiar with the subject matter, teaching strategies and teaching contexts and lack an adequate repertoire of mental scripts and behavioural routines', which serves as a working definition for the present study. Thus, a novice may 'depend heavily on a detailed lesson plan based on a prescriptive curriculum (object-regulated) to teach a lesson and then over time, and perhaps through socialising with others (other-regulated), develops skills to move through a lesson more confidently (self-regulated), thus no longer needing the physical plan to mediate his or her instructional activities. However, when new content or an unfamiliar instructional setting arises, the teacher may return to being object-related, as a mediational means in order to move through this lesson' (Johnson and Golombek, 2003:733). Hence, there is a constant movement in a non-linear fashion, depending on the context the learning situation lends itself to. Both the Shawer (2010a) model and the Dreyfus and Dreyfus model (1986) model are particularly relevant to SRQ 1.

The next section will review some of the models of CPD with special reference to the activities that are appropriate for teacher development in this context and this is specifically related to SRQ 2.

2.3 Models of Continuing Professional Development (CPD) within organisations

The importance of teachers' CPD for the whole staff affects the smooth running of a school, especially so when a significant number of teachers lack formal qualifications. Even with trained teachers, CPD is needed because 'initial teacher education cannot contain all of the propositional knowledge that is needed and certainly not that procedural knowledge which grows in practice' (Knight, 2002:230). With regards to teachers who do not have teaching qualifications, this need is even more urgent. All teachers, trained or untrained are now expected to embrace life-long learning.

In the following section, a comparison between two different models – the delivery model through a transmissive approach and the systemic model which regards learning as a practice is presented. This is to enable a comparison of these two models to argue for the adoption of a model that is relevant to this study.

2.3.1 The delivery model through transmissive approaches

There has been much debate about whether professional learning really happens through ‘delivery models’ where training is often delivered as a ‘one-shot’ workshop by an external body. Bradley, Conner and Southworth (1994) and Goleman (1998), cited in Knight (2002), have discussed the limitations of these event-delivery models of CPD. This transmissive form of CPD assumes that deficits in teacher knowledge can be addressed by appropriate input from an outsider. Such one-off programmes are often relatively ‘context-free’, leaving teachers to interpret the general message and its relevance to their own teaching or school context. The busy schedule of teachers’ daily lives often means that this does not get fully applied in the classroom. This begs the question of the usefulness of this type of CPD. Yet, this model is prevalent in teaching as well as in other professions.

Globally, doubts about the effectiveness of in-service training construed as top-down activities led to new concepts and forms of in-service training. By the late 1980s, there was a well-established body of literature arguing for a central role of teachers in school improvement. Wideen (1987:6) stressed the idea of teachers as ‘partners and prime movers in the process of change’. At the same time, an exciting new direction involving many different forms of theory and research was looming on the horizon, emanating from the UK, involving the Action Research movement (Stenhouse, 1984; Elliot, 1990) and the reflective practitioner movement (Schön, 1983, 1987). These offered radically new perspectives on teacher professional developments which stressed the importance of the centrality of the teacher in CPD programmes.

Others such as Clark and Peterson (1986) were concerned with how teachers think and how their thinking influenced action. Shulman (1987) and Reynolds (1989) conducted research on pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) and Keiny, (1994) linked constructivist learning approaches to teachers’ change. In addition, Huberman (1992), Hargreaves and Fullan (1992) studied how teachers grew and developed from a body of knowledge. Burns (2009) concluded that the goal of this transformational approach was to support teachers and enhance their practice and to link personal and professional learning. All these have contributed to the understanding and enhancement of the quality of teaching and learning. The outcomes of these studies have shed new perspectives on teachers’ thought processes and actions.

However, this is not to say that there is a rejection of all formal professional learning, whether pre-service or in-service, although Knight (2002:230) argued that it ‘just does

not fit for all the purposes to which it is applied'. His advocacy is for the importance of daily practice where professional learning occurs in-situ in the workplace, but is not too dismissive of all other approaches.

Azaretto (1990) acknowledged that professional development should be self-directed so that teachers have ownership over their long-term learning and growth. More recently, Yeh (2008) stressed the need for teachers to take ownership of their own professional learning, practice and growth through a teachers' study group, collaborative group or inquiry groups. Personal inquiry and exploration are controlled from inside by membership and collaborative direction of the focus owned by each member via a collegial community. He proposes ways to connect all forms of professional development into a systemic relationship, that is to say CPD activities are based in-situ.

Hence, the job-embedded learning that occurs in the workplace which grows systemically within the organisation offers an alternative model which will be discussed next.

2.3.2 The systemic model through learning as practice

Taking the stance that learning and knowledge are socially constructed, Dewey (1938:38) claimed that 'all human experience is ultimately social: it involves contact and communication'. The notion of collaborative community is similar to what Fleck (1935:39) described as 'thought collective', which means 'a community of persons mutually exchanging ideas or maintaining intellectual interaction'. Hence, the use of collaborative groups in-situ aimed at promoting professional growth so that learning and teaching practices could be transferred as practical knowledge and negotiated results in an enriching experience for all. A sense of community learning making use of group members' inquiry, knowledge, and reflection is built, enabling improved instruction and professional development within the school system, that is to say, it is systemic.

Many researchers have reported promising results of initiating and participating in teacher study groups. Grossman, Wineberg and Woolworth (2001) presented an argument that teachers need a community to nourish their growth. Borko (2004) agrees with Grossman et al. (2001) in saying that teachers' experiences are important and add that teachers are almost always willing to share, discuss and reflect ideas related to their work, and welcome conversations related to CPD and career growth. However, she questioned the availability of opportunities that encourage teachers to critically examine their teaching within the school community as well as individually.

Firstly, there is a large body of work on the importance of using group collaboration to foster teacher learning. This is supported by various researchers such as Unia (1990:131) who reported that her experiences in a teacher study group helped her

‘sustain and further develop changes’ in her pedagogy. In a similar vein, Meyer and Achinstein (1998) regarded the study group as a forum for teachers to substantiate their passions of teaching and learning. Studies on teachers conducted by Watson and Stevenson (1989:12) revealed that ‘those involved in professional change need to receive encouragement, approval, advice and sound information about their new professional adventure’. Clair (1988) reports that the teachers tended to work with one another and they favoured teacher study group as the preferred professional development format. This shows that professional isolation should be reduced and collegiality enhanced.

This is further supported by Lewison (1995), who organised a teacher study group for a K-5 elementary school in the US and concluded the effectiveness of the teacher study group included teachers’ changes in classroom practice, change in beliefs about literacy learning, and changes in teachers’ expectations for students. It was particularly useful for beginning teachers who viewed the group as a learning community where they could learn from experienced teachers. The group members found the experience teacher-friendly compared with previous training experiences and welcomed the safe and non-threatening atmosphere of the study group which empowered them to share. This suggests that contextualising teacher development through situating it in a realistic context is of utmost importance.

Secondly, research on professional development and teacher knowledge has revealed that teachers bring prior knowledge and experience to a learning situation, and this knowledge and experience provide the foundation for future learning (Sprinthall, Reiman and Thies-Sprinthall, 1996). It emphasises knowledge - both formal and informal that is embedded in the practice of good teachers. Cochran-Smith and Lytle (1999:262) posited that ‘teaching is an uncertain and spontaneous craft, situated and constructed in response to the particularities of everyday life in schools and classrooms’. Therefore, it can be concluded that teachers learn and improve through experience, reflection on their practice, participation on collaborative teacher groups and inquiry into their classroom practices.

This perspective on learning leads to professional development that is built upon the practice of teachers and focuses on the practices that may be used to address student learning, motivation and behaviour within the classroom. This requires teachers to examine their own practice as well as those of others which may occur in dyadic situations (as in between a novice and an experienced teacher during peer coaching), or in small groups or communities (as in curriculum groups), working together to ‘reflect upon , inquire about and transform their experiences’ (Cochran-Smith and Lytle, 1999:268).

This knowledge-in-practice conception of teacher learning assumes that teachers undergo a process of learning through activities in communities and at the same time,

enhance reflection to improve their practice. Such activities could lead to a culture of learning embedded in the school's culture, leading to what Fullan (1993) called a learning organisation, where teaching staff and management staff examine their practice, share information with others and seek input to find ways to improve the operation of the whole school. In this way, the teachers are empowered to solve most students' academic and behaviour problems with the knowledge and skills they have. In addition, problems can be addressed better if they work together rather than suffering in isolation, and finally, it can be concluded that teachers learn best through active learning in a real world context.

Finally, the third conception of teacher learning, views all learning as constructed within a context. Teachers make judgments and 'play a central role in generating knowledge through classroom inquiry and taking a critical perspective' (Cochran-Smith and Lytle, 1999:268). Knowledge is thus derived from the 'conjoined understandings of those who are committed to the long-term study of teaching and learning and is used to transform the classroom to meet the needs of the students'. From this perspective, CPD 'focuses on teachers' learning by challenging their own assumptions, posing problems, studying their own students, constructing and reconstructing curriculum' (Cochran-Smith and Lytle, 1999:278).

Using a socio-cultural conceptual framework to explore teacher learning communities, the next section examines briefly five different approaches/procedures are used to facilitate professional development in language teaching. These are related in particular to SRQ 2, which is 'How do institutional support mechanisms, both formal and informal, enable their work?' They are: workshops, teacher support groups, classroom observation, analysis of critical incidents and peer coaching. Each will be discussed in turn.

2.3.3 Workshops

Workshops are one of the most common and potentially useful forms of professional development activities for teachers (Richards, Gallo and Renandya, 2001), although the first workshop for teachers dates back to 1936 (O'Rourke and Burton, 1975). In a workshop, participants are 'expected to learn something that they can later apply in the classroom and to get hands-on experience with the topic' (Richards and Farrell, 2005:23), such as developing questions for eliciting response from students or giving clear instructions for group work.

Mohammed (2006) warned that 'one-shot' workshops mandated by an external agent are likely to be boring and irrelevant. Robb (2000:5) described a typical one-shot workshop where after the first fifteen minutes, she 'noticed some teachers doodling. Others closed their eyes. Many repeatedly looked at their watches'. Despite the unpopularity of the approach with teachers, and the research evidence that suggest its

ineffectiveness and failure to address theories of adult learning, Sandholtz (2002) reported that it is precisely this type of approach that the majority of teacher development programmes still adopt.

However, the type of workshops focussed in this thesis is the institutionalised, teacher-led, job-embedded workshop. These, as Richards and Farrell (2005:25) found, 'offer practical classroom applications, enhance teachers' practical skills and help resolve problems and teachers should come away with ideas, strategies, techniques and materials that can be used in their classrooms'. Workshops conducted in this manner on a regular basis throughout the school year can be used as a platform where teachers can share problems and concerns with colleagues which can help reduce isolation and raise motivation.

In addition, job-embedded workshops develop collegiality as its highly interactive format helps develop bonds of collegiality and personal relationships. Another advantage of this kind of workshop is its flexibility which can be used to circumvent the perennial lament of lack of time to fit in the teachers' busy schedule. They can also provide opportunities for participants to examine their beliefs or perspectives on teaching and learning, and use this process to reflect their own teaching practices. Such workshops are a good platform for teachers to participate in taking charge of their own learning needs such as challenging themselves to do a presentation or sharing of teaching strategies. It also provides an opportunity to address issues related to both institutional improvement and individual development.

Richards and Farrell (2005:30) concluded that 'a well conducted workshop can have a lasting positive impact on its participants and can play a key role in achieving a school's institutional goals as well as sending a message about the school's commitment to professional development'. In this context, teacher-led, job-embedded workshops are more likely to be sustainable and is a cost effective way to co-construct teacher knowledge for the greater good in the school community.

2.3.4 Teacher support groups

A teacher support group can be defined as 'two or more teachers collaborating to achieve their individual or shared goal involving a group of teachers meeting in a non-threatening manner to review, plan, develop and collaborate on curriculum and resources and carry out activities such as classroom observation, team teaching and action research' (Richards and Farrell, 2005:51). This definition is different from the workshop discussed earlier (which generally involves the entire teaching staff) and is used to refer specifically to small groups of teachers working in a specific year group or curriculum group to build a sense of collegiality, enabling them to function as a more specific community of professionals.

Lieberman and Grolnick (1998:723, cited in Richards and Farrell, 2005) pointed out that teacher support groups play a major role in 'providing opportunities for teachers to validate both teacher knowledge and teacher inquiry'. They can engage in specific activities such as reviewing and reflecting on institutional planning documents such as the curriculum outcomes document; planning and setting of exam papers and marking and moderating of marks to ensure consistency of quality within a particular year group.

With the increasing use of technology, online support groups where teachers from different schools support one another typically around a subject area such as maths or science, or responsibilities such as special needs coordinators can be a source where teachers find professional support where face-to-face support is not readily available.

However, it is also important to distinguish what a support group is not. A support group is not a staff meeting or an in-service activity such as a workshop. Birchak et al. (1998, cited in Richards and Farrell, 2005) cautioned that it should not be another opportunity to discuss school problems and policies and personnel or administrative matters. However, the group might generate issues pertinent to them specifically to be discussed at a staff meeting. Support groups can thus be seen as an avenue where a community of learners can co-construct more specific knowledge through collaboration relevant to the members belonging to the specific curriculum group.

2.3.5 Classroom observations

In almost all teacher training courses, classroom observations form an integral part of the training and assessment. Richards and Farrell (2005:85) defined classroom observation as 'a process whereby an observer closely watches and monitors a language lesson to gain an understanding of some aspects of teaching, learning or classroom interaction'. However, many teachers feel threatened by the idea of someone coming to a classroom and observing their classes, as it is equated with 'a coordinator or visitor coming to a classroom to carry out a supervisory or evaluative observation as part of the process of performance appraisal' (Richards and Farrell, 2005:85). The problems of the traditional classroom observations are 'frightening and regarded as an ordeal; are prescriptive, and the teachers had no responsibility for the assessment' (Williams, 1989:86, cited in Richards and Farrell, 2005).

On the other hand, a non-evaluative classroom observation by peers provides a learning opportunity for less experienced teachers to see how and what more experienced teachers do when they teach a lesson. This is a collaborative and less threatening approach to teacher development. Moreover, even experienced teachers find it beneficial to be observed by their peers as it could provide them an opportunity to showcase effective teaching strategies or part of a model lesson. Observing another teacher may cause one to be more aware and reflexive in his or her own teaching. The

teacher can gather valuable feedback from the observer which he or she would not have noticed, otherwise. For both teachers, observation also brings social benefits through interaction and sharing of ideas to discuss concerns and problems, thereby building collegiality in a school.

At the same time, the limitations of observations need to be understood. When observing a class, what is seen is only a snapshot gained through visible aspects such as types and length of activities, questioning techniques, participation and classroom language. Other important aspects of the lesson, such as real student engagement or decision making are not so readily observable. They either have to be inferred or identified through talking to the teacher.

Non-evaluative observation within the context of professional development is often welcomed by teachers. Richards (1998, cited in Richards and Farrell, 2005:87) found that teachers' comments were positive:

'It revealed more detailed information on student performance during specific aspects of the lesson that I could not have generated on my own'

'It made me more aware of the limited range of teaching strategies that I have been using'

'I realised I need to develop better time-management strategies'

Classroom observation also helps teachers become more aware of the issues such as their questioning techniques, the engagement or otherwise of the students, and assessing whether learning has taken place, amongst others, and how these can be resolved. By engaging in non-evaluative classroom observations, the responsibility of professional development can also be placed on the individual teacher as the teacher takes ownership of his or her own role in ensuring effective teaching and learning.

2.3.6 Analysing critical incidents

Due to the dynamic nature of classroom teaching, critical incidents are common, even unavoidable. Richards and Farrell (2005:113) defined a critical incident as 'an unplanned and unanticipated event that occurs during a lesson that serves to trigger insights about some aspects of teaching and learning'. By exploring critical incidents, it can serve as a form of reflective inquiry and can help identify and resolve problems. Furthermore, it can identify good practices, and give teachers a heightened sense of professional awareness.

Analysing critical incidents can facilitate professional development in a number of ways. A teacher can examine prior assumptions about language teaching and learning by writing down and discussing critical incidents individually or with colleagues. Richards and Farrell (2005) built upon the work of Tripp (1993) and Thiel (1999) – the

former of whom suggested a two-step process to understanding a critical incident, to describe the incident (the *what*), and to explain the meaning (the *why*); and the latter, advocating self-observation and describing what had happened, so that self-awareness and self-evaluation would ensue. This may include reflection-in-action and reflection-in-practice which can be done as a group learning activity in collaborative groups (both formal and informal) or peer coaching. These ideas derive from CPD mechanisms, both formal and informal that allow opportunities for reflection. The notion of reflective practice plays a significant part in relation to SRQ 3 which is 'How do they construct their professional identity?' This will be discussed in more detail in a later section on page 43.

2.3.7 Peer coaching

Peer coaching is a process whereby teachers collaborate to help each other improve some aspects of their teaching. Robbins (1991:1) defined peer coaching as

‘A confidential process through which two or more professional colleagues work together on current practices, expand, refine and build new skills, share ideas, teach one another, conduct classroom research or solve problems in the workplace’.

In this case, one adopts the role of a ‘critical friend’ and offers constructive feedback in a supportive manner on some aspects of teaching. This often involves peer-peer observations. During and after the process, the coach provides feedback and suggestions to the other teacher. In the case of a novice teacher working with a more experienced teacher, more prescriptive guidelines and evaluative feedback from the latter can help address a problem faced by the former.

Joyce and Showers (1982) recognised the centrality of peer coaching as a developmental process which is an effective way to promote professional development systemically by enabling opportunities for two teachers to look at their teaching problems and to develop possible solutions, thus benefitting both parties as well as the school. A further benefit of this approach is that by helping another colleague, the teacher who is doing the coaching can revitalise his or her own teaching. In addition, being asked to be a coach is also a sign of professional recognition and may lead to identity building in a positive way. Benedetti (1997) acknowledged that peer coaching also reduces the sense of isolation that teachers tend to feel. The school benefits by strengthening the skills and collegiality of its teachers and by providing on-the-job support culture.

The five approaches discussed above allow teachers through peer collaboration within an institutional context to construct their own knowledge, enabling them to teach more effectively. However, although professional learning through both formal training and through a less formalised socialisation process is critical, it is important to

acknowledge that a teacher's personal practical knowledge – that which he or she 'brings to the table' as it were – can also be a valuable (and valid) resource as well, but which is often not capitalised upon by schools. This is especially relevant for those who enter the profession with significant experience of other occupational contexts.

The next section of the literature review therefore aims to explore the role of teachers' personal practical knowledge in interactive decision making. Two key constructs here are 'personal practical knowledge' and 'interactive decisions'. 'Personal practical knowledge' is operationalised here as teaching maxims and norms; and 'interactive decisions' is operationalised under two kinds decisions: (a) pre-active decisions (decisions made *before* teaching, that is at the planning stage), and post-active decisions (decisions made *after* teaching, that is decisions made during reflections).

2.4 The place of personal practical knowledge and interactive decision making

In this section, the relevance of historical and experiential resources, that is, those which a teacher 'brings to the job' is discussed. This is related to SRQ 2 as the prior work experiences of these teachers have often been overlooked as a valuable reservoir of resource. Recent research on CPD processes has documented how teacher learning and expertise develop informally, what Ellis (2009) called 'practical knowledge'. Atkinson and Claxton (2000) stressed that this learning is based on teachers' own practice and may unfold intuitively. The teaching process involves constant 'improvisational performance' (Richards, 1998:74) as teachers talk and scaffold concepts. Knight's (2002:233) emphasis on 'knowledge management through encouraging informal interactions, collegiality and non-formal learning opportunities allow unexpected, unplanned and fruitful learning to occur'.

Tsang (2004) adopted Richards' (1998) metaphor of the teacher-as-thinker metaphor and Nunan's (1992) metaphor of the teacher-as-decision maker to reflect how teachers conceptualised their work and the kinds of thinking and decision making that underlie their teaching. Teachers' thoughts and beliefs shaped the way they understood teaching and the priorities they gave to different dimensions of teaching. In their studies, Clark and Peterson (1986) and Clark and Yinger (1977) reported that decisions made while teaching, also known as interactive decisions were considered a key dimension of teachers' thought processes. In the course of teaching, they revised their planning decisions, responded to students' understanding and participation, and formed new decisions that redirected the lesson. Freeman and Richards (1996) concluded that teachers interacted before and after teaching, and improvised, based on student response during the course of any lesson. This has echoes of what Shawer (2010a) called curriculum development and curriculum enactment strategies.

Experienced teachers are able 'read' their students; they anticipate problems and have solutions to hand. When they teach, this knowledge shapes the interactive decisions made. As Berliner (1987:64) pointed out, this kind of knowledge is 'learned through thousands of hours of instruction, and tens of thousands of hours of interaction with students'. By comparison, novice teachers lack the repertoire of 'mental scripts and behaviour routines' (Berliner, 1987:72) possessed by the former.

There have been a few studies done on teachers' personal practical knowledge and interactive decisions involving inexperienced teachers. Johnson (1992) found in a case study of six pre-service ESL teachers that unexpected student behaviour affects how teachers modify instructional behaviour. In her study of six beginning teachers, Johnson (1992) concluded that what student teachers bring to teaching reflect their personal belief of what teaching is supposed to be. This is in line with the findings of Nunan's (1992) comparison of five experienced and four inexperienced ESL teachers in Australia that teachers' interactive decisions reflects their own personal philosophy of language learning and teaching.

Despite their limited teaching experience, trainee teachers do bring with them their own knowledge which may have developed from their past experiences as language learners themselves. Connelly and Clandinin (1988:59) defined the notion of 'personal practical knowledge' as 'a moral, affective and aesthetic way of knowing life's educational situations' which is embedded in the act of daily teaching practicalities, what Polanyi (1966) called 'tacit knowledge'. In addition, teachers' evolving knowledge about themselves and their teaching change and grow throughout their professional lives (Johnson and Golombek, 2002). However, it is important that this corpus of tacit knowledge is converted to pedagogical practice for it to be of use and this will be the focus of the following section.

2.4.1 Converting tacit knowledge to pedagogical practice - knowledge transfer

This section discusses the personal practical knowledge that teachers bring with them and how this is transferred during actual teaching remains an interesting issue and warrants discussion. Several theoretical and empirical approaches to learning and the development of competent membership in diverse communities of practice have been proposed, such as activity theory (Engestrom, 1987), situational approach (Greeno, 1997) and sociocultural theory (Rogoff, 1994, Lave and Wenger, 1991, Wells, 1999).

This literature review takes a theoretical stance that learning involves participation in a collaborative manner. This is the theoretical foundation of the concept of a 'community of learners' involving both active learners and more skilled partners who provide guidance and are present in the course of the collaborative endeavour (Rogoff, Matusov and White, 1996:38). Bielaczyc and Collins (1999), Scardamalia and Bereiter (1994) state that, in a 'learning community' approach to education, the goal is to

advance collective knowledge in a way that supports the growth of the individual knowledge. Illeris (2002) built upon this and noted the common goal in a learning community approach was to foster the emergence and growth of elements such as action, reflection, communication and negotiation among its members as they participated in the activities of the community.

Wenger (1998) stressed the pivotal role of participation within a learning community approach, where the learner's identity is inherently formed through participation. Competent membership of a learning community is contingent on the degree of participation as well as the recognition of members' identities as legitimate participants of a learning community. This approach to human learning and development is also supported by the work of Halliday (1978), and Halliday and Hasan (1989) who suggest that knowledge acquisition is a process of meaning-making with others.

Unlike the trainee teachers who stay in a cohort for a specific period such as a term or semester, a group of unqualified teachers working in a school at any given one time are not in a 'community of practice' (Wenger, 1998) *per se*, as new teachers join the staff, while those after a few years of teaching become more experienced and are seen as co-constructors of knowledge. Hence, they must function as a community of learners or a professional learning community whereby they participate in a practice with other teachers. Within that community, there is shared interpretation of meaning regarding their work as they develop a communal repertoire of skills and resources based on the school CPD context.

Knowledge, as seen by Polanyi (1966), is divided into explicit and tacit knowledge. Explicit knowledge obtained from books is formalised, is explained with texts and is easy to disseminate. Tacit knowledge such as life experiences or shared experiences within a community, on the other hand, exists in people's mind, is implicit and is not easy to quantify. Tacit knowledge expresses itself as a kind of wisdom, experience or even feeling and is less readily transferable.

However, tacit knowledge can still be expressed in schools through metaphors, symbolic languages, and concepts. Schools can make tacit knowledge explicit by putting them into work documents such as operation standards, management systems and teachers' handbooks to facilitate communication. Since most of the teaching skills and experiences are difficult to express fully in words, therefore, communication is often realised through observation, imitation and constant practice. Schools can create appropriate conditions such as peer observations or workshops to spread and share tacit knowledge by enabling experienced teachers to co-construct their knowledge with novice teachers.

Polanyi (1966) continues to argue that tacit knowledge is an indispensable part of all knowledge, and that the aim of modern science to establish a strictly detached, objective and formalised knowledge is misleading. Knowledge of theory cannot be established until it has been interiorised and extensively used to interpret experience, and true knowledge lies in our ability to use it. He asserts that the more intellectual and more practical kinds of knowledge do not exist independent of each other, and explicit formalisation of knowledge cannot replace its tacit counterpart.

The question then is how to formalise in explicit form, this tacit knowledge hidden in the teachers' minds. This can be done by juxtaposing an individual's tacit and explicit knowledge from self and from the community. As teachers learn as individuals and as groups, groups also learn from individuals, thus the conceptualisation of the conversion of tacit knowing into explicit knowledge can be represented in Figure 2.4. Here, Knight (2002) posits that an individual's tacit knowledge comes from life experiences as well as from experiences in the community. On the other hand, an individual's explicit knowledge may come from self-reading, networking and apprenticeship as well as from the community, both mutually enhancing.

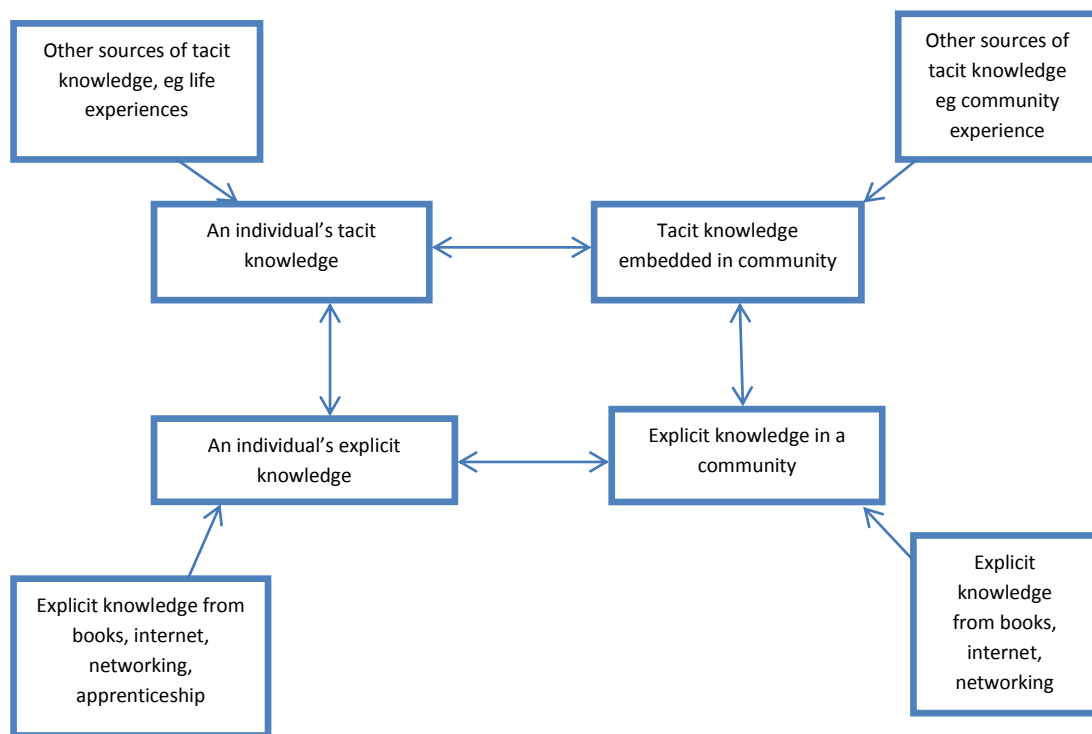


Figure 2.4 Learning as a social/individual achievement (adapted from Knight, 2002:233)

In summary, the links between an individual's tacit and explicit knowledge from various sources and how that is embedded in the community enable the knowledge to be shared. This knowledge is then applied through participation in a community of

learners whereby the common goal is to advance collective knowledge. In the process, identity formation is enabled.

The next three sections examine reflective practice, the position of situated teacher knowledge and how the concept of constructivism is embedded in teachers' professional development. This is important as they are constructs in CPD and are relevant to the overall argument of teacher knowledge acquisition.

2.4.2 Teacher reflection and CPD

One of the most influential works on studies of teacher knowledge and teachers' work was done by Schön (1983). He asserted that 'in the practical world, problems are often situated in conditions that are highly complex and fraught with uncertainty, instability, uniqueness and value conflict' (Schön, 1983:39). The problem can be identified 'by experience, trial and error, intuition and muddling through' (Schön, 1983:43). Following Polanyi, he proposed that what professionals do in their daily working life is 'knowing-in-action'. Echoing Ryle's (1949) conception of 'knowing how', Schön pointed out that knowing how to solve problems is embedded in taking action. This kind of 'knowing-in-action' is tacit.

Schön conceptualised professional knowledge as how it was developed by professionals. He pointed out that although 'knowing-in-action' is intuitive and automatic, practitioners do engage in reflection in two ways: they reflect-in-action (that is, in the middle of an activity), and reflect-on-action (after the activity). The latter takes place when they reflect on what they have done or what they have experienced, while the former takes place during the action, especially when they encounter situations which are unanticipated, or problematic. A new way of looking at a phenomenon or a problem ensues, hence generating a new understanding which leads to action. In this case, Schön argued that 'a practitioner engaging in this kind of reflective process becomes a researcher, and the knowledge acquired is a legitimate form of knowing, which is rigorous in its own right' (Schön, 1983:69). Hence his theory is persuasive and asserts that reflection is a vital element of professional competence.

Elbaz's (1983) study of a very experienced teacher was based on the assumption that practical knowledge exists in all teachers and can be understood by examining their daily practices and the thinking behind them. The study sets out to find how the teacher knows about her work, how she understands it and how she uses the knowledge in carrying out her tasks as a teacher. Elbaz (1983:5) concluded that teachers hold a special kind of knowledge, referred to as practical knowledge as it 'focuses attention on the action and the decision-oriented nature of the teacher's situation, and construes her knowledge as a function, in part, of her response to that situation'. This kind of knowledge is oriented to a particular practical and social context, and is highly experiential and personal.

While practical teacher knowledge is seen as intuitive and tacit and less accessible in formally articulated and codified form, nevertheless, the processes of intuition and reflection are equally important. Elbaz (1983) considered teacher knowledge as both procedural, the 'knowing how' and declarative, the 'knowing that' and brings together two opposing perspectives of knowledge, the empiric-analytic perspective, (which sees knowledge as declarative) and the phenomenological perspective, (which sees knowledge as procedural).

2.4.3 Teacher knowledge as situated knowledge in CPD

The turn to situated and relational theories of learning in the late 1980s represented a major shift in the understanding of learning and knowledge. The theories argue that the cognitivist focus on abstract knowledge was misleading as the tacit dimension of the workplace was overlooked. It proposed that individual learning should be seen as emergent, involving opportunities to participate in the practices of the community as well as the development of an identity which provided a sense of belonging and commitment. Knowledge is therefore provisional, mediated and socially-constructed (Berger and Luckman, 1966). Hence, context is vital to understanding, learning and practice, and that knowledge is just not 'acquired' in a mechanical way (Resnick, 1987; Sfard, 1998).

According to Fenwick (2003), the situated learning theory describes how adults learn within their experience in a specific situation. Learning occurs naturally when a person experiences a particular situation, and is not only necessarily an individual activity. Greeno (1997) states that the specific situation is a part of learning and not merely a background influencing it. Because learning is a social practice, Wenger, McDermott and Snyder (2002:4) argue that situated learning theory has focused on how 'a group of people who share a concern, a set of problems, or a passion about a topic, and who deepen their knowledge and expertise in this area while interacting on an ongoing basis' learn to co-construct knowledge. When newcomers join in the group, they gradually learn to become full members, and as such, learning also implies the development of the individual's identity.

The conception of teacher knowledge as 'situated knowledge' was influenced by the works of Lave (1988) and Lave and Wenger (1991) which saw knowledge as contextually developed as practitioners responded to the specific context in which they worked in. It is diametrically opposed to conventional theories of action, where knowledge resides in the head, and learning is a process of acquiring existing knowledge. For Lave (1993:12), learning and participation in social practice is one and the same thing, and learning and knowing is an 'engagement in changing processes of human activities'. It is an 'integral and inseparable aspect of social practice' which involves the construction of identity. Hence, the core processes of participation, identity-construction and practice occur within communities of practice.

The notion of 'situated knowledge' has been adopted by a number of researchers as a way of understanding teachers' work and their professional knowledge. Leinhardt (1988:148) who investigated expert teachers' use of situated knowledge found that teacher knowledge is developed in the specific context of the school and classroom settings and is 'embedded in the artefacts of a context'. In dealing with the teaching task, teachers use situated knowledge, encompassing the traditional use of lesson plans, textbooks and teaching aids.

Thus, the concept of situated learning where 'knowledge is created and made meaningful by the context in which it is acquired' (Farmer, Buckmaster and Le Grand, 1992:46) is embedded in constructivism. Situated learning comes from participating in authentic activities guided by more experienced practitioners in a culture of practice (Billet, 1994a). In his studies, Billet (1993, 1994b) demonstrated that expert teachers, through experience, have an organised base of constructed knowledge to draw upon to solve problems in new situations. Novice teachers can learn through cognitive apprenticeship via appropriate scaffolds, gradually decreasing the need for assistance as they internalise the process and construct their own knowledge base and understanding (Farmer, Buckmaster and Le Grand, 1992).

All these procedures are encapsulated in constructivist theory, which offers a useful overarching theoretical framework for exploring the 'meaningfulness' of teachers' continuing professional development.

2.4.4 Constructivism and CPD

The central premise of the theory of constructivism is that there is an innate human need to construct his or her own sense of the world. Constructivism has its roots in philosophy and is viewed as a learning theory (Brooks, 1984) or a model for learning (Howard, McGee, Schwartz and Purcell, 2000). It is concerned with how knowledge is actively constructed by integrating new information and experiences and revising old knowledge. Cheek (1992) asserted that human beings are not passive recipients of information, but active producers of knowledge, and are able to connect it to previously assimilated knowledge by constructing their own interpretation, thereby enhancing individual ownership.

Keiny (1994) drew on the work of Driver and Oldham (1986) and Nersessian (1989) in recognising the centrality of knowledge construction with regards to teaching and learning, which has mainly been focused on learning as a conceptual change as well as to curriculum development and teaching (Osborne and Wittrock, 1985; Rowell, 1989, cited in Keiny, 1994). The next section reviews the contribution of constructivism to teachers' professional development both on the theoretical and practical levels.

Schön, (1987) and Stenhouse, (1975) described professional development as a process of generating personal knowledge, or what they term theories-of-action. Schön's

theory, (1987) was that teachers constructed knowledge from their work through active interaction with the people and materials with which they worked. The dialogues, which in this case meant professional interactions such as conversations, focused on pedagogy and student learning in the classrooms which are often informal and spontaneous, or happened under serendipitous conditions such as along the school corridors. When teachers engage in a process of explaining classroom incidents, they need to articulate their thinking, understanding and assumption, and by doing so, are making tacit knowledge explicit. Dialogues also include encouragement, feedback and questioning about teaching.

Blase and Blase (1998:93) stated that dialogues 'also enhance teacher reflection about teaching methods and expected students outcomes as well as informing teachers' classroom behaviours'. Teacher talk enables them to expand their teaching repertoires and improve their understandings of their teaching practices. These conversations involve the construction and co-construction of professional knowledge. Thus, professional development is a journey of personal growth whereby learning is facilitated by encouraging active dialogues and questioning their own tacit assumptions. When it remains implicit, it is neither shared nor used as a resource for the greater good of the school community. Thus, a potentially good source of teacher's knowledge is not maximised.

It is from this standpoint that this study is understood, not merely at a theoretical level, but an integration of theory and action. Teachers' CPD should become a continuous open-ended process, beginning by asking questions in trying to understand the situation they find themselves in. This kind of reflection helps the teachers to reconstruct implicit ideas into more explicit theories.

By engaging in constructing knowledge for themselves through interacting with others socially, teachers possess a greater sense of ownership of the knowledge generated which can be sustained, and this will have a greater impact on their identity formation. To summarise, teacher reflection, situated knowledge and constructivism are all inter-related and play crucial roles in effective CPD. They provide useful constructs which can be employed in the designing of a model to facilitate teacher knowledge acquisition.

Finally, the last section of this literature review explores the teachers' sense of identity, how this is negotiated and what it means to them. This is especially relevant to the current study as the emergence of a new identity related to teaching from an earlier one largely unrelated to teaching is important as they attempt to answer the question "Am I a 'real' teacher?"

2.5 How teachers construct their professional identities through the learning process

The main focus in this section is specifically related to SRQ 3 which is to explore how teachers who are now attempting to renegotiate their previous identity to one related to teaching, and how their new identities finally unfold.

Most of the research studies reviewed have focused on identity formation in pre-service teachers. There is however relatively little research on how teachers who have received no formal training for their teaching roles, are yet expected to carry out all the roles and responsibilities associated with being a teacher. Even less evident is research on second language teachers' identity formation. This section attempts to fill this gap in the literature and examines how untrained ESL teachers develop their sense of professional identity.

However, Goodson and Cole (1994) conducted a longitudinal study in a community college setting on how those who have come from industry – and thus without formal pedagogical training - construct their teacher identity after embarking on a second career as a teacher. Historically, teachers in such community colleges come into teaching with a fully formed professional identity in the industry such as film making or architectural design. The study explored how such teachers' lives and personal biographies led to conceptualisations of their new teacher identity construction within their new community. Goodson and Cole (1994) concluded that the process of redefining what it means to be a teacher and the developing sense of new professional identity were contextually dependent on their developing notions of professional community. As such, the study provides a relevant starting point with regards to this thesis.

With a particular focus on ESL teachers' identity, Farrell (2010) investigated the professional role identities of experienced ESL teachers through reflective practice. He maintained that teacher identity develops through day-to-day experiences that occur through participation in communities of practice - groups who 'share a common concern or issues and who deepen their knowledge and expertise by interacting on an ongoing basis' (Wenger et al., 2002:4).

In other studies, ten Dam and Blom (2006:651) stated that 'learning is a constructive and socially and culturally situated process' which is crucial for developing a professional identity as a teacher. As teachers actively socialise and interpret the actions of others, they respond with their own actions and behaviour accordingly, hence creating their own social reality. This social reality is conceptualised as symbolic, communicative and subjective as they act towards objects and people in their environment on the basis of meanings these objects and people have for them.

Previous research literature by Kelchtermans and Vandenberghe (1994) and Acker (1999) cited in Day et al. (2006), have also demonstrated that a knowledge of the self is important to enable teachers to construct the nature of their work and that the personal lives of teachers are inevitably linked to professional lives. Sumsion (2002) noted that teacher identities are constructed 'as the result of an interaction between the personal experiences of teachers and the social, cultural and institutional environment in which they function on a daily basis' (Sleegers and Kelchtermans, 1999:579, cited in Day et al., 2006:603). Therefore, it is to be expected that professional and personal identities are intertwined, given the emotional investment that teaching involves.

In his study, Kelchtermans (1993) studied the career stories of ten experienced Belgian primary school teachers and found that stability in the job leads to job satisfaction. On the other hand, vulnerability to the judgements of colleagues, head teacher and parents may cause them to 'play safe' and be conservative in teaching. Thus, Day (2004) noted that a positive sense of identity with subject, relationships and roles is important to maintaining self-esteem, commitment to and a passion for teaching. That is to say, a healthy, positive holistic experience in teaching allows a positive identity to develop.

Nias' (1989) study identified a dichotomy between the personal and professional aspects of teachers' lives and identities. She argued for the recognition of the former as being crucial to the understanding of teachers in their working lives. The 'teacher identity' was incorporated into an individual's self-image over time. Early career teachers' selves ('me') were relatively independent of their social self ('teacher') and were only likely to incorporate their professional role into their self-image and thus identify *themselves* as 'teachers'.

Another key contribution of Nias' research concerned the differences in commitment between teachers' performance and motivation. Commitment was demonstrated by involvement and activity beyond the call of duty, going that extra mile. It was through reference to levels of 'commitment' that the teachers distinguished between those who were seen to 'care about the children' and 'take the job seriously' and those who did not, between those who were 'real teachers' and those whose interests were elsewhere, between those who are 'professionals' and those who are not (Nias, 1989:30-32). This may be especially relevant in the case where teachers have issues with their professional identity due to the lack of formal teaching qualifications.

Beijaard (1995:282) drew upon Nias's study and added further insight on teacher identity and referred it as 'who or what someone is, the various meanings someone can attach to oneself or the meanings attributed to oneself by others'. He noted the significance of pupil agency in this process. Drawing on the work of Riseborough (1985), Beijaard proposed that pupils' attitudes and behaviour may have profound

effects upon the teacher's 'self ('me') and his/her positional at the school level as 'teacher', or 'adult'. The more personal and professional selves are integrated into teacher identity; the more this is affected by positive or negative pupil behaviour.

Both Beijaard (1995) and Nias (1989) concluded that an important element of teachers' identities were related to their experiences of school; whether the culture of the school empower or constrain the achievements of 'satisfaction', 'commitment' and 'motivation' and the impact it has on teachers' constructions of their identities and the acceptance or rejection of the identity 'teacher' as an aspect of self. Thus it can be concluded that the context within which the teachers work is of paramount importance to the building of teacher identity.

Clandinin and Connelly (1988) have argued that teacher knowledge is fundamental to teacher identity. Xu and Connelly (2009:223) stated that 'teacher identity expresses personal practical knowledge gained in experience, learned contextually, and expressed on landscapes of practice. With reference to teacher education programmes, teacher knowledge is personal knowledge and touches their identity as teachers and persons'. These findings reinforced the importance of personal practical knowledge as an important contributor to the building of teacher identity.

In contrast, Bullough (2008) cautioned the idea of 'living' a professional identity against a 'performing' one. He described two beginning teachers who were either unable to act out a professional identity or who had chosen one that did not fit. In the former, the teacher was uncertain as to what shape her identity might take, thus allowing herself to be entirely influenced by her situation. In the latter, the teacher had decided that a strict, disciplinarian persona was the only way to manage the classroom situation. In another case, a colleague, preparing to teach, said...'time to put on my teaching mask...It's like playing a part. I have a teacher's face that I wear when teaching' (Bullough, 1992:65-66). Thus, it can be concluded that teachers respond to identity making differently.

According to Mead (1934), identity is not static; it is not something one has, but develops and evolves during one's whole life; it is dynamic. He used the concept of identity in relationship with the concept of self - how the self is developed through socialisation with the environment. Gee (2001, cited in Beijaard, Meijer and Verloop, 2004) sees identity development as a process of interpreting oneself as a certain kind of person and being recognised as such in a given context. In this context, then, identity can also be seen trying to answer the question 'Who am I at this moment?'

The concept of identity is used in different ways in the domain of teaching and teacher education. Building on the work of various other researchers, Beijaard et al. (2004) identified the following four features essential for teachers' professional identity in their study.

Firstly, professional identity is an *ongoing process* of interpretation and re-interpretation of experiences (Kerby, 1991). This notion corresponds with the ideas that teacher development is best seen as a process of lifelong learning aiming to answer 'who do I want to become?' which is in line with what Conway (2001) called the function of anticipatory reflection that implies professional identity as a dynamic, ongoing process.

Secondly, professional identity implies both the *person and context*. The way teachers think and behave professionally is contingent on the value they personally attach to them, thus concurring with Blumer's (1969) framework on symbolic interactionism (SI). Blumer (1969), theoretical framework of SI is that people act towards things on the basis of the meanings those things have for them. In this case, teachers interact socially and respond to the actions of one another. This socio-cultural approach focuses on the process of becoming a member of a certain community through participating in a constructive and socially situated process. Thus learning is inextricably bound with identity formation. In addition, Feiman-Nemser and Floden (1986) found that as teachers differed in the way they deal with their school context, therefore, every teacher may develop his or her own teaching identity.

Thirdly, a teacher's professional identity consists of *sub-identities*. The notion of sub-identities can be seen as the core of teachers' professional identity which may conflict. Volkmann and Anderson (1989) found that during initial teacher training, student teachers often experience such conflict. They need to move from having the mind-set of being a student to that of being a teacher very early during the teaching practicum; such as being at school before it starts, being prepared with lesson plans and being suitably attired. In the context of teacher training this conflict is quite unavoidable, hence the need to resolve them, and much learning can come from such a process. Connelly and Clandinin (1988) mentioned that even experienced teachers may experience such conflict in cases of educational change or change in their immediate working environment.

Finally, *agency* is an important element of professional identity, meaning that teachers need to have ownership in the process of professional development (Coldron and Smith, 1999). This element of professional identity formation is in line with a constructivist view of learning, individually as well as in collaboration through the participation of learning by the learner.

Identity formation thus 'is a process of practical knowledge building characterised by an ongoing integration of what is individually and collectively seen as relevant to teaching' (Beijaard et al., 2004:123).

Geijssel and Meijers (2005) proposed to integrate this model by treating the formation of teacher identity as a continuous learning process, where each professional

experience is re-thought against a background of reciprocal interactions and emotions and knowledge and where an experience can be both deeply individual and one which is experienced by peers. Thus, the development of teacher identity can be seen as a continuous learning process where not only behaviour, but also the creation of related meaning (Rodgers and Scott, 2008) and social context in a wider perspective should be a focus (Bullough and Gitlin, 2001).

According to Timoštšuk and Ugaste (2010:1565), 'learning about teaching is the crux of teacher education, and a social concept of learning facilitates an in-depth approach to this complex process'. Lave and Wenger (1991) placed situated learning in certain forms of social co-participation where appropriate kinds of social engagements can serve as the proper context for learning to take place. Wenger (1998:4) saw learning 'as social participation, an activity that can be described as the process of being active participants in social communities and constructing identities in relation to these communities'.

Wenger (1998:215) claimed that 'learning changes what we are and what we can do – it is not solely the collection of skills and information, but a process of formation; a formation of a certain personality, or, avoiding the formation of a certain personality'. He described learning in four strands; *meaning*, learning as experiencing one's life and the surrounding world as meaningful; *practice*, learning as doing joint action relying on common (shared) historical and social resources, background systems and viewpoints; *community*, learning as belonging to a social community in which our activities are recognised as valuable and competent; and *identity*, learning as becoming someone where an understanding of how learning in the context of the community affects and moulds us. Wenger's contributions to the understanding of the process of identity formation are instrumental to the understanding we have today, that is to say learning is a journey where colleagues are committed jointly to develop better practices.

In conclusion, Sachs (2005:15 cited in Beauchamp and Thomas, 2009:178) states that

'teacher professional identity then stands at the core of the teaching profession. It provides a framework for teachers to construct their own ideas of 'how to be', 'how to act' and 'how to understand' their work and their place in society. Importantly, teacher identity is not something that is fixed, nor is it imposed; rather it is negotiated through experience and the sense that is made of that experience'.

Using socio-cultural theory, this chapter has examined some of the ways in which teachers gain pedagogical knowledge. It has explored how teachers develop their practice, seeking to explore how teacher development occurs in relation to both trained and untrained teachers. It has focused on curriculum development and lesson planning strategies, the effectiveness of Continuing Professional Development

programmes and the development of teacher identity. In particular, it has focussed on self-directed collaborative staff development mechanisms where these are developed in concert with, rather than imposed upon teachers, leading to identity building through self-empowerment and self-development. It links together the processes whereby untrained ESL teachers learn to teach through informal socialisation experiences and formal in-house CPD programmes. Situated knowledge, both tacit and pedagogical knowledge thus produced can be converted into pedagogical practices through CPD provision and self-reflection, leading to identity formation.

These processes are summarised conceptually in Figure 2.5.

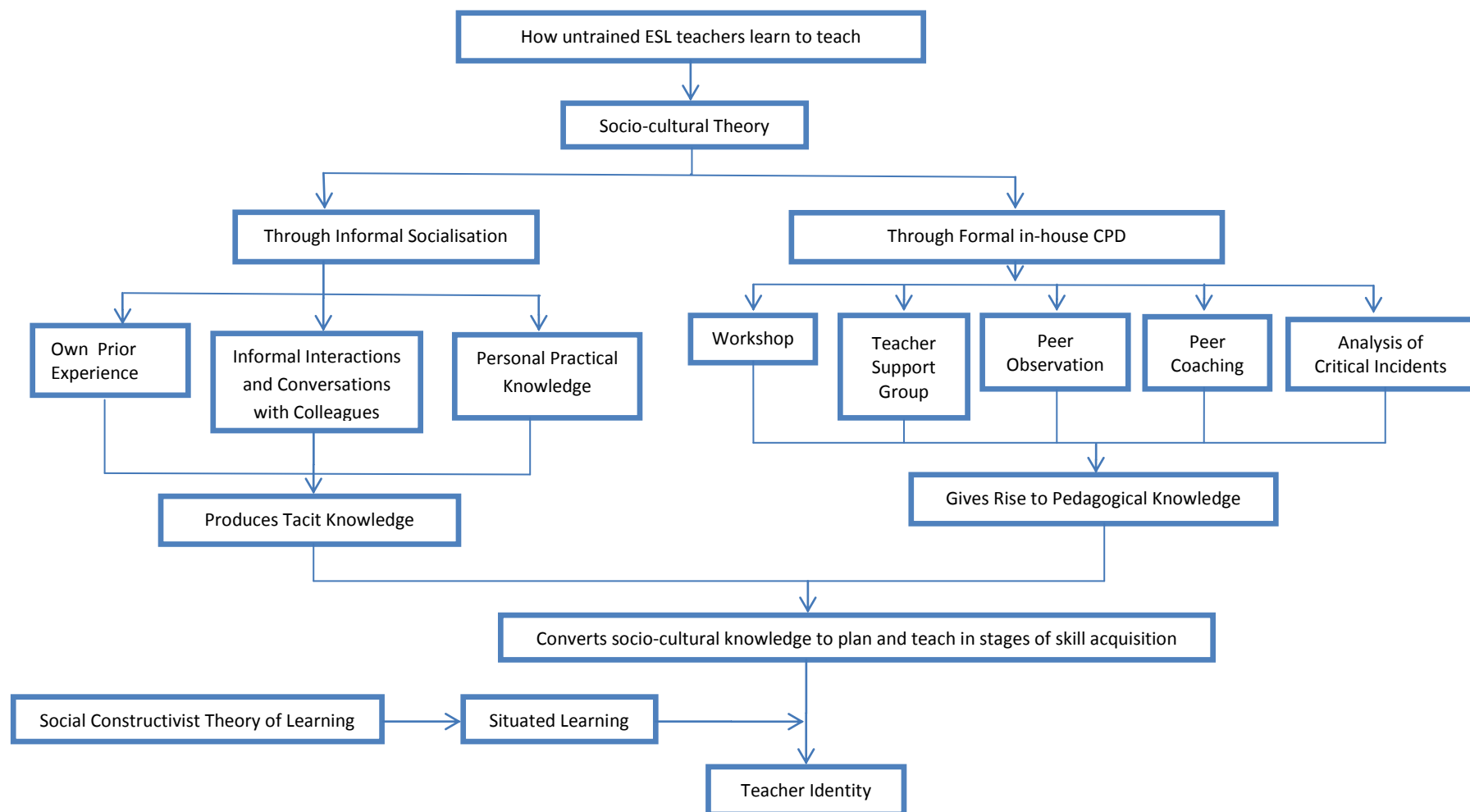


Figure 2.5 How untrained ESL teachers learn through a socio-cultural pathway and the development of teacher identity

2.6 Summary

This literature review refines the understanding and the importance of the research questions. In this chapter, the traditional pathway to teacher training is discussed with a special focus on how teachers learn through the transmissive model (including the teaching practicum) in general; and more specifically how untrained ESL teachers in a specific private language centre in Malaysia learn to teach through an alternative pathway having not gone through a formal teacher training programme. Although pre-service teachers typically find the practicum useful, there are common complaints that it comes too late (in the last semester) and leaves them little time to address gaps they have found in their professional preparation before they graduate. This model of teaching emphasises the transmission of knowledge and thus favours an expository, teacher-centred pedagogical approach. Teachers are treated as passive recipients of information whose main task is seen as the transmission of authoritative knowledge.

In this study, the first specific research question examines how teachers approach the curriculum with a particular focus on ELT and the impact it has on their lesson planning strategies. The three different approaches to the curriculum using three different planning strategies have shown the different ways teachers engage themselves with it. With experience, they progress in stages from the novice level to the expert level as their teaching skills develop.

While there is no doubt that formal education teacher training programmes have contributed greatly to teacher development, the workplace also has an important role in teachers' professional development. The workplace provides a rich ecological perspective that takes into account the totality of the contextual factors (social, political, cultural, institutional and classroom) and their multi-faceted interactions. The teachers' pre-existing knowledge, work experience and beliefs need not be ignored. They engage in a range of professional activities such as lesson planning, teaching, and sharing their skills and knowledge as well as using their colleagues as sounding boards for new ideas. They also seek assistance from each other when planning their lessons, when designing teaching resources and aids and doing peer observation

This is linked to the second specific research question which investigates the provision of an institutionalised CPD programme at its core to providing CPD to all teachers, both trained and untrained. It is a fibre that is woven through the fabric of the school culture. Collective collaboration of this nature is a form of continuous, systemic, professional staff development which offers a number of advantages. It makes professional exchange a necessary and sustained part of work, helps develop a shared language for representing teaching practices and forces 'dispositions, norms and habits conducive to teachers learning and the improvement of teaching practice' (Little, 2003: 938). All these contribute to the formation and maintenance of facilitative and supportive relationships and prevent professional isolation.

Another advantage is that individual teachers' strengths are tapped, collective expertise shared, resulting in a synergetic effect. It also provides a support structure for novice teachers, providing them with meaningful learning opportunities as well as emotional support. Because helping and support are common behavioural norms in the workplace, the culture of collaborative learning helps to define the social concept of learning, whereby identity is defined through participating in learning experiences, and belonging.

It is therefore important that the teacher remains a learner, especially as knowledge about the world is changing at a pace never experienced before. Knowledge about learning is also developing rapidly, and to prevent professional obsolescence, the teaching profession must seek to continuously engage in learning. Hence, the importance of CPD cannot be overstated, especially in the context of this study. Through collaborating with their colleagues, the teachers enrich themselves as learners, and as they experience a range of pedagogical situations, they become reflective, critical and questioning, with a view to improving their own pedagogical practice. During this process, teachers construct and reconstruct usually tacitly, a sense of who they are, and this is manifested through what they do.

Using the socio-cultural theory perspective, the teachers not only exchange, share and benefit from each other's experiences, they are committed to develop better practices in the school. Learning is viewed as a social activity, where learning opportunities occur through informal and formal interactions between colleagues in the context of work. Thus, they are more than a community of learners; they are a community that learns. Thus, new ideas can germinate, new methods and resources developed and new communities take root.

Thus, this literature review has discussed the traditional cognitive perspective of teacher education and how an alternative route to teacher education through a socio-cultural perspective using constructivist approaches can enable untrained ESL teachers develop their own pedagogical knowledge for teaching. This is further linked to the third specific research question which addresses the processes by which such teachers construct their own professional identity through the learning process within a context. This could be in the form of constructing knowledge in a social and cultural context, their experiences in school with other teachers or their students or self-reflection.

Thus the three specific research questions are interlinked as they each individually and collectively relate to how teachers gain knowledge via institutional provisions, leading eventually to the construction of an identity as a teacher.

In the next chapter, the research methodology adopted for this thesis is presented.

Chapter Three

Research Methodology

3.0 Introduction

The aim of this research project is to answer the research question which is how untrained teachers at a language centre in Malaysia who are non-native speakers of the English language manage with the business of teaching, many of whom have gone into teaching after undergoing a career switch. The study is also about how these teachers construct their sense of professional identity and their perception of the effectiveness of institutional support in enabling them to learn to be effective teachers.

In Chapter 2, the relevant literature was reviewed with the three specific research questions under the three sub-headings:

1. Curriculum development and lesson planning strategies

SRQ 1 What strategies do such teachers adopt when planning their lessons?

2. Effectiveness of Continuing Professional Development programmes

SRQ 2 How do institutional support mechanisms, both formal and informal, enable their work?

3. Teacher identity

SRQ 3 How do they construct their professional identity?

This chapter focuses on the research methods adopted in addressing the specific research questions.

3.1 The Paradigmatic positions of Positivism and Interpretivism in educational research

Mortimore (2000:5) stated that 'the main aim of educational research is to replace anecdotal accounts with evidence when making the case for policy changes and practice by observing and recording systematically, analysing and drawing out implications, publishing findings and attempting to improve educational processes and outcomes'. He continues to say that 'however, it is difficult to come to a consensus as

to what constitutes evidence due to the diversity of perceptions and views that might exist'. Therefore, perspectives on these issues are shaped by the researcher's epistemological and ontological positions. In addition, the purpose and research approach determine the appropriate paradigm to be used.

A paradigm, in the words of Thomas Kuhn, is 'the entire constellation of beliefs, values and techniques shared by members of a given scientific community' (Kuhn, 1970:75). The two main research paradigms are positivism and interpretivism. Positivism accepts the natural sciences as the paradigm of human knowledge. According to Gall, Gall and Borg (1999:13), 'positivists believe that there is a real world out there that can be subjected to scientific study similar to those in the physical science.' Gall et al. (1999) added that purists of this persuasion believe that reality can be made known objectively through using numerical variables, the results of which can be quantified and thus generated time and time again. A common method of data gathering is by using prepared questionnaires which can be administered to a sample drawn from the target population resulting in a quantitative study. In such cases, 'the researcher is an outsider, and is removed from the object of inquiry so as to minimise any bias by not having any close interaction with the participants, thus maintaining an *'etic view'* (Gall et al., 1999:293). The objective is to test scientific laws to explain the results.

In contrast, the interpretivist paradigm is more concerned with trying to explain the complexity of the social world. It is less concerned with testing laws, but is more concerned with embracing the notion of multiple perspectives or realities which are contingent on the individual subjective experiences and sense making. Merriam (1998:6) asserted that 'reality is constructed by individuals interacting with their social world'. Unlike quantitative research, qualitative research is more likely to study a single case of individuals, institutions or situations, with the objective of understanding the nature of that case and perhaps also of comparing the case with other cases. This, according to Gall et al., (1999:293) often meant that 'the qualitative researcher is closely linked to the object of study, thus resulting in an *emic* view of the study'.

With specific reference to educational research, the qualitative approach is sometimes referred to as the naturalistic approach (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). Powney and Watts (1987:3) described it as 'the systematic, empirical and critical inquiry into matters which directly or indirectly concern the learning and teaching of children and adults'. Punch (2005) noted that positivists believe that the methodological procedure of natural sciences may be directly applied to social sciences. This implies that a social scientist in observing a phenomenon is able to come to a similar end point as the researcher doing research in the natural sciences that tend to present their findings in laws and scientific theories. However, scholars such as Creswell (2007), Bogdan and Biklen (2003) suggested that positivist approaches struggle to convey the complexity that is the reality of educational organisations. The complexity of human behaviour

completely negates the idea that scientific relationships are a simple cause and effect law.

3.2 Justification for Using the Interpretivist Paradigm and Qualitative Approaches

The interpretive paradigm, within which this study is located, is rooted in the epistemological belief that 'social reality is constructed by the people who participate in it, and is constructed differently by different individuals' (Gall, Borg and Gall, 1996:18). That is to say, there is more than one 'reality', and it is individual perception that gives meanings. Easterby-Smith et al., (1994:78) argued that, 'the world and reality are not objective and exterior, but a socially constructed and given meaning by people'.

In a similar vein, the aim of the present study is to search for a constructed reality of how unqualified teachers teach ESL, and this can only be understood through the lenses of the teachers concerned. As a result of this epistemological outlook, qualitative research methods such as face-to-face in-depth interviews and classroom observations which are case specific and are not meant to be generalisable are usually adopted. Another reason for choosing the qualitative approach is the exploratory nature of the study as concepts such as 'perceptions', 'feelings', 'socialisation' and 'thought processes' are resistant to quantification.

Qualitative research has the unique goal of facilitating the meaning-making process. The complexity of meaning in the experiences of people has much to do with how meaning is attributed to different objects, people and life events. The construction of meaning is the task of the qualitative research and reflects the specific methods used in the qualitative data analysis process. The qualitative data analysis process is a highly intuitive activity. As such, it is its epistemological nature and assumptions that make qualitative data analysis a rich and intricate exercise and has the ability to generate new levels and forms of meanings, which can in turn, transform perspectives and actions. Indeed, Krauss (2005) argued that this is an often overlooked yet important aspect of qualitative research.

Krauss (2005) built on the work of Lofland and Lofland (1996) and went on to say that the naturalistic inclination for direct observations and comprehension of the social world in qualitative data analysis often reflects a certain epistemology that include two main tenets: (1) that face-to-face interaction aids in the understanding of the meanings of the words as understood and used by the individual, and (2) that one must participate in the mind of another human being in order to acquire social knowledge. These epistemological considerations comprise the guiding foundations for the data analysis process in naturalistic inquiry. Data analysis techniques in qualitative research are thus guided by an epistemology reflective of a paradigm that attempts to acquire social knowledge.

Epistemological and ontological assumptions are then translated into distinct methodological strategies. The goal of a qualitative investigation is to understand the complex world of human experience and behaviour from the lenses of those involved. Therefore, the researcher is not expected to have an *a priori*, well-delineated conceptualization of the phenomenon; rather this conceptualization will emerge from the interaction between the participants and the researcher. Sidani and Sechrest (1996) advocated flexibility in design, data collection and data analysis to yield 'deep' understanding and valid representations of the participants' viewpoints.

During data analysis, the researcher sets aside any preconceived knowledge and is open and sensitive to the participants' response. Creswell (1994) asserted that it is necessary for the researcher to record his or her own biases, feelings and thoughts and to state them explicitly in the research report. However, as there is no 'right way' of conducting it, the process of data analysis is described as 'eclectic'. The purpose is not necessarily to identify only the 'typical', but also to be open to what Popper (1959) coined as the 'black swan' phenomena, that is to say, a theory can be shown to be wrong and a new theory is introduced which better explains the phenomena.

With specific reference to the context under study, the nature of the research lends itself to an approach that allows the teachers' voice to be heard. The aim here is to hear the teachers' perspectives and to explore their journeys as they take an alternative route to being a teacher, a 'thick description' (Gall, Borg and Gall, 1996) as told by the teachers themselves. Conversely, it is not the aim to test a hypothesis or give scientific explanations using numerical analysis theory from their accounts. Rather, my role as a researcher here is to make sense of these data that emanate from the teachers and to generate a theory, grounded in their experiences. As such, this clearly locates my study within the interpretivist paradigm.

3.3 Research approach – Qualitative Case Study

This section presents the justification for the research approach used in this study. Having presented the paradigmatic stand on which this study based, it is imperative to build a research design that is consistent with the overall paradigm and the related research questions. This research applies the 'interpretive case study approach' (Trochim, 2006), as opposed to the 'descriptive case study' which presents a detailed account of the phenomenon under study or the 'evaluative case study' which involves description, explanation and judgment. This is justified on the grounds that 'interpretive case study' uses thick, rich descriptions to develop conceptual categories to illustrate and support the study. In the present research, the term 'centre' is used interchangeably with 'school' and 'institution' to denote the organisation under study.

Another reason for the use of the case study approach here is the fact that it is particularly suitable in trying to understand situations where there is complexity in relationships involving subjective elements within a given boundary which may be a group of teachers (as in this case) or an individual, organisation, event, programme or a community. It recognises the context as a unique and dynamic system and thus makes it particularly appropriate for theory building.

On the other hand, to offer a balanced view, one needs to take cognisance of any weaknesses that may be inherent in the approach. As most qualitative case studies are limited in terms of boundedness, they are necessarily small and hence do not seek to be generalisable in other contexts. It is also crucial to seek clarity with regards to the claims it can make, given the limitations it normally operates in. Another important area of concern is the ethical considerations concerning the study, especially in the case of the insider researcher. It may be challenging to present all the data in an anonymous fashion especially if the researcher is closely related to the case. This issue is discussed in more detail later in this chapter.

3.4 Sampling methods and sample selection

Sampling is 'a broad ranging term within social research' (Honigmann, 1982: 78), as well as 'an essential component of it' (Burgess, 1982:75). As it is often not possible for research to cover every informant, selections need to be made. Lincoln and Guba, (1985:201) stated that the purpose of sampling is 'to include as much information as possible,...hence maximum variation sampling will usually be the sampling mode of choice', and in this case, all the teachers who do not have formal teaching qualifications were invited to participate in the study.

There are different types of sampling from which the researchers can choose: 'statistical and theoretical' (Burgess, 1982:76), or 'random and purposeful' (Patton, 1990:182). Within these main types, there are many possible alternatives. Purposeful sampling 'selects information-rich cases for in-depth study' and the 'size and specific cases depend upon study purposes' (Patton, 1990:182). Random sampling is inappropriate for the present study as the purpose is not to make claims of generalisability from the sample to the wider population.

According to Glaser and Strauss (1967:49), the basic question in sampling is 'what groups or subgroups does one turn to next in data collection? And for what theoretical purpose?' They argued that the 'researcher chooses any groups that will generate, to the fullest extent, as many properties of the categories as possible, and that will help relate categories to each other and to their properties'. In this study, maximum variation sampling model is adopted.

A key issue of research design is the selection of cases for interviewing. Before conducting the actual interviewing for the actual study, purposeful sampling was adopted for the pilot interviews with three teachers. The three teachers selected to participate in the pilot case were chosen based on their fluency in the language and the fact that they were graduates from universities overseas and were able to articulate their thoughts and opinions readily. They were also familiar with the notion of research and there was also the element of easy access as they worked flexitime.

For the main study, maximum variation sampling as defined by Gall, Gall and Borg (1999) was used to gain the range of variation of the teachers' backgrounds. The purpose of this strategy is to 'document the range of variation in the study and to determine whether common themes, patterns, constructs cut across the variation' (Gall, Gall and Borg, 1999:179).

Sample details are discussed in a later section.

3.4.1 Pilot interviews

Prior to the actual interviews, a pilot study was done to ensure that the questions were clear and could be easily understood by the respondents. In addition, a more crucial purpose of the piloting process was to ensure that the questions generated the data in accordance with the specific research questions.

Pilot interviews were conducted with three teachers in July 2009. The three teachers selected for the pilot interview came into ESL teaching from different academic and working backgrounds – one (since left) had a degree in IT, another (Ruby) had a degree in Humanities and a Religious diploma, while the third (Noor) had a diploma in Early Childhood Education.

While it is not typical for pilot participants to be included in the final sample, two of the three (one had in the interim, left the institution) were included in the final sample as the total sample size (17) is already rather small. However, the data from the pilot study were not drawn into the main findings and discussion. The main purpose was to trial the interview questions to ensure their relevance and clarity for the actual study, thus contributing to the dependability of the interview process and in turn the trustworthiness of the study.

The interviews were conducted in a quiet office or in an unused classroom and a digital voice recorder was used to record the interview. From the pilot cases, a clearer idea regarding the length of time required and the importance of putting the respondents at ease was gained. In addition, they were reminded that the interviewer was now 'wearing the hat of a researcher' and that they had the liberty to give their responses

in confidence. All three teachers were cooperative and were very curious and even honoured to be able to take part in a research project, a novel for all three.

The pilot interview revealed some minor problems with the specific interview questions and some refinement was made. For example, the first specific research questions (SRQ) was too long as there were actually three questions in them. Hence it was refined from:

SRQ 1 What strategies do such teachers adopt when planning their lessons? How do the teachers perceive the implementation of these strategies and their effectiveness?

to focus only the lesson planning strategies – where the teachers get their ideas from, and how they use the curriculum and other types of resources to help them plan. The other two specific research questions on CPD and teacher identity did not need modification.

The final set of SRQs were:

1. Curriculum use and lesson planning strategies

SRQ 1 What planning strategies do such teachers adopt when using the curriculum to plan their lessons?

2. Effectiveness of Continuing Professional Development programmes

SRQ 2 How do institutional support mechanisms, both formal and informal, enable their work?

3. Teacher identity

SRQ 3 How do they construct their professional identity?

These questions were further broken into sub-questions in the interview schedule in Table 3.2 and Table 3.3. All the three teachers found the sub-questions clear and easy to understand and had no problems answering them.

3.4.2 Sample for the main study

Seventeen teachers (16 female, 1 male) out of a total teaching staff of thirty two were interviewed. These seventeen in fact represented the entire population of unqualified teachers, of which 7 (Pippa, Jaki, Siaw, Gina, Harn, Lorna and Lil) were considered novice teachers in terms of the definition presented in Chapter 2, as they exhibited characteristics such as feeling less familiar with the curriculum content or social/organisational systems, and having a higher dependency on institutional

guidelines and resources. However, it became clear as the study developed that the novice status is not static, so that some of these participants progressed to other levels of skill acquisition with time – an issue which will be explored further in Chapters 4 and 5. A profile of the participants is listed in Table 3.1. None possessed any teaching qualifications, (thus representing the bounded system) and have made a career switch to teaching ESL, bringing with them prior knowledge and experience from many different backgrounds.

Number	Name of Teacher (All pseudonyms)	Prior working & educational background	No. of years of work /teaching experience elsewhere	No. of years teaching at language centre
1	Pippa	IT/Journalism	8 years	6 months
2	Jaki	Marketing/Insurance	1 year	6 months
3	Gina	School Leaving Certificate	2 years	4 years
4	Siaw	Information Management Systems	1 year	6 months
5	Lorna	IT systems analyst, IT education & training	30 years	3 years
6	Supiah	Training and broadcasting	25 years	18 years
7	Pritti	Marketing	3 years	8 years
8	Harn	Purchasing & Marketing	1 year	3 years
9	Lil	School Leaving Certificate	3 years	4 years
10	Noor	Accounting/Early Childhood	2 years	8 years
11	Peerle	Commercial Studies & Counselling	3 years	7 years
12	Lori	Office Administration	3 years	3 years
13	Joey	Tourism & Hotel Management	20 years	10 years
14	Ruby	Researcher in semi-government body (Housing Board); Religious Studies	30 years	3 years
15	Alimah	Tourism Industry & Kindergarten teacher	6 years	8 years
16	Tang	Hotel Industry, Religious Training	7 years	7 years
17	Meena	IT	10 years	4 years

Table 3.1 Profile of the teachers taking part in the study

3.5 Data Collection Methods

Three main data collection methods were adopted in this research, namely (1) semi-structured interviews, (2) classroom observations, and (3) documentary analysis. Each of these will be discussed in turn.

3.5.1 Semi-structured interviews

The main data collection method used in this research was in-depth, semi-structured interviewing conducted face-to-face using an interview schedule or aide memoire (see Appendix 1). In-depth qualitative interviewing refers to the 'repeated face-to-face encounters between the researcher and informant directed towards understanding informants' perspectives on their lives, experiences or situations as expressed in their own words' (Taylor and Bogdan, 1998:88). It is often used in qualitative research as 'it permits open-ended exploration of topics and elicits responses that are couched in the unique words of the respondents' (Gall, Borg and Gall, 1996:290). Semi-structured interviews involve a series of questions which are not necessarily strictly adhered to sequentially, thus allowing the participants some latitude in responses, but still offering enough shape to prevent aimless rambling (Johnson, 1994). Hence, the semi-structured interview is particularly well-suited to discover respondents' own meanings and interpretations while they respond to the researcher's general research framework (Shiner and Newburn, 1997).

The decision to use semi-structured interviews is based on the following characteristics defined by Drever (1995:11) – they are 'formal encounters on a subject agreed upon by the researcher and the participants; the main questions set by the interviewer create the overall structure; prompts and probes fill the structure; and the interviewee has a fair degree of freedom about what to talk and how much to say and the interviewer can assert control when necessary '.

Cohen and Manion (2000:268) assert that other strengths 'are that they may be used as the principle means of gathering information having direct bearing on the research objectives; they may be used to test hypothesis or to suggest new ones or as an explanatory device to help identify variables and relationships; and they may also be used in conjunction with other methods'.

In the light of these advantages, Gillham (2000) suggested that face-to-face interviews are appropriate only when small numbers of people are involved and that the participants are accessible to the interviewer. Furthermore, most of the questions are open ended and require an extended response and depth of meaning with only some approximation to typicality.

There are also disadvantages of conducting face-to-face interviews, the main disadvantage being the fact that they are extremely time consuming – the pre interview stage needs planning to get a mutually convenient time (teachers being such busy people); the actual interviewing time needs blocking out other appointments to clear the time allocated for it, and finally the post interview stage which sees the researcher engaging in a tremendous amount of work in transcribing the interviews.

Effective time management and careful planning were strategies used by the researcher to overcome these issues.

In this study, each teacher was interviewed twice, the pre-observation interview and the post-observation interview. Each interview lasted between one to one and a half hours and it took place in a quiet office. The interviews were taped using a digital voice recorder with the respondents' consent. All but one agreed to be taped. In that case, notes were written to ensure that the responses were recorded.

3.5.2 Design of the Interview schedule

All of the interviews were conducted in English and were semi-structured in nature. The questions were based on a framework of sub-questions taken from the specific research question. The interview schedules contained the core common questions which were asked of all the respondents. It is important to prepare a schedule for a number of reasons. According to Cohen and Manion (2000:275), it 'serves as a guide for the researcher to ensure that the questions that are meant to be asked are not left out to maintain consistency'. In addition, the interview schedule ensured that aimless rambling was avoided.

The interview questions emanated from the SRQs, as they provided a significant part of the research data to help answer the overarching research question. Cohen et al., (2000:276) reminded us that 'another important aspect of the interview questions is that they should normally start from a general question and logically flow to more specific ones'.

The pre-observation interview schedule

The questions in the pre-observation schedule focused on gathering data regarding the strategies the teachers used while planning their lesson. This is shown below in Table 3.2.

Item	Interview Questions on Lesson Planning	Purpose of question
1a	Where do get your ideas to plan your lesson?	To explore how and from where the teachers obtain their ideas when planning their lessons.
1b	What resources do you use to plan your lesson?	To explore how they use the curriculum and other types of resources to help them plan.
1c	Do you seek help when/if you face difficulties?	To understand the strategies teachers use when/if they face difficulties.

1d	Who do you seek help from?	To find out to whom the teachers turn for advice.
1e	How long does it take on average, for you to plan your lesson?	To understand factors such as time and effort the teacher puts into lesson planning.
1f	When do you usually do your lesson planning?	To find out how the teacher fits lesson planning into his/her daily routine.
1g	How useful do you find the lesson plan in enabling you to teach?	To understand the teacher's degree of dependence on the lesson plans.
1h	Do you reflect after each lesson on how it went?	To explore the extent to which teachers engaged in self-reflection.

Table 3.2 The pre-observation interview schedule

The questions in the post-observation schedule focused on gathering data regarding their perceptions of the effectiveness of the CPD (questions 2a to 2f) in helping them in their teaching, as well as the development of their professional identity (questions 3a to 3g). An extract of both is shown below in Table 3.3.

Item	Interview Questions on CPD	Purpose of question
2a	Have you used any of the activities discussed in the workshops with your students?	To discover the teacher's perceptions of the relevance of activities from the training workshops in enabling them to teach.
2b	If so, can you give a specific example?	To encourage the teacher to recall which activities they have applied to their lesson.
2c	How did the students find them?	To seek feedback regarding students' response regarding the activity.
2d	If not, would you incorporate them in your lesson plan and try them out?	To find out whether they would use the activities if they had not done so.
2e	I understand you have made a career switch to teaching ESL. To what extent are you able to transfer your prior knowledge and skills to your current job?	To find out the degree of transference of existing knowledge and skills.
2f	I would like you to recall the lesson that was	To allow the teachers to

	observed on _____ (day). Were there any critical moments, either positive or negative for you and did it have an impact on your future lessons?	recall any critical incident and whether it had made an impact in their future lessons.
Item	Interview Questions on Professional Identity	Purpose of question
3a	When you first started teaching here, how did you feel about teaching?	To seek the teachers' perceptions towards teaching in the initial stage.
3b	Have these feelings changed since then? In what way?	To find out whether the initial perceptions towards have changed and how has it changed.
3c	How do you feel about teaching now?	To discover what their current perceptions are.
3d	Do you feel you are able to learn from your colleagues in a collaborative manner?	To find out if the teachers engage in collaborative work.
3e	Do you feel you get enough support from school management?	To seek the teacher's perceptions of the role of the school management in providing support to help them in their teaching.
3f	What are your personal goals for this year?	To elicit their personal goals.
3g	What are your professional goals for this year?	To understand what their professional goals are.

Table 3.3 The post-observation interview schedule

In addition, a system for data storage and coding was needed to facilitate retrieval of data for coding and verification. Lincoln and Guba (1985:319) recommended the development of the 'audit trail' for this purpose which is 'the detailed record of the decisions made before and during the research and a description of the research process'. In accordance with this recommendation, face-to-face interviews with the participants were recorded transcribed, coded and filed. All data were stored in electronic form in computer files. Backups in the form of hard copies were also kept in ring files. These documents were referenced and filed to ensure that all data were easily accessible for use.

The sequence of the interviews was recorded in chronological order. This included the voice recorder reference, the approximate length of time of the interviews and the date the transcript was verified by the teacher.

An example of the sequence of data collection is summarised in Table 3.4 below.

Voice recorder reference	Teacher	Date of pre-observation interview (1 to 1 ½ hours)	Date of class observation (1 to 2 hours)	Date of post observation interview (1 to 1 ½ hours)	Date interview script verified
Folder A Tape 21	Jaki	11 -2- 2010	23 -2-2010 (due to a week of Chinese New Year hols)	25-2-2010	23-3-2010
Folder A Tape 24	Gina	2-3-2010	3-3-2010	5-3-2010	24-3-2010

Table 3.4 An extract showing data collection schedule

3.5.3 Classroom observations

Observations of classroom behaviour are generally intended for reviewing the teaching process and its possible relationship to learning. Tsai (2008) stated that the main purpose of observation is not to judge subjectively what is good or bad teaching, but to work with teachers to explore and identify the limitations as well as the positive aspects in a lesson, thereby promoting teacher's critical thinking and professional growth. Such a view is held by Williams (1989:85) who stated that in-service teachers' training programmes help teachers to 'develop their own judgments of what go on in their classroom, and heighten their ability to evaluate their own teaching practices'.

The observation strategy used was non-participatory (Punch, 2005), and the focus was the teacher. The object of the observations was the verbal and non-verbal interactions between the teacher and all the students in the class. The role of classroom observations in this study is an integral part of CPD and takes advantage of an existing process to provide data. Because this is an established internal procedure, particular care was taken to avoid bias and is addressed through the development of an observation protocol to ensure impartiality. The observation protocol here followed a three-pronged approach. Firstly, a pre-observation interview was planned for the teacher to discuss the lesson to be taught with the observer. During this time, the teacher 'walked through' the lesson plan and articulated what and how she/he had planned to execute the lesson.

Secondly, the researcher observed the lesson, during which the verbal and non-verbal interactions between the teacher and the students in the classroom – with reference to (and therefore in comparison with) lesson plan were the focus. This was important as it allowed the researcher to see if the teacher had carried out what had been

intended in the lesson plan. In addition, the way the teacher responded to critical incidents, both positive and negative, and the strategies employed to address that incident were the focus of the observation. In this respect, various aspects of ESL teaching such as the achievement of learning outcomes as well as managing behaviour for learning were looked into, to allow a first-hand account of the way the teachers manage their teaching.

Finally, a post-observation interview was held to enable the teacher to discuss any events or issues that may have arisen during the lesson. These included both events or issues recalled spontaneously by the teachers and those prompted by the interviewer. The sequence of events, the audit trail is summarised in Table 3.4.

The data were collected by making notes of what had been observed using the lesson plan as a guide (See Appendix 2). This was recorded in the researcher's Lesson Observation record book. An extract of the observation notes is shown in Table 3.5 below. In addition, 'memos' (Glaser, 1978) which are notes written to serve as a reminder to the researcher as well as to add more details of the lesson observation. It is also a form of data triangulation as observations made were discussed with the teachers during the post observation interviews as a further step to validate the interviews.

Open coding of Classroom observation notes

Date: 25 May 2010

Class: C2T Teacher: AS No. of students:14 Age of students: 8 years

Usual class time 2.15- 5.15pm	Coding
<p>2.13pm Pre-starter activity. Ss doing a word search which is also a colouring activity, copying a spelling list of 10 words.</p> <p>On board is a mini lesson plan.</p> <p style="text-align: right;"><u>Today's plan</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Copy spelling list - Come to a bbq - Food from far and wide - Guessing game - Ask your partner <p>2.15 Tr: Let's look at the time. What time is it? Ss: 2.15 Tr: Let's start. We'll continue the colouring later on. Pencils down. Ss comply</p>	<p>Class routine</p> <p>Lesson plan;</p> <p>Eliciting;</p> <p>Class routine; ss compliance</p>

<p>2.16</p> <p>Starter</p> <p>A ss walks in. Teacher greets her, she responds. Good afternoon, Shelly. Good afternoon, Ms Alimah</p> <p>Tr greets 2 more ss who had just walked in. Asks Andrew to settle down. 'Andrew, settle down, thank you'.</p> <p>Tr writes I like to eat.....on board. Tr asks a few ss what they like to eat. S1: I like to eat sausages Tr: make me a sentence S1: I like to eat sausages</p> <p>Tr goes round class, asking Tr: Yun Yee, what do you like to eat? Yun Yee: Fried chicken Tr: Who likes to eat fried chicken? Raise your hands, straight up. A few students responded by raising their hands.</p> <p>Tr continues: Tr: Andrew? Andrew: fried chicken</p> <p>Tr: Shirley? Shirley: Spaghetti</p> <p>Tr: who haven't I asked yet? Olivia raises hand. Pizza, chicken.</p> <p>Other ss's responses-soup, porridge, milk shakes.</p> <p>2.25</p> <p>Tr announces the day's objectives. Title: Food from far and wide - a poem Tr helps recall by reminding ss they had done a poem-<i>The bicycle</i>.</p>	<p>Class routine</p> <p>Calls ss by name; polite language</p> <p>Shows structure; elicits from ss</p> <p>Gives opportunity for ss to respond</p> <p>Calls ss by name for response</p> <p>Gives equal attention to ss</p> <p>Clear lesson objectives announced; recalls earlier lesson Role modelling</p>
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Table 3. 5 Classroom observation notes recorded in Lesson Observation record book

However, classroom observations pose some disadvantages as well. There is always the likelihood that being observed might change people's behaviour. The teacher or the students might not carry on as usual with a visitor sitting at the back of the class. Furthermore, because of the short time spent observing the lesson (approximately 1 ½ to 2 hours), it might just be a snap shot of a lesson. This issue was acknowledged as part of the challenges of using qualitative research methods.

In this study, due to the pragmatic reasons and time constraints, there is the inevitable need to balance the scope and depth that can be realistically achieved by a lone researcher.

3.5.4 Documentary analysis

The decision to use documents is based on the fact that documents are usually readily available and unlike interviews or observations, are generally non-reactive and unobtrusive. Document-based data inform research by enhancing the credibility of the research findings and interpretations. In this study, text books, teachers' lesson plans, teaching aids and the curriculum outcomes document were analysed. Such documents enabled a more complete picture of the teaching and learning process. According to Minichiello et al. (1991:1280), an interviewer can check for consistency by ascertaining whether the 'informant's written description, interpretation or analysis of an event, experience or issue is consistent with his/her account of it in an interview' with the documents that is produced. In other words, the researcher can check whether the teacher is doing what is planned in the lesson plan or how closely it is adhered to during the pre and post observations interviews. An extract of a sample teacher's lesson plans is attached in Appendix 3.

3.5.5 Research journal

A research journal is a diary where reflections are recorded which can be recalled at a later date. In the present study, these included conversations with teachers, the researcher's insights and ideas and perceptions of the lesson activity and classroom culture recorded in a diary as field notes. An extract of a sample journal entry is presented in Figure 3. 5.

January 13, 2010 Wednesday

At long last, managed to sit down and did some reading. Must get into the mood of studying again. Went online to search for some articles to get some input. Downloaded an article on creating a catalyst for teacher change through a demo classroom PD initiative. Was thinking re: teachers in my research. A thought struck me – maybe I could study the teachers in the curriculum/year groups especially in a multi-teacher team, how they collaborate on teaching strategies. Was thinking of Siaw and the P3 teachers.

March 2, 2010 Tuesday

Joey asked 'how do the personal characteristics of the teachers help balance the frustrations felt as a teacher?' She mentioned how a joke or humour in the staff room can help defuse a frustrating day teaching. Good point.

April 4, 2010 Tuesday

Noor was confident and well-prepared with toys when teaching the grammar structure for C1. She did a lot of lively activities, had good classroom management and control. There were lots of language drills and practice. It was a good segment of the lesson observed. Just wondered if she had printed out all her lesson plans.

Figure 3.5 An extract of the research journal.

3.6 Data analysis

All these descriptive data (interview data, observation notes, segments of lessons, journal entries, and documents) were then analysed using inductive analysis procedures (Bogdan and Biklen, 2003) through the lens of narrative analysis (Polkinghorne, 1995). Narrative analysis enabled the development of layered interpretations of individual participant data to respond to the study's research questions. These processes involving identifying themes and patterns from the data representing the teachers' strategies in lesson planning, their perceptions of the effectiveness of the institutional CPD programmes in enabling them to teach and their sense of professional identity.

In analysing the data, concepts and categories were identified from recurring concerns and issues. This was done through careful examination of the transcribed interviews and written notes made during classroom observation. While initial coding was influenced by issues explored and/or activities observed during fieldwork, no direct attempt was made to try to match the data to pre-existing concepts; rather themes were allowed to emerge from the data. These themes were derived through reading and re-reading of the interview data and emanated from the teachers' words or phrases showing patterns of thinking behaviour that appear with some regularity both within and between transcripts, such as word, phrase or concept repetitions, or noteworthy utterances during the interviews, what Boeije (2002:395) refers to as 'fragments'.

Early data showed certain codes, and more data were collected to support, extend or disconfirm the categorisation in a process towards an accurate description and

interpretation of the study. As data analysis in qualitative research is an ongoing, emerging and iterative or non-linear process, it is necessarily descriptive and contains little technical language. The emphasis is on describing a specific context and on that basis, data are interpreted. Texts from interviews were transcribed manually and observation notes were analysed. This was done by organising, reducing and describing the data (Smit, 2002), bearing in mind the need to capture the perceptions of the teachers.

The data analysis process began by breaking down the raw data into concepts which Corbin & Strauss (2008) called the building blocks of theory. The concepts that appeared to be related to the same phenomenon were grouped to form categories and its sub-categories or 'connecting' in Boeije's terms. This was achieved through an open coding process.

3.6.1 Open Coding

Open coding is a process of organising data to undergo a process of data reduction. Strauss and Corbin (1990:61) define open coding as 'the process of breaking down, examining, comparing, conceptualising and categorising data'. Raw data are combed through for themes, ideas and categories. This is achieved through reading the data and allowing the codes to emanate from the data.

During the transcribing of the interviews, the plan was to present them in two columns - the actual transcript on the left and the open codes on the right (see Table 3.6). This would make it easy to read and coding was done line by line or paragraph by paragraph. This process involved the 'breaking-up' of data and a label was assigned. Words that appeared regularly, catchy words or phrases were noted as they made good *in vivo* codes. Glaser and Strauss (1967) defined *in vivo* codes as those based on the imagery or meaning words or phrases evoke, or the words of the respondents themselves.

An example taken from Alimah's transcripts is given here.

I'd look at the COD, what we're going to learn'. This shows that she uses the COD which is an institutional resource as the starting point when planning her lesson.

'I'd look at the group of children I'd be teaching, because the children's past experience of how much they already know – I'd add on to that'. Here, she takes into consideration the students' past learning experiences and decided to add on to their existing knowledge.

'When the lesson did not go as well as planned, I would wonder and reflect what the reasons were and what steps I need to put in place to make it work the next time'. This shows that Alimah is able to be reflective in her teaching.

Open coding, the analytic process of examining for significant events, experiences, or feelings are then denoted as concepts (Strauss and Corbin, 1998) included line-by-line, whole paragraph and whole document analyses, which resulted in naming concepts, assigning categories and developing category properties. Concepts were developed using abstracting (breaking down the data) into discrete, meaningful as well as *in-vivo* coding.

Thus, this process involved naming events on the basis of what was understood from the data by the researcher, like 'using institutional resources' or utterances such as 'look at the COD'. When the data matched a concept from the literature such as *a priori* codes (ideas from pre-existing theories), it was borrowed from it, an example of this is 'reflective teaching' (Zeichner and Liston, 1996). Each of these labels was then compared for similarities and differences.

The codes were then grouped into categories which were then summarised into generic concepts to aid in the understanding of the phenomena. A sample of the coding analysis is shown in the next section.

3.6.2 Coding Analysis Sample

Folder B Tape 3 25 May 2010 Preobs interview Teacher: AS

	Coding
<p>RE: Hello. Before we talk about the lesson, I would like to know how you plan your lesson. Now I'm wearing the hat of a researcher. When you plan your lesson, where do you get your ideas from?</p> <p>AS: <i>I'm teaching Cambridge 2 now, I've taught Cambridge 1 before, so I'd know more or less what the children have covered, so when I plan a lesson, I'd look at the Curriculum Outcomes Document first, what are we going to learn, then I'd look at the group of children I'd be teaching, because the children's past experience of how much they already have of a certain lesson, their background, I don't want to re teach them something they already know, so we should actually add on to that. I'm teaching a very important stage, the foundation has to be strong. Sometimes, I do go back to basics, asking the children what's a noun, what's a verb.</i></p> <p>RE: So, when you plan a lesson, what else do you look at, besides the Curriculum Outcomes Document?</p>	<p>Follows COD; gets ideas from past experiences; adds on to existing knowledge</p>

<p>AS: <i>The children's background, so I know what has been covered before. This year I know, because I taught Cambridge 1 before; I know what the children would have achieved in the first year, and what is required in their government schools, I'd look at that as well, see how they can use the English they learn here in their schools, because the parents do look at that. But I think, for my younger group, the pre primary class, I'd be very happy if they speak English and write in proper English, even if it is a short sentence. I use whatever worked or didn't work in the past for planning.</i></p> <p>RE: When you sit down to plan an actual lesson, where do you get your ideas from?</p> <p>AS: <i>Books..children's books, academic books, I've a collection of my own favourite books and Internet now. But, there may be too much information, I have to plan for a certain amount of time, so I need to find something suitable. Usually, I rely a lot on what work they have done in the past.</i></p> <p>RE: Do you use the Teacher's book?</p> <p>AS: <i>Oh yes, I use it.</i></p>	<p>Plans lesson according to ss prior knowledge, bears in mind parents' expectations, uses past experiences, has realistic expectations; uses trial and error</p> <p>Gets ideas from books, Internet, prior knowledge; prior experience</p> <p>Uses tr's bk for ideas</p>
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Table 3.6 Pre-observation interview Script with teacher Alimah
Date verified: 23 June 2010

Lesson Planning	Codes	Categories
<p>SRQ1:</p> <p>How do you go about planning your lesson?</p>	<p>1.follows school's scheme of work 2.follows textbook 3.uses teacher's book 4.uses resources in library</p> <p>5.uses own prior knowledge & experience as well as students' prior knowledge 6. makes teaching aids 7. own reading, Internet</p> <p>8.gets ideas for planning from talking with colleagues 9.gets ideas by talking to family members 10.gets ideas from training workshops & CoPs</p>	<p>Uses resources from Institution</p> <p>Uses historical/personal resources</p> <p>Obtains resources from socialising</p>

Table 3.7 Examples of codes and categories

These initial codes and categories were synthesized into the main themes with reference to the three specific research questions. For the first research question (concerning planning strategies), the main themes that emerged related to the resources used by the teachers in enabling them plan their lessons – they were (1) institutional, (2) social and (3) historical.

For the second research question (institutional support mechanisms), the main themes that emerged relating to the effectiveness of CPD were (1) usefulness, (2) confidence building, (3) reflecting and (4) personal and professional goal setting.

Finally, for the third research question (identity development), the themes emerged relating to the construction of their professional identity were (1) fragile identity and (2) positive and secure identity.

These will be discussed in more detail in Chapters 4 and 5.

3.7 Trustworthiness of the Research

Positivist and interpretivist researchers have their own respective views on how their research can be credible in the eyes of the scholarly community. Hence, validity and reliability are crucial issues that need to be addressed in any research. Reliability refers to the research process being repeatable, bearing similar results when conducted in similar contexts. Validity refers to the findings being an accurate reflection of what the researcher sought to explore and of the social phenomena under investigation.

Because qualitative research is based on different assumptions about reality and perspectives, Guba (1981), Lincoln and Guba, (1985) and Cohen and Manion (2000), proposed different conceptions of validity and reliability. In this case, the researcher is immersed in the process of inquiry, and reality is contingent on the participants' perceptions, unlike quantitative research which is couched in the positivist paradigm and assumes that reality can be objectively known. Lincoln and Guba (1985:219) proposed some 'suggestions and techniques whereby the conventional criterion of validity and reliability be replaced by the concept of trustworthiness'. As this qualitative study is located in the interpretivist paradigm, it adopts the proposal of Guba (1981) that conventional criteria of validity and reliability be supplemented by credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability.

These criteria were achieved through prolonged engagement that showed rigour and transparency. Careful selection of the sample, piloting the interview schedule on three teachers prior to the actual data collection through interviews, and adopting a

systematic approach to data analysis ensured trustworthiness in this research. The audit trail as shown in Table 3.8 below demonstrates the process. First, a pre-observation interview which is recorded in a digital voice recorder and memos were written in a research journal. Secondly, notes written during classroom observations were recorded in the researcher's observation record book. This is followed by a post-observation interview which is also audio recorded and memos written. After transcription, the interviews were verified by the participants before coding was done.

Audit trail	Manner of data storage	Evidence
Collection of raw data Date: 25 May 2010 Venue: My office	Digital voice recorder Folder B Tape ref: 3 Memos written Transcripts in computer	Pre observation interview Research journal
Date: 25 May 2010 Venue: Room 2	Classroom observation notes	Hand written observation notes in Classroom Observation record book
Date: 27 May 2010 Venue: My office	Digital voice recorder Folder B Tape ref: 5 Memos written Transcripts in computer	Post observation interview Research journal
Date: 23 June 2010 Venue: In institution	Hard copies of pre observation interview, classroom observation notes and post observation interview transcripts in own file	Hard copies of pre observation interview, classroom observation notes and post observation interview transcripts verified
Date: 9 September 2010 Date: 9 September 2010 Date: 14 September 2010	Hard copies of pre observation interview, classroom observation notes and post observation interview transcripts	Coding done Coding done Coding done

Table 3.8

Extract from an audit trail - Teacher Alimah

In establishing trustworthiness, the present study adopted the criteria of ‘credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability’ as outlined by Lincoln and Guba (1985:301-320).

Credibility was addressed by prolonged engagement with the participants through interviews, classroom observations, documentary studies which lasted one academic year (January to October 2010 as November was the year-end examination period and no interviews or observations could be done). The three methods of data collection also served as a form of triangulation. The issue of credibility was done through member checking (Punch, 1988) which involved showing the interview transcripts to the participants for their verification before data analysis. In the example above, this was done on 23 June 2010 as there was a mid-year holiday break when the school was closed for one and a half weeks for the *Gawai* (Harvest Festival) holidays as well as to enable teachers to attend the Malaysia English Language Teachers’ Association (MELTA) conference which was held from 16 to 18 June 2010.

Transferability – As this research is a qualitative case study, the extent of transferability or generalisability is limited. It is not something the researcher sets out to achieve. It is how the reader of the research relates the findings to his/her own context which renders it transferable or not. According to Lincoln and Guba (1985:316), ‘the transferability of the findings in such cases to other contexts depends on the degree of similarity between the two contexts’, such as the parallels about ESL context in Malaysia and the relevance it has to their own studies or one they know about. Lincoln and Guba (1985:301) referred this as the ‘thick descriptions’ to assist others to make a judgment to other contexts.

Dependability – The ‘audit trail’ (Lincoln and Guba, 1985:319) provided a tracking system whereby all stages of the data collection and analysis were recorded, stored and retrieved systematically in soft copies as well as hard copies. This enabled the researcher to present the process in a manner that demonstrates the trustworthiness of the findings.

Confirmability – The data in this study emanated from the semi-structured face-to-face interviews, classroom observations and were grounded in real events that took place during the academic year. The auditing procedure, triangulation of the three data collecting methods allowed the present study to be confirmed.

3.8 Researcher Positioning with respect to this study

As the academic advisor of the language centre, my interactions with these teachers on a professional level inspired this study. I obtained permission from the Director of Studies and informed the teachers during a staff meeting in February 2010 through a

power point presentation informing them of my research intentions and invited those teachers who do not have any ESL background to participate in the research. I was aware that I would be studying the teachers' work and they might feel uncomfortable. I understood their background, as I too came into ESL teaching after an initial bachelor's degree in Science. In fact, my position might be considered a strength, as I had experienced my own personal journey through becoming a ESL teacher through an alternative pathway.

3.8.1 Advantages and disadvantages of being an Insider-Researcher

Conducting research as an insider researcher is something of a double-edged sword. The advantages 'include easy access to the participants, a better understanding of the social setting, a stronger rapport and a deeper, more readily available frame of shared references by which to interpret the data collected' (Mercer, 2007:13). Shah (2004:556) notes that a 'social insider is better positioned as a researcher because of his/her knowledge of the relevant patterns of social interactions required for gaining access and making meaning'.

On the other hand, there are disadvantages of being an insider researcher. Mercer (2007:6) cautions that blind spots can develop and certain questions may not be asked as 'greater familiarity can make insiders more likely to take things for granted, develop myopia and assume their own perspective is far more widespread than it actually is'. She goes on to add that 'vital significance of unmarked points may go unnoticed', and 'sensitive topics may not be raised', and concludes that 'shared prior experience may not be explained, assumptions may not be challenged, seemingly shared norms may not be articulated, and data may become thinner as a result'.

Therefore, the onus was on the researcher to take precautionary measures to guard against these issues. Before the participants were interviewed they were clearly told that 'I am now wearing the hat of a researcher' and that they should feel at ease to give their perceptions 'without fear or favour'. They were also reminded that the data collected would only be used for the purpose of this thesis and that all the data would be presented in a manner that would not disclose their identities as pseudonyms would be used.

3.9 Ethical Considerations

To ensure that this research met the ethical guidelines set by the BERA Revised Ethical Guidelines (2004), the following actions were taken. The teachers were briefed on the purpose of the research via a power point presentation. The letter of invitation (see Appendix 4) sent to them made it clear that their participation was voluntary and that they had the liberty to withdraw their consent at any point in the process. If that was the case, any data collected up to that point would be destroyed.

After the pre-observation and post-observation interviews, the transcripts were sent to the participants for verification to enable them to make corrections or clarify any ambiguity that might have arisen.

3.10 Summary

This chapter presented an overview of the research methodology adopted in this study. The purpose was to study of how these teachers managed their teaching via an alternative pathway that did not involve the usual teacher training pathway and this was done through the use of a qualitative case study method. The research methodology therefore examined the strategies these teachers attached to these experiences. The choice of a qualitative case study method as a research approach was appropriate to explore these experiences. Hence, interviews were the main research method to capture the many facets of this phenomenon. This necessitates proper organisational details to ensure that the process went smoothly. This was done through an interview schedule with clear questions that would allow the participant to answer with ease.

In addition to interviews, other data collection methods included classroom observations, documentary analysis such as teachers' lesson plans and other institutional documents such as the curriculum outcomes and teachers' books. A research journal was kept by the researcher to record events or reflections. The end result of using these data collection methods is the identification of patterns and themes to reflect the teachers' lesson planning strategies and the institutional support mechanisms that enabled them in their work.

In order for the findings to be robust, they must be trustworthy. This was addressed through the four criteria of trustworthiness (Lincoln and Guba, 1985), namely credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability. As a lone researcher, it was important to take cognisance of the barriers that may hinder the smooth collection and analysis of the data. The issue of being an insider researcher, the advantages and disadvantages as well as ethical considerations were addressed.

The next chapter will discuss the findings and analysis of the data collected.

Chapter Four

Findings and Analysis

4.0 Introduction

In this chapter, the findings from the qualitative data obtained from the pre and post classroom observation interviews as well as the actual classroom observation notes and documents are analysed and presented here. The aim of this thesis is to make a theoretical contribution firstly, as to how teachers without formal teaching qualifications manage their teaching duties, with a specific focus on non-qualified teachers of English at a Malaysia language centre. Secondly, it investigates the perceptions of the teachers with regards to the effectiveness of the institutional CPD support system, both formal and informal, in enabling them in their work. Thirdly, it investigates how these teachers construct their sense of professional identity. The guiding research questions are structured in three broad areas as such:

1. Curriculum use and lesson planning strategies

SRQ 1: What planning strategies do such teachers adopt when using the curriculum to plan their lessons?

2. Effectiveness of Continuing Professional Development programmes

SRQ 2: How do institutional support mechanisms, both formal and informal, enable their work?

3. Teacher identity

SRQ 3: How do they construct their identity?

This chapter is structured as follows:

Section 4.1 gives the contextual background to facilitate the reader's understanding.

Section 4.2 presents the findings and analysis of the different approaches and strategies the teachers use when planning their lessons.

Section 4.3 presents the effectiveness of the CPD programmes and teachers' perceptions of how they learn in-situ through such programmes.

Section 4.4 demonstrates the processes by which the teachers develop their professional identity.

Section 4.5 is a summary of the chapter.

4.1 Contextual Background

At the beginning of the school year starting January 2, 2010 all the teachers were given a Set Text Document (STD) which specified the main class texts that would be used, the teacher's guidebook, the activity book or workbook, grammar books, reading comprehension books, books for writing, speaking and listening activities as well as accompanying audio cassettes or CDs. In addition, secondary classes had other extra books such as literature books. The coordinator of each level then used these books and planned a year-long document called the Curriculum Outcomes Document (COD) which states the learning outcomes for the ESL curriculum. The teachers teaching the same class level would use it to plan their lessons. A lesson could be two hours, three hours or four hours, depending on whether it is held during the weekdays or on Saturdays. All classes are held from Monday evenings to Saturdays. An extract of the STD and the COD are shown in Table 4.1 below:

Set Text Document

Class	Main text	Reading	Writing	Grammar	Listening	Speaking & Trinity GESE	Other Supplementary Resources
LS1	Project 3 (CD) TB SB WB Weaving it Together 1	Weaving it Together 1	Project 3 Weaving it Together 1	Project Grammar 3	A Conversation Book	A Conversation Book Beginners Communication Games Trinity Grade 3	Literature texts *Poems & short stories *Journey to the centre of the earth

Table 4.1 An extract of the set text document for Lower Sec 1 class

Curriculum Outcomes Document – Lower Secondary 1

Teachers:	DW (coordinator), JL	Classes:	LSIWAM (6hrs/week); LS1M, LS1T(4hrs/week)		
Texts used: Project 3 Pro3 Weaving it Together 1 WiT1 Trinity GESE Grade 3 TG 3 Student Book SB Project Grammar PG3 Literature Teacher’s Book TB A Conversation Book ACB Baby Steps: Poems, Short Workbook WB					

Table 4.2 An extract of the Curriculum Outcomes Document for Lower Sec 1

The COD goes to the academic advisor who vets it. It would then be photocopied and each teacher teaching that class level got a personal copy from which to work from when planning his/her lessons.

From the data gathered from the interviews, all the 17 teachers relied on the COD as their first stage of lesson planning, using the books provided by the institution. In this process, the degree of dependency on the institution's books was contingent on the teachers' confidence. Some adhered very closely to the teacher's books for ideas and followed the prescribed activities closely. Yet others drew on their personal knowledge from a number of domains such as their previous work experience or experiences of what worked best in their classrooms and the school context as well as their students' prior understanding.

The findings from the raw data were collated, coded and organised and have been grouped thematically. For example, in relation to SRQ 1, the responses can be grouped into three broad categories – institutional/environmental, social and historical resources. Using a particular resource or a combination of several resources, the teachers adopted a range of planning strategies such as curriculum transmissive strategies, curriculum development strategies or curriculum making strategies as they navigate within and between the different levels of skill acquisition. However, it must be stated here that there is at times an overlap of planning strategies employed or stages in skill acquisition, and hence, where there is an overlap, only an indication of the proportion of the teachers (for example, about a third) who used a particular strategy or strategies will be indicated. Where possible, the numbers of teachers in each category or stage is indicated for greater clarity.

This chapter will be discussed along the lines of the three specific research questions. SRQ1 : What strategies do you use to help you plan your lessons?

4.2 Curriculum development and lesson planning strategies – resources used

4.2.1 Institutional and environmental resources

All the 17 teachers reported that when planning a lesson, they consulted the curriculum outcomes document first, as it is the school's prescribed curriculum that had been planned by the coordinator of each class level for the whole year. Some also looked at past lessons and built on that with new material from the COD.

'I'd look through the COD, that's where the broad outline of what we're supposed to teach'- Ruby.

'I look at the reflections, the previous lesson; what have I taught, where have I stopped, how much have the students learnt, then I'll look at the COD, and from there I'll decide how I should continue' - Pritti.

After that, each teacher used the books provided by the institution for that class level, that is, the teacher's book, student's book and workbook or activity book and planned a lesson accordingly.

Gina, a teacher who returned to work after many years raising a family, had not had much working experience. She relied heavily on the teaching notes in the teacher's books to plan her lesson. In terms of the Dreyfus and Dreyfus model and the Berliner definition of 'novice-ness' discussed in Section 2.2.4, Gina would be considered a novice teacher as she had limited teaching strategies and behavioural routines.

'I usually depend on the teacher's book for ideas-the questions to be asked, the lesson presentation and the practice of the language structure'- Gina.

Similarly, Siaw, also demonstrated the characteristics of a novice teacher in that she had little work previous experience and relied upon the school's resources to help her plan her lesson.

'I get my ideas for lesson planning from the textbook and teacher's book. It is very detailed and I can't go wrong with it'- Siaw.

Another teacher who also fitted the criteria of novice was Pippa, who felt that the lesson plan was a crutch she had to depend on to deliver the lesson.

'When I first started teaching, it was all about me... all I wanted to do was to make sure I taught what I had planned, I wasn't thinking about the students - Pippa.

Just over a third (7 of them – Jaki, Pippa, Siaw, Gina, Lorna, Harn and Lil) of the teachers who initially taught following closely the textbooks used what Shaver (2010a) called the curriculum fidelity approach, using curriculum-transmission strategies. They exemplify those with little teaching experience and would be considered novice teachers or 'transmitters'. This meant that the prescribed curriculum was covered systematically, with close adherence to the scope and structure of the textbook. The textbook was treated as a major source of pedagogical instruction, each lesson was followed closely page by page, unit by unit and each activity was followed sequentially and the lessons were predictable. The teacher's book was also used as a major source of pedagogical instruction and such lesson plans produced according to the teacher's book maintain standards within the institution. To a certain extent, the reliance on these structures and processes helped the teachers to do a job for which they were not trained. The more unsure they felt, the more the adherence to institutional guidelines.

Pippa, a new teacher at the centre who has had previous teaching experience in primary classes now has been given a secondary class to teach for the first time.

'The lesson plan gives me structure, gives me more confidence to deliver it, I won't feel stuck or start thinking "what shall I do next", especially if I'm not familiar with the materials'- Pippa.

Another teacher Harn expressed a real need to feel prepared, the lesson plan giving her a structure from which to work from.

'I need the lesson plan. Without it, I cannot teach. It gives me a framework of what to teach. It's like baking a cake-I need the ingredients to be ready. Once the lesson framework and lesson objectives are there, I'm fine'- Harn.

The need for structure and the fear of getting lost meant that the teachers such as Lorna tended to adhere to a detailed lesson plan at the early stages of their teaching.

It's like a guide for me. I need to know what to do before the lesson, during the lesson and after the lesson so I don't get lost. Even if I get lost, I can go back to the lesson plan - Lorna.

Classroom observations confirmed that these teachers were largely operating as curriculum transmitters. The teacher's lesson plans were carried as planned; the students sat in rows facing the whiteboard, with the teacher very much in control at the front of the classroom. Work done in the students' exercise books reflected the sequential treatment of the exercises taken straight from the textbooks with minimal change.

As some (slightly under a third – 6 of them – Pritti, Lori, Alimah, Joey, Tang, and Meena) of the teachers gained experience, the dependency on textbooks was reduced. These would be called 'transmitters-developers' or advanced beginners. 5 from the transmitters–novice group (Lorna, Gina, Jaki, Siaw, Harn) gradually 'moved up' to use some curriculum development strategies.

Upon reflection during the post observation interview, Lorna recalled:

'Initially, I'd depend on textbooks in the COD, but with time, I rely on it less and less, just using the textbook would be boring' – Lorna.

They would use their own resources such as supplementary books, children's books, the internet, books from the resource room and adapted them accordingly to ensure topics which were culturally removed from the students' context were adapted with more relevant ones. Over the years of teaching, Alimah said she has built *'my own collection of books which I use. Besides that, I also used the internet as a resource for planning lessons'*.

In addition to using the textbooks, even Gina, who said she relied heavily on the teacher's book would try to source extra materials to supplement her teaching so that her students got extra practice in learning a grammar structure.

'Besides the textbook, I'd use supplementary grammar books, for example, if we're doing countable and uncountable nouns, I'll look for extra materials from the bookstores' – Gina.

Mindful of the fact that sometimes the textbooks might pose difficulties to students, Pritti made adaptations to make the contexts more relevant to her students.

'The textbook is from the UK, so I need to adjust, change the context... instead of writing a holiday to the Stone Age which the students could not relate to, I

asked them to write on something they're more familiar with, like a holiday to Miri, or Kuala Lumpur' – Pritti.

The teachers who used curriculum adaptation approach used macro- and micro curriculum-development strategies (Shawer, 2010a). Macro-strategies included curriculum adaptation, experimenting, material writing and supplementing. Micro-strategies included the selective use (cherry picking) of textbooks, it being used as a springboard of pedagogical content.

'I had to teach diary writing, so I had to do some research as there wasn't much description in the textbook, so I printed out some additional information from the Internet, like the diary of Anne Frank' - Lori.

'I pick and choose the topics from the set text - some are too difficult, the topic on The Great Plague is so alien for the children, so I'll replace it with SARS'– Alimah.

Here, there were multiple sources of input, topics were adapted or even skipped according to the teachers' judgments. The lessons were taught in a flexible manner and there were lesson, or topic skipping and or adapting. Hence, curriculum developers developed skills by using authentic materials, information from the internet, newspapers or posters. They acquired curriculum-development skills by supplementing and adapting and curriculum-planning skills by reflecting about how the material would be relevant to the students.

'I normally think about the initial idea in my mind. I'll look for resources, either from my own or from the school. I look at the student's books, their level of proficiency, and I can gauge if the activity is too easy or too difficult. If it's a good class, I'll think of something challenging. If a weak class, I'll simplify it. The idea is not to catch them; it is to ensure they understand what I'm teaching and the learning objectives are achieved'– Joey.

'It helps me to mentally see what I'm going to do on that day and it also makes me think of problems that I might have. When I'm planning, I think of my weak ones, how do I actually bring the lesson down to their level'– Alimah.

These teachers reported that it was the *process* of thinking and planning that they found beneficial. Once they had done it, they had it in their mind and they might not even have to refer to it, save for some reminders.

'It's the preparation itself that is useful to me. Once I've prepared it, it's in my head. I just need to have a quick look before the class for a quick revision in my mind what to teach. Once the lesson starts, I hardly need to use it unless I have

an attachment such as a vocabulary list. So, it's the actual preparation that is useful'- Lorna.

One teacher reported that when he planned a lesson, he was likely to visualise a particular class and the specific groups of students.

'It is crucial for me to think what I'll be doing as I plan. I've to think of the learners' needs of my class. I plan by imagining, anticipating it'- Tang.

In this pre-teaching phase, anticipation, which is developed through knowledge of teacher interaction with the students in a classroom context seem to indicate that there is evidence of development and change. This process generally starts with the teachers being text transmitters and then gradually developing more advanced strategies.

Curriculum developers also ensured that they were prepared for alternatives should the planned lesson go awry. The multifaceted and unpredictable classroom climate were taken into consideration and planned for.

'The same language game in lesson plan may not be effective for all the classes – it may work for one class but not another because some of the students may not be responsive. I do face difficulties at times, like ...I'm not sure how the lesson will go after planning it. The reality is different from the planning. Sometimes I have a plan B'- Tang.

The lesson plans were not static, and constant refinements were needed should unexpected incidents crop up to render them unsuitable. This finding showed how these teachers (Joey, Alimah, Lorna, Tang) make changes from one set of strategies to a more advanced approach through experience, thereby showing a direct relationship between experience and strategic planning. Even teachers like Gina and Jaki (who were considered novices) who initially used curriculum transmission strategies have also started to use some simple curriculum development strategies upon 'reflection-in-action'.

'If I had planned too much, I'll carry it forward to the next session's lesson plan. If there is insufficient material, I'll do spelling games, anagrams, they like it'- Gina.

'I over planned the first few lessons, I realised that if I include pair/group work, the students tend to take up more time than I intend to give them, so we couldn't finish the lesson in time. I need to cut down, improvise, change a bit'- Jaki.

In this regard, one teacher summarised the general perceptions of curriculum developers as such - a detailed planned lesson could sometimes be rather restrictive.

If I've planned in detail, subconsciously I feel I'll need to fulfil all that has been planned. On the other hand, very often, we can't carry out all that we've planned due to many factors: time, attitude of students...maybe a task needs more depth as you go along. So I find the lesson plan is useful for me only as a guide. I instinctively know what to do. I think a teacher should be able to plan flexibly. Sometimes the lesson goes like a breeze, sometimes there are hiccups. It should complement the teacher's teaching, not the other way round, we should not be enslaved to it – Joey

Classroom observations provided evidence that around a third of these teachers made adaptations to the lesson plans and made adjustments in the form of reflections to remind themselves. Class work did not adhere completely to the prescribed texts. There were language games, and extra work adapted from other resources to supplement the prescribed texts. Students were gathered in groups and did brainstorming; authentic language production was used and practised. These ideas came from the monthly training workshops and the curriculum group meetings where specific teaching needs were discussed and possible solutions worked.

Another group of teachers (under a third - Ruby, Peerle, Supiah and Noor) addressed the learners' needs by using external materials such as posters, the newspapers or materials adapted from conferences attended. Most of these teachers – the 'developers/makers' (competent level) have built up their experience over the years and were confident enough to try new aspects of teaching. They had experience of between 3 to 10 years at the centre.

'When there was the SARS epidemic and the H1N1 outbreak, I got some very good posters from the hospital to use in the classroom'- Ruby.

'There are quite a few good columnists in the Borneo Post. The weekend supplementary sections focus on English teaching, so the newspapers are a very good source, from activities to teaching methods'- Peerle.

Joey also progressed from being a curriculum developer to being a curriculum maker as she used curriculum making strategies to create a new activity during her class observation, showing her confidence.

'The activity on story writing during the lesson observation was adapted from the MELTA conference. I like to try it out with my students, and they enjoyed it'- Joey.

These teachers (working at the proficient level) used the enactment approach, employing curriculum-making strategies – learners' needs are met by using, adapting and supplementing external materials (Shawer, 2010a). They were involved in active learning, using other resources such as the internet, newspapers, the community and

conferences as multiple sources of input to meet student learning needs and interests. These teachers were creative and imaginative and were able to use available external resources to create individualised curriculum strategies to their benefit.

Classroom observations revealed the teachers distributing photocopied work from the newspapers such as 'Using idiomatic expressions'. The computer in the classroom was also used to engage student learning in the form of a warm-up activity. Students were actively engaged in group work, brainstorming and writing ideas down with marker pens on newsprint. The students gave feedback in groups and the teachers were confident in allowing a certain amount of democracy in the classroom.

These findings showed that while all of them used the books provided by the institution, the strategies that each teacher used in the planning were contingent on the individual's level of expertise and confidence. While these are clearly related, one may help in developing the other. For example, a naturally confident person may be willing to try new things; on the other hand, having – or gaining expertise is likely to make one more confident. The teachers also did not use just one approach only. Initially, they might rely on the set texts and teachers' book exclusively, but with time and experience, they used multiple approaches, that is, from using curriculum-transmission strategies to macro and micro curriculum development strategies to curriculum-making strategies.

The planning options a teacher used reflected the teacher's thoughts about teaching and learning. Just over a third of them – here classified as transmitters - felt that without a detailed lesson plan, they might not be able to teach the prescribed lessons as mandated by the institution's curriculum as stipulated in the COD. Another third – could be regarded as developers who, while adhering to the institutional guidelines, they also used other supplementary books and resources to enable them to teach as they felt that a detailed lesson plan enslaved oneself to it and restricted spontaneity and opportunities to respond to students' learning needs and interests. A small group of 4 teachers – the makers - took the planning strategies a step further and employed curriculum-making strategies as they became much more confident and created individualised curriculum responding to the learning needs and interests of their students.

4.2.2 Resources through socialising

In addition to different degrees of dependency on institutional resources as well as resources from the environment, the teachers also obtained ideas for their lesson planning through socialising with each other. All the teachers, especially those teaching in their first year expressed appreciation of the generosity of the spirit of sharing among the teachers. Jaki, who is currently in her first year of teaching, comes

from a background in insurance, and she finds the social support extremely beneficial in helping her plan her lessons.

I come in early to try and catch up with some of the teachers who teach around the same time (evening classes). They are really helpful, they give me pointers; tell me their experience, they'll tell me to adapt to my own class. We have good rapport – Jaki.

Teacher talk in the staff room was important sources of both tacit knowledge and pedagogical knowledge which were included in the planning strategies.

'When I first started teaching here eight years ago, the Cambridge 2 curriculum student book didn't come with a teacher's book. That was difficult, but everybody was so helpful. Teacher V was the first few to help me out' - Alimah.

When I was in my first year of teaching here, I sought help from teacher N, she's an experienced teacher – Gina.

This view was shared when teachers socialised informally, many found this extremely helpful.

'Sometimes when we meet for lunch, we'll talk and things will click. One of the teachers actually showed me how she taught Literature. I thought what she did was a good idea, and I also had that at the back of my mind. So, it endorses what I've wanted to do' – Lorna.

'I love the interaction with other teachers. I would ask another teacher teaching the same level if they have anything to share. I'd like to add on to my existing knowledge' – Peerle.

Not only did they gain pedagogical knowledge as they interacted, they also learnt from each other the practicalities of classroom management issues, showing that this is one of the ways in which they developed. Thus, it can be concluded that teachers move along the 'continuum' of experience, and this will be explored more fully in Chapter Five.

My colleagues help me a lot; they give me tips on how to control class, in terms of having different activities and some behaviour management techniques to settle difficult students – Siaw.

When I run out of ideas, I ask other teachers who have been teaching for a long time. They're very helpful – Lori.

For others, they went to a particular group of teachers to socialise and got ideas as there was a sense of commonality in the work they did, that is, teaching the same class level and hence, had common issues to discuss.

'I'd go to the coordinators first, then those colleagues teaching the same level' – Meena.

'I've good relations with everyone, I think. There are some who I can really work very closely. There's a lot of sharing, I find that very healthy. Sometimes I talk to the coordinator, it's reassuring that someone who is more experienced is approaching it the same way. You know you're on the right track' – Supiah.

'Teacher L is the coordinator for one of the classes I teach, so we've got that bond. We're friends, and I feel comfortable talking to her' – Noor.

These findings showed that the support each teacher got from socialising with each other is congruent with the socio-cultural perspective that learning is mediated by social activities. Professional knowledge is constructed through interactions between the teachers which shape their thinking and form the basis of their reasoning. This in turn, is used to think about what they and the others are doing, thereby, serving as building blocks for the development of more complex and creative activities.

Apart from socialising and talking to colleagues, it emerged that the majority (14 teachers) of teachers develop strategies for lesson planning through social and personal interactions outside of the formal educational setting. Alimah is a mother of three boys and she gets ideas for effective teaching strategies having experienced them with her boys. Lil, newly married, has a listening ear from her husband as she talked through the lesson to give herself a clearer picture.

I got the idea of using the paper plate – get the students to write five types of food they like on the plate and five types they dislike under the plate. My youngest boy used to hide food he didn't like, like cabbage. My eldest son suggested I did that with my students - Alimah

Sometimes I talk to my husband about my lesson planning. He just listens. After I've talked through things, I feel clearer in my head – Lil

For these teachers, socialising with their family members provided a source of ideas which they were able to incorporate into the lesson plans. Here, Alimah and Lil used ideas and resources from their personal and social world to inform their teaching. These findings revealed that socialisation was a mixture of strategy and serendipity as well as a resource to help teachers plan their lessons.

4.2.3 Resources from own previous work experience

Besides getting input from institutional resources and through socialising, all these teachers also got ideas for lesson planning by using their own previous work experience from other fields. These teachers have found that their previous work experience have helped them understand their students and were able to plan their

lessons with the needs of the students in mind using appropriate teaching strategies such as understanding and motivating the students. This is not to suggest that some teachers do not have their students' needs in mind.

For Supiah, her previous work experience in corporate training and her interest in teaching teenagers helped her plan her lesson.

I used to work with the National Literary Council which deals with literature in Malay. I've always liked English as a subject. Then I worked with a Human Resource Management training centre running English courses. I've always been interested in issues regarding teenagers, and through teaching I understand them, the way they think – Supiah.

Tang who had spent some time in the seminary found his experiences useful in enabling him to motivate his students.

I share my own hardship and experiences to motivate my students. From my philosophy and psychology background during my seminary training, I found them useful in classroom management. You must be able to understand them, how to get them interested in what you are going to share with them. It's not like pouring ideas into the students and expect them to accept that. That's why when I plan, I've to think and imagine what I'll be doing – Tang.

Joey who has had vast experience in the hotel industry felt that she had brought other skills such as 'people skills' into her teaching.

In the hotel industry, you interact a lot with all sorts of people; it has made me more tolerant. When I'm teaching, I tend to repeat a few times because in the hotel industry, I have to double check and follow-up procedure – Joey.

Jaki was an executive with an insurance firm. She felt she could transfer her previous working skills in sales into student expectations for her students to achieve.

I set achievement targets for my students. From my insurance background, there are always sales targets to achieve. If you believe they can do it, they can do it - Jaki

Such extracts from the teachers showed that their previous work presented a wealth of experience which they could tap into, adapt and incorporate into their planning strategies. They were able to use their prior work experience, interpret it personally and build this interpretation into their new role as a teacher. They had the ability to transfer the knowledge from one situation to another. Learning here is reflective, active and situated in their lives as teachers, supporting the basic assumptions of constructivism. It promoted authentic, realistic experiences and encouraged the use of

multiple resources to enable teachers to put strategies in place to help them plan their lessons.

These quotes from the teachers reflected the tacit knowledge they brought with them as they incorporated them as planning strategies in their lessons. Although the teachers' tacit knowledge was difficult to express clearly, it had a direct influence to educational and teaching activities. These teachers utilised institutional resources such as the COD, STD, the books and resources available in enabling them to plan their lessons. The teachers also used resources from the environment to help them. The way they used the curriculum to plan their lesson was contingent of the approach they used – they might use the curriculum fidelity approach, the curriculum development approach or the curriculum making approach or a combination of approaches. They also learnt and got ideas through socialising with each other in an informal way. In addition, their prior work experiences were a valuable resource in terms of the skill(s) they could transfer to their current teaching job.

The themes that emerged showed that the teachers used institutional, social and historical resources to help them plan their lessons using curriculum-transmissive, curriculum-development and/or curriculum-making strategies at different stages of their skill acquisition. In addition, these teachers make the transition from the novice stage to higher skill stages, as indicated in Table 4.3 by those in brackets.

Many factors might be associated with this movement for some, but not all teachers. While most of this observed transition during the study was a single stage – mainly from novice to advanced beginner, one (Lorna) actually moved two stages. It can thus be concluded that the responses from the teachers showed that the extent to which there is a direct relationship between experience and strategic planning revealed some variation within each group and is contingent on their individual experiences and contexts. This is summarised in Table 4.3 below.

Lesson planning strategies	Curriculum transmitting	Curriculum transmitting/developing	Curriculum developing/making
Stage of skill acquisition	Novice	Advanced beginner/competent	Competent/proficient
	1 Gina 2 Siaw 3 Pippa 4 Harn 5 Lorna 6 Jaki 7 Lil	1 Pritti 2 Lori 3 Alimah 4 Joey 5 Tang 6 Meena (Lorna) (Gina) (Jaki) (Siaw) (Harn)	1 Ruby 2 Peerle 3 Supiah 4 Noor (Joey) (Lorna)

Table 4.3 Table showing the movement of the teachers at different stages of their skill acquisition

4.3 Effectiveness of CPD as a support system

The CPD of teachers is about teachers learning how to learn and transforming their knowledge into practice for the benefit of their students' learning. Teacher CPD is a complex process which requires cognitive and emotional involvement of teachers individually and collectively. It takes place formally and informally in schools, whereby teachers draw on situated learning facilitated by the range of different school cultures and traditions and in this context, it can be seen that the teachers draw on situated learning.

In this study, the CPD programme is held once a month for all staff, (both the qualified and the non-qualified), usually on a Monday afternoon for two hours as there are no on-going classes then. It is an in-house programme, starting from January and lasts until the end of the academic year, November. It is an avenue which provides continuous, systemic support and allows the teachers to engage in continual learning and opportunities for professional growth. Locating opportunities for professional development within the school system renders it more sustainable over time. As the teachers work at different times during the week and may not necessarily see other daily, this training session is an opportunity for all the teachers to meet up as members of the teaching staff. Snacks and drinks are provided at the end of the training session, and teachers continue to socialise informally.

The monthly training workshops are teacher-led. The teachers leading the workshops could be both the qualified ones and those unqualified. The topics during the two-hour session emanate from the needs of the school. For example, if there had been instances of teachers struggling with marking, then this need would be addressed. A more experienced teacher would perhaps share how he or she approached the topic regarding responding to writing using real life work from the class work. After an initial plenary, the session would entail teachers breaking into groups according to the class levels and these teachers would then discuss issues concerning marking; such as whether to provide summative feedback or formative feedback. This would then be agreed upon and implemented as a school policy in the classroom teaching.

The topics for the workshop were not necessarily focused only on content knowledge. Sometimes, it could be on issues that affect the daily life of the school such as disruptive behaviour or bullying. Managing behaviour for learning is incorporated in the teacher's lesson plans, as the teachers need to visualise whether a particular activity would go down well with the class or not. This would lead to a review of the school's existing policy statement on age-appropriate approaches in handling such

cases of indiscipline, such as 'Catch-them-doing-good', or 'Time-Out', instead of administering punitive measures all the time.

It could be giving feedback after attending a conference such as the MELTA conference, an annual teacher's workshop of English language teachers in Malaysia. Meena recalled that when

'I had a do a presentation on what I had learnt during the MELTA conference, I felt I learnt a lot through the preparation, reflection and having to present it. I was initially cautious as standing in front of one's colleagues is very different from standing in front of one's students. However, I felt I developed confidence after that and this in turn strengthened my identity as a teacher'.

In addition, two other mandatory meetings in the school calendar were when the curriculum groups met twice a year, once in April and another in October to collaborate on the setting of the exam papers in preparation for the formal exams in May and November respectively. Here, the teachers distributed the workload, and each teacher took responsibility for setting a section of the exam paper. For example, if there were five teachers in that curriculum group, each would take a section; that is, Speaking, Reading, Listening, Writing and Grammar. The questions set would be based on the learning outcomes and the teachers created the questions themselves or used supplementary resources.

'I learn a lot from setting the questions and preparing the answer script. I need to make sure the students are tested for their learning' – Lil.

The coordinator then had the responsibility to put the paper together and this went to the Academic Advisor for approval. After the exams, the teachers met again to moderate the results and gave feedback on how their students fared.

By participating in these institutionalised CPD activities, the teachers were able to gain pedagogical knowledge.

4.3.1 Perceptions of effectiveness of CPD

The findings regarding the perceptions of the effectiveness of the CPD programmes under the five specific approaches/procedures as discussed in Chapter Two covering workshop, teacher support group, peer observation, peer coaching, and analysis of critical incidents in helping them in their work yielded various themes - usefulness, confidence building, reflecting, professional and personal goal setting.

4.3.2 Usefulness of CPD in lesson planning

The activities in the CPD consisted of activities such as language games, literature workshops, feedback from conferences and any other topics that may be useful in

helping the teachers. These activities were not mandated by an external expert, rather the format of the CPD sessions was structured in such a way that the teachers themselves were asked to contribute activities that were relevant to the teaching context such as games to liven up the classes.

'I used the language games, word games at the beginning of the lesson, I used that as an energizer' - Joey.

I've used games such as the "Jumping Beans" to break the monotony of the lesson; some classes are four hours long'- Harn.

'We did the games and chants such as "Clapping game", "Numbers game", "Head & Shoulders" chant and the "Snapping of fingers chant for days of the week" in the Primary 2 classes. They enjoyed it and asked for more! I was so happy they liked it' – Jaki.

Besides sharing language games, teachers who had gone for conferences such as the MELTA conference gave feedback on what they had learnt upon their return.

'We picked up ideas from the MELTA conference, the writing activity during the lesson observed was adapted from MELTA. So, for untrained teachers, training workshops are very important for us because we don't have the theoretical knowledge, the certificate and qualifications per se, so we rely very heavily on sources like training workshops' – Joey.

'The MELTA conference that we went to was very helpful, it opened our eyes to the different theoretical and practical aspects of English language teaching' – Meena.

Teachers teaching the secondary classes were required to teach literature in English which consists of books mandated by the Ministry of Education. In order to familiarise these untrained teachers on the content and methodology of the literature books, some experienced teachers from the government schools who work part time at the centre were asked to provide some content input to these teachers to help them get a clearer idea in this area.

'The literature workshop that we had, we had an experienced teacher, L, giving us tips. I found that very useful' –Joey.

'I used the Reader's theatre last year for literature-I find that useful, when the students acted out scenes' – Harn.

The teachers incorporated the activities such as language games into their lesson plan and applied it to their classes.

'I have always incorporated the activities from the training programme into my lesson plan. The recent one I did was "The icecream" we had with the Director of Studies for speaking skills. They really enjoyed it. It helped them speak English naturally' – Alimah.

'The activity "Protect the egg" – that was good for writing instructions which I incorporated into the lesson plans when teaching the imperatives' – Harn.

'What I usually do is, after our workshops, our small groups, the first thing I'd do is to try it out in my classes. Some worked well, others less so. Generally, I adapt it to suit the classes – Noor.

In addition to the general workshop which addressed pedagogical skills training on a plenary level, specific workshops were also held to provide teaching skills for specific learner groups, such as the young learners. Teachers who taught the Pre-primary classes, Primary 1 and Cambridge 1 had a special training session on the use of Rhymes, Songs and Chants in language teaching.

'As I'm teaching the Primary 1 children, we had a meeting with other teachers teaching young learners. I got some ideas from them. We did some activities like clapping hands, pointing at things, rhymes. I think that was very useful, I noticed that the children enjoyed them very much' - Meena.

Peerle summarised the general perception of the effectiveness of the CPD when she encapsulated it by saying:

All these are very helpful, because we're all in our daily grind. When we get into groups, people get to see each other and keep tabs of what's happening, so everyone is on the same page. It's important because professionalism means there's consistency and a certain level of quality.

Here, the teachers' perception of the usefulness of the wide variety of activities and input from workshops in helping them plan their lessons was reflected in their own words. These learning experiences were enhanced as they were situated in the context in which they were needed and applied. They were empowered by the support they got through teaching and learning from each other. Professional growth was reflected in the collective learning with continual interactions whereby teachers shared successful and also less successful experiences. This sense of camaraderie reduced isolation and encouraged teacher learning.

The teachers were empowered to choose several options and strategies to build upon what they knew and could do already by the school management. Joint planning of new material among teachers also enabled them to make adaptations to suit their own teaching context and maximize their own skills. Thus, participating in CPD has become

a collaborative endeavor, with flexibility to cater for individual teacher's own starting points and learning needs.

4.3.3 Confidence building

During the monthly teachers' workshop, the teachers were expected to give presentations during the training sessions, and this in turn built up their confidence, as

'it is very different standing in front of your colleagues, telling them what you have done, I feel rather vulnerable' – Peerle.

However, it is by 'biting the bullet' that they free themselves from their vulnerabilities and move on to have more self-confidence.

'During the monthly workshop, we have to give presentations in groups, we have to sit down and discuss, we interact more, I learn from my colleagues in a collaborative manner; we're a big family' – Meena.

'I've more confidence now, every year I get a different class, I feel that's a challenge, it's good for me because it keeps on my toes all the time and there are so many ways of learning, things keep coming in, but through encouragement, discussion with peers, colleagues... that help a lot – Supiah.

Collaborative CPD was thus linked to positive outcomes for teachers which included greater confidence in taking risks.

Being asked to be observed by one's peers also built up the teacher's confidence. When Alimah was singled out by the Director of Studies after a class observation to give a demo lesson to her some of her colleagues on her successful handling of a group activity, her first positive thought was *'OK, I must have done something right!'* and that boosted her self-confidence. Furthermore, she was glad to note their feedback that the other teachers used the same technique in their own classes with varying degrees of success. This is despite her fears that the lesson might not go smoothly due to the presence of visitors in the classroom, and what her colleagues might think of her activity. Here, Alimah showed her enthusiasm for collaborative working, not withstanding initial anxieties about being observed and receiving feedback from her colleagues.

Her feeling of confidence has helped her develop her sense of professional identity.

'I feel more comfortable now, I'm comfortable telling people I'm an English teacher. I was never before, because I always thought my own level of English wasn't there yet' – Alimah.

The interactive workshops provided an opportunity for the teachers to think about their practice in the classroom and built up their confidence when they had to do presentations. It also gave them a sense of ownership and a sense of belonging that their participation was valued, and that in turn built up their sense of professional identity.

4.3.4 Reflecting on own work through classroom observations

As part of the CPD, all the teachers were observed by the Director of Studies or the Academic Advisor at least once a year. The purpose was for professional development; hence the focus was developmental rather than judgmental, as teachers were made aware of their own teaching behaviours. For the teachers, classroom observations provided the main source of feedback on their teaching, allowing them to examine their own teaching. The perceptions of the teachers during the pre-observation interview and the post-observation interview revealed that the process of observations enabled them to reflect on how the lesson they had planned went. As much of what happens in teaching is unknown to the teacher, they were often unaware of the moment-to-moment decisions that they needed to make.

‘Sometimes, when we teach, we can’t see our mistakes, what went wrong, we’re not aware of our body language, the way we stand, the way we taught, maybe that’s not effective, so by being observed, we can learn from our mistakes, improve more, can identify our faults and learn – Pritti.

‘I’ll try my very best, if there are some points I missed, or gaps, then the observer will point it out and that’s the time when I feel the happiest because I really want to improve’ – Tang.

They were also able to reflect on their positive and negative moments and the impact it had on them.

‘A positive moment was when one of the naughtiest girls in my class behaved very well, and she turned out to be very helpful as well. It was a great sense of achievement. Negative moments? Of course, sometimes the children get out of hand; I feel very disappointed. It drags the lesson, can’t go on as planned. It’s very discouraging. I’d normally talk to one of the teachers; we would share ideas on how to handle these children. From there, I have to try different tactics – Meena.

Here, Meena experienced a personal feeling of achievement as well as disappointment, and she was able to reflect upon it and take corrective measures by talking to colleagues.

Critical reflection can trigger a deeper understanding of teaching as it involves questioning about why and how things are, what value systems are represented and the limitations of doing things one way as opposed to another. Teachers who are better informed about the nature of teaching are able to evaluate what aspects of their teaching they need to change. In addition, when critical reflection is seen as an ongoing process and a routine part of teaching, it enables them to feel more confident in trying different options and assessing their effects on teaching. One teacher reflects on the interactive nature and effort and the impact on student-teacher relationships:

'the positive moment was when I could see that they were enjoying the lesson; they had the maturity to tackle the questions; so my ability to judge the ability was correct. I also predicted that I may be able to pull this off with the weaker class, and I was correct. All the exercises that I've marked, it gives me the confidence that I'm on the right track. I feel empowered, and at the end of the lesson, the children told me they enjoyed the lesson; the task was challenging, they enjoyed the fast pace, the timing was right on the mark. They complimented me in the sense that they enjoyed the lesson. Getting the compliments from students, having achieved the lesson objectives, I feel good. The negative moment was when I was caught by a student for the mispronunciation of 'myth'...but I didn't mind, I take that as an area I have to improve – Joey.

Thus, the importance of reflection in the development of herself as a confident and reflective teacher is clearly seen here.

Even though the focus of lesson observation is developmental rather than judgmental, it is inevitable that some teachers may feel it evaluative.

I don't find it helpful by being observed, it's a pain, I feel it's an act put on, it's not natural, the students are not behaving as they would normally, but I do learn from the feedback during the post-observation meetings with the Director of Studies – Harn.

Hence, it is viewed with a certain degree of frustration when giving their views of the usefulness of lesson observations as a form of CPD.

The observer is not exposed to the lesson day in and day out. So I think lesson observation, yes, is useful in that the observer will give us a benchmark of how we're doing in our teaching. If we're down, we need to improve it; if we're up, we're doing OK. It's only a snap shot, it may not be 100% accurate of a person's ability, that's how I see it, it's like a double-edged sword for me – Joey.

Here, Joey made some very valid comments regarding the limitations of her competency being judged based on one lesson. However, she conceded that *'some form of observation from management is necessary'*, and thus accepted the fact that it is part of her job.

4.3.5 Professional and personal goal setting

The teachers interviewed also spoke of their professional and personal goals. Some had clear dichotomy of goals, personal goals being what they wanted to achieve for themselves in terms of academic studies and professional goals for what they wanted to do for their students.

'My professional goal is to see my students score 'A's for their English paper in their PMR public exams. I've quite a number of weak students and I've been giving them intensive exercises. My personal goal is to finish my B TESL which I'm doing with Open University Malaysia' – Tang.

'I want to finish my degree in TESL this year. I want to be a lecturer, that's my personal goal. Professional goal...I want to work on the speaking, pronunciation and writing skills of my students' – Lori.

Others saw their personal goal as bringing the best out of their students or improving their own areas where they felt they needed professional improvement.

'Personally, I want to be a change agent in the lives of my students, I want to bring out the best in them. Professionally, I realize that I lack knowledge of phonetics and I want to improve in that area' - Lorna.

'I'm terrible with deadlines. I need to improve the administrative side of my teaching, that's my personal goal. My professional goal is to sit for the City & Guilds Mastery ESOL test, to make a career out of teaching' – Joey.

On the other hand, some others said that their professional goal had merged with their personal goal. Their professional and personal lives were inextricably intertwined, investing time and money in the process.

'My professional goal is to improve what I had been doing last year. Having had one year of experience with the textbooks, I want to fine tune it with a different batch of students. My personal goal is to enable the students to achieve whatever learning outcomes I've set out' - Lorna.

‘Whenever, I’m free, I love to make teaching aids, developing teaching materials for my students. I’m always on the lookout for new things to make my lessons interesting for my students. The desire to try and experiment, buy new things out of my own pocket, that’s my goals’ - Noor.

All the teachers interviewed expressed a professional and a personal goal for themselves, be it a long term or a short term goal. Some expressed a distinct dichotomy of their personal and professional goals, yet others had merged them into one entity in the sense that their personal goal is also their professional goal.

Thus, it can be seen that the CPD has been effective in helping teachers in their work. This is gained through interactions among the teachers through sharing of teaching ideas that are relevant in their classrooms such as the use of language games. The need to stand up in front of their colleagues and give presentations has given them more confidence in believing in themselves. Being observed by their peers for their good practices in the classroom was also a confidence booster and that in turn gave a strong sense of professional identity.

Classroom observations with a focus on developmental professional development were seen as a way by which teachers could see how they enacted the lesson plan through an observer’s lens. Being able to later reflect on both positive and negative incidents enabled them to put teaching strategies in place, although it was only a snapshot and might not be truly representative of the normal classroom climate.

Thus, the relationship between support and development reveal a high level of complexity. From this CPD, teachers have set personal and professional goals for themselves to achieve. Some showed a clear dichotomy while others have merged their professional with their personal life. The interface between personal and professional goals might have an impact on the development of teacher identity as will be discussed in the next section.

4.4 Construction of professional identity

This section presents the findings of the development of the teachers’ professional identity. In general, people develop their work-related (professional) identities through their interactions with other people in a variety of contexts through time. The development of identity is complex, it being made up of individual and social elements in the context of institutionalised work. The findings are used to answer the guiding specific research question ‘How do they construct their professional identity?’

4.4.1 How these teachers develop their professional identity

The teachers' narratives are presented here to explain how they see themselves as teachers. Two of them described themselves as having found their true selves, a minority are constantly reinventing themselves while the majority negotiate their identity through participating in a community of learners where there is a wide range of contextual factors affecting them and their teaching practice.

As all the 17 teachers came into teaching ESL through an alternative pathway, the development of their professional identity has taken some interesting routes. From the interviews, it could be seen that some are the 'accidental teacher' – that is, they have ended up teaching, although teaching was not their initial career choice, and who now see teaching as their niche in life.

Alimah came into teaching through a teaching opportunity in her aunt's kindergarten. She tried it, found that she enjoyed it but never saw herself as a teacher initially. Returning to work after six years raising a family, she has decided that teaching was for her.

'I never saw myself as a teacher in the earlier years. After Form 5, the gap of a few months before I went to Form 6...I actually worked as a tour guide, I really enjoyed it, so I thought I was going along that line, but after Form 6, my aunt's kindergarten was looking for a teacher, and I helped her there. I found that I could relate to children, and I enjoyed seeing them learn'.

However, she had a high level of intrinsic motivation and overcame personal challenges such as making a conscious effort to speak good English as her mixed family background introduced multilingualism in her family.

'I come from a mixed parentage, which means I do speak English at home, but we also speak other languages like Sarawak Malay, Melanau, West Malaysian Malay. I found speaking English all the time most difficult. Having to speak good English was something very challenging, it still is. I invested in a good English-English dictionary to help check out words'.

After eight years teaching at the institution, she now feels confident and enjoys teaching and she realises that this is her passion.

'I enjoy teaching, in my own little classroom, I feel really confident. You can give me students of any age group and I'll be fine, that's one of the good things about teaching here, you get to teach different levels, adults, upper secondary, lower secondary, upper primary, lower primary. I've covered all the levels and I enjoyed teaching every class, as each class has its own challenges.

Even though I came into teaching accidentally, but I think I have the passion, and that's most important in any job that you do. I enjoyed teaching, really enjoyed teaching'.

She has decided to take up further academic studies and is now almost completing her degree in Early Childhood Education at a local public university. (She has since graduated and is studying for her second degree, this time a B TESL).

'I'll be graduating by the end of this year. I'm doing a degree in early childhood education, because I feel that's my comfort zone. When colleagues get technical, 'oh, am I doing that?'...at the end of the day after having the conversation, I realised I had been doing that, but I did not have a technical term for it'.

Here, she showed the two sides of being an unqualified teacher – feeling that she has done a good job and also realising incidentally that she was as good as a qualified teacher – but not quite believing in herself. Hence the importance of getting a formal qualification seemed to be part of the transition from one group to the other. However, after teaching for eight years, her sense of professional identity is now strong.

'I feel more comfortable now, I'm comfortable telling people I'm an English teacher. I was never before, because I always thought my own level of English wasn't there yet.

I have colleagues coming to me for advice; and they say 'oh, you always seem to have fun lessons' so I think...'ok, I must be doing something right', it endorses what I'm doing, like when being observed, that's something I can contribute' – Alimah.

Thus Alimah's identity as a teacher is contingent on how she is seen by others as she constructs a sustainable identity as a teacher herself.

For Tang, an initial struggle to make a decision to get his TESL degree despite family and financial commitments was

'the toughest time in my life. To say "yes", yet deep inside me, I said "no". But I've no regrets, it's a greener pasture to be a qualified teacher. I can study, yet keep my job. I get a lot of moral support from the management, besides my family members. All these problems have motivated me to go further'.

Here, Tang showed a strong desire to be a qualified teacher to further his identity as a trained teacher.

Like Tang, Lil had a deep desire to learn more, and despite feeling supported in the school community and learning a lot from colleagues who are *'like walking dictionaries'*, she still felt the need to get a qualification as *'most of the teachers here have a degree, so I feel I need to have one, and I'm on my way to be in the group of qualified teachers'*.

Noor made teaching aids on her own initiative as she recalled, *'whenever I've got some free time, I just love doing teaching aids, I'm always looking for things to make the lesson more interesting'*. She displayed an inner will to try new things as she commented *'children need to be motivated, they love new things, and I myself want to try something new'*.

Here, she exhibited a high degree of intrinsic motivation, and while not explicitly articulating it, gave a perception that she had a strong sense of teacher identity as she had invested a considerable amount of time, money and thought into her work as a teacher.

Joey who came into teaching after a career change from the hotel industry had initial feelings of uncertainty when she first started teaching. She had self-doubts as to whether she could interact with the class and with class management.

'Well, I was ambivalent, I really didn't know what to expect. I had no teaching experience, coming from the corporate world in tourism. I asked myself if I could handle it. When I first taught here, I was given Oxford 5 class. I looked at the text, the language was not an issue for me at that time, the issue was dealing with the students, the classroom management'.

However, after teaching for ten years, she currently feels confident in handling her class, she knows her own strengths and weaknesses and has a sense of professional satisfaction when she is able to gauge the students' language ability correctly.

'This is my 10th year teaching here, so things have changed... from being not confident in handling the class, now I've become very, very confident. I now know where my strengths and weaknesses lie. Now, I enjoy teaching, the greatest joy for me is if I achieve what I set out to do. Like the lesson observed, I tried out the scaffolding, I wasn't sure how the students would take to it, I made sure they understood the instructions, and they could do it, and that was an immense satisfaction for me because it showed that my instructions were clear, they could understand me and I had gauged their ability level accurately' - Joey.

Even though she has a sense of professional identity, the lack of teaching qualifications somewhat impedes her sense of teacher identity as she says that she learns from trial and error.

'yea, I do introduce myself as a teacher, but as a 'real' teacher, I guess I'm not. Because I don't have teacher qualifications, the theoretical background, pedagogy. What I've taught so far is based on my experience, through trial and error, really hands-on, learning as I go'.

Initially, she did not feel connected to teaching due to her corporate background; she felt different from her colleagues and felt that she did not fit into the traditional stereotype of a teacher. She derives great pleasure from allowing her 'wacky' personality to come through in her teaching. She exudes a feeling that is she is a 'breath of fresh air', she is proud that she is not the traditional teacher mould.

'Initially, when I joined, I felt different. In the corporate world, your exposure is much more, you meet different kinds of people, so when I actually came in and I realized the teachers here interact primarily with students; they have a different mindset. Initially, I felt alienated, I don't seem to have the norms of a teacher, my behaviour was different, I'm crazier, I joke, I'm freer in that sense. The trained teachers are stereotyped, they fit the mould of a teacher; they're serious, and I think they don't have a sense of humour. After all these years, having polished off my rough edges, I still don't have that teacher mould; I'm still crazy, I tell jokes, I like a sense of a laugh, act silly in front of others'.

For Joey, her concept of what makes a 'traditional' teacher is the perception of someone who is qualified but is no fun. However, she has a strong personal sense of self identity even though she does not see herself being a traditional teacher and acknowledges that her thinking skills have improved after teaching for ten years as she now thinks the lesson through and anticipates problems.

'I still have my own sense of identity. I don't think I'll be able to fit in to the traditional mould of a teacher. In terms of classroom management, I feel that I'm getting more of a grip on it. Initially, when I first started teaching, I'd just bulldoze my way through the lesson plan, but now I think through the lessons, my thinking skills have improved tremendously, so when I do a lesson, I anticipate what problems would happen' - Joey.

Joey has thus put her previous work experience into her teaching career through an alternative route, and through trial and error and learning on the job over the years has developed her own sense of professional identity.

Lorna, with prior positive experiences in corporate training on the other hand felt that teaching brought out the best in her, she enjoyed teaching her classes, enjoyed being challenged and did her own research to keep herself abreast with new knowledge.

'Since the day I started teaching here, I find that I enjoy teaching the Oxford class, because they challenge me, I've to do a fair bit of work and research on

my own. I find that the class is interesting and the children are interesting because they challenge me, so I feel we need to be challenged so that we put our best foot forward'.

Her sense of professional identity was derived from her desire to make an impact on her students' lives and a belief that she was able to do that by being a teacher.

'I've always wanted to bring out the best in my students, I want to make a difference in their lives to be a change agent'.

She felt it was a privilege to be able to teach her students and took great pride in her students' good work. She was particularly conscious of the words she used in class, as well as non-verbal forms of communication such as body language.

'If my student's essay is good, I'd read it out to the class, it makes them feel good. We can really make an impact; it's very powerful. I'm also conscious of my attitude, tone and register of voice and body language I use with each and every student in class. The students are very sensitive, even a nod can be affirming' - Lorna

For Lorna, coming into teaching has been a mutually rewarding journey, a real joyful experience for her, in a sense that as she aimed to bring out the best in every student, her students had brought out the best in her.

Pritti regarded teaching as beyond delivering just the lesson plan, and had a strong desire to make an impact in her students' lives. She stressed that

'to be able to teach is a real joy, a blessing. What we have learnt in our lives, we can impart to our students and mould and change their lives. Now I understand why they say teachers can really impact a child's life. I do not look at teaching as just go in the class, deliver the lesson plan, yes, that's important, but in a way we also mould their character, build each student's talent and ability' - Pritti.

Here, Pritti displayed a strong sense of professional identity regarding the impact a teacher can have on the students.

Meena's and Ruby's journey into teaching was a return to their original ambition after an initial career in IT industry and research in a semi-government body respectively.

'I've always wanted to be a teacher, but somehow my parents discouraged me from going to the teacher's training college because they were worried that I might be posted to the rural areas to work. So I took up IT. After that, I taught at a college, software packages, programme to a wide age group, from children to retirees. There was once when I taught a group of very experienced teachers. Of course, I was scared at that time, but one of the senior teachers

complimented me that I was a very good teacher. From there, I was very happy that even without a teaching background, I could be good, that gave me a boost'- Meena.

For Meena, her sense of professional identity was affirmed by the positive feedback from her students, and it was a big boost to her when she had positive feedback from an experienced teacher whom she taught IT to.

Despite the positive feedback, Meena sometimes felt demoralized when the students got her down.

Of course, sometimes the children from the Salvation Army Children's Home get out of hand, I don't know why. I feel very disappointed. It drags the lesson, I can't go on as planned.

To cope with these disappointments, she talked to her colleagues and obtained ideas on how to handle them. Despite feeling discouraged, she said

'it's not that bad that I would want to leave the teaching profession. The kids are from the Salvation Army Children's Home, they want more attention. I would pay more attention to them first, just to show I take care of them more, give them more praises. I've to be a good example, show them the correct way of handling things'.

She reconciled the fact that despite teaching a challenging class and feeling frustrated, she still felt compassion. Here, she showed her nurturing self, while not exactly articulating it, gave a perception that her sense of teacher identity is rather strong as she has decided to stay on to teach.

Ruby is another teacher who has managed to have a second chance at fulfilling her 'first love', which is teaching.

'When I was young, about 5 or 6 years old, I had always wanted to be a teacher. After I finished university, the teacher's pay was very low compared to the others such as administrative officers. People with education degree were paid very low. That made me decide to work in the corporate or semi government sector. After I retired, I went back to my first love. Initially, I had no clue whatsoever on how to write a lesson plan. Only after teacher P told me what to do, then only did I pick up. Now I can write lesson plans and am enjoying teaching' – Ruby.

Given this second chance, she is enjoying it and feels connected towards the teaching profession and is comfortable with her sense of identity as a teacher.

'I'm enjoying it. After one lesson, I go on to the next, I don't sigh all the time. I pray a lot for my kids. Once, when I did relief teaching, I was told that there were some difficult kids, but when I went in, it was OK, they got on well with me. I feel fairly connected towards the teaching profession. I have a degree and several other qualifications from abroad, which helped me in my self-esteem and identity' – Ruby.

Supiah's sense of professional identity came from affirmations from her students as she found it difficult to assess her own judgment.

'I think it's difficult to assess how connected I felt towards teaching myself, but from what I can see, my connections with the students...I'm quite good with them, because a lot of my students come to me and tell me that I can relate to their problems and they're willing to share that with me' – Supiah.

One teacher went a step further and says that being untrained, she went the extra mile to prove herself to appear professional when teaching. She compensates by being really prepared to face her students during the lessons to make up for her lack of qualifications.

'...for us who are not trained teachers....we make up for that unconsciously. I don't have that piece of paper, I've got to work extra hard, got to really give a sense of professionalism. If not, my students will think 'does she know what she's doing?' I teach working adults, they throw unexpected questions. If I genuinely don't know the answers, I'll admit it and check it out. I always make sure I deliver' – Peerle.

Here, Peerle felt the need to deliver the lesson professionally so that her students would not question her teaching and that she was ready to answer any query her students might have. She planned her lessons meticulously, always having the best interests of her students at heart and had a close personal relationship with her students who in turn affirmed her sense of professional identity.

'My students' responses inspire me, I must say that; we go along with the lesson plan, but I'm always listening with my heart, be observant. I tend to be flexible with the speaking exercises and let the students take the lead, then they'll be able to use what they've learnt in their workplace, social life. Once, a student who works in the national park was so thrilled when she could apply an expression she had learnt on a tourist; that story inspired others to keep coming'.

As a result, she felt a strong sense of professional identity, her nurturing of her students' language needs had been her main focus.

'I do feel the identity as a teacher, the nurturing side has always been very strong. The moment I stand in front of the class, the cloak of being a teacher just comes on and the confidence is there. The ideas from the workshops, some adapted for adult classes really help'.

For Peerle, the nurturing self is one of the 'markers' of being a teacher and the need for validation.

Gina constantly struggled with the construction of her professional identity as a teacher as she found it difficult to control her classes. She gave the perception that her identity as a teacher depends to a great extent on her students' compliance or non-compliance.

'I feel it's a bit difficult to manage the classes. The students are rather rowdy and it's difficult to control them. The 1st year was difficult, the 2nd year and 3rd year were better, this year I've problems with students who are older than their classmates. They keep speaking Mandarin in class and are inattentive in class. I feel stressed and frustrated' - Gina.

She exhibited a 'siege mentality', constantly feeling she was under attack, and faced an uphill battle in getting compliance from her students.

'When we face the students, we cannot smile at them, they're very careless, talk among themselves. Actually, I wrote the school rules on the first day; 'you are not allowed to talk to your friends when the teacher is teaching or explaining', but still they talk with their friends. They play with the pencil. So I have to say, 'put your pencils down', some of them like to read Chinese comics, they share with their friends, I told them they're not allowed to' - Gina.

However, she was able to see the good in some students as she said that helped her to have some sense of professional satisfaction.

'I remember one boy CJ, now he's in Primary 4, he's better now. I remember he was hyperactive, very naughty. Actually, he's a very nice boy, he will always say 'thank you teacher' when I give him exercise books or books, whereas the other students just keep quiet. I really love him in this way' - Gina.

After teaching for four years, she now felt teaching *'is interesting, especially with those students who participate, keen to answer questions'*, but she also felt frustrated in certain areas. Her sense of professional identity was fragile as it depended on the types of students she got. If the students were compliant, she felt she was a good teacher. On the other hand, if the students were non-compliant, she felt stressed and was unable to reflect why the students were behaving as such and did not seem to have strategies to put things right.

Harn initially felt stressed as she was given a class which she recalled *'was a wrong class for me to teach as a new teacher. The books used for that class did not have a teacher's book, so I felt lost'*. She knows what classes she does not want to teach, *'I won't like to teach the remedial classes or the lower proficiency learners'*.

Her lack of teaching experience made her feel rather new to the community of teachers. However, she did not feel a disconnect between the teachers with ESL qualifications, but admitted *'needing to find my way around'*. Here, Harn did not feel a strong sense of professional teacher identity as she is still someone at the periphery working her way in and concluded that *'management can give more support'*.

Jaki, a novice teacher only in her second month of teacher when interviewed said she was *'still learning. The first month was a lot of adjustment, trying to manage students, a lot of work to be done outside the classroom'*. She realised that the work of a teacher is unrelenting and was experiencing a sharp learning curve, and did not made any mention of having a teacher identity yet. She gave a perception she is gradually feeling her way into the profession. Like Jaki, Lori did not express a strong sense of teacher identity, but would like more classes to teach in future to get more experience, but is happy with her current load.

Similarly, Pippa was not able to articulate much sense of teacher identity at that time. This was due to the fact that she was naturally hesitant to speak up, being a new teacher at the school.

In conclusion, the themes that emerged with regards to the journey these teachers had taken showed that some teachers (Gina, Lori, Jaki, Pippa, Harn and Siaw) have a 'fragile' sense of professional identity whereas others (Alimah, Tang, Lil, Noor, Joey, Lorna, Pritti, Meena, Ruby, Peerle and Supiah) have a more 'positive and secure' sense of professional identity.

4.5 Summary

The main aim of the study was to find out how untrained teachers with little or no knowledge of teaching enter teaching and manage to become a competent or expert teacher after a period of time. Key issues that have emerged from this chapter such as the journey the teachers underwent from one point to the other was the main focus. During the journey, what processes enable them to gain pedagogical knowledge to be a competent teacher?

Teachers who have undergone a formal training route at university or teachers' college follow a formal programme of lectures, assignments, exams and a teaching practicum to enable them to graduate and be a qualified and competent teacher. How then do teachers who did not undergo this formal training route end up being a competent teacher? The journey was longer, and they learnt through CPD in the schools, through

self-reflection, through developing tacit knowledge from informal exchanges between colleagues, through reading or attending conferences.

What resources did they use to help them plan their lessons? Here, the findings showed that resources provided by the schools such as Curriculum Outcomes Document, textbooks, teachers' books, workbooks and other reference books were the main resources the teachers depended on. The degree of adherence to institutional resources was contingent on the confidence of the teacher; some adhered closely at the beginning of their teaching career. As they gained confidence, they experimented with resources from other sources such as the internet, newspapers and posters. Another important resource these teachers depended on was through socialising with other teachers where they found support and affirmation in their teaching practices.

However, being a teacher is not just developing competence in pedagogical knowledge. Closely tied to it is the development of their identity as a teacher. Did they see themselves as 'real' teachers? Was it an issue for them? From the data analysed, it would appear that the more one developed one's competence in teaching, the more one felt an identity as a teacher. It was a mutually reinforcing process. They perceived themselves as 'good' teachers based on feedback from other teachers or their students. Yet, for some, this was not enough. For them to feel as a 'qualified teacher' they needed 'that piece of paper' to validate them and the community that they are indeed qualified and competent. Hence, some have embarked on a professional journey to achieve that personal goal by taking up formal academic studies.

Key issues which emerged from this study and how they related to the research questions and the existing literature will be discussed in Chapter Five.

Chapter Five

Discussion of Findings

5.0 Introduction

This chapter discusses the findings and analysis of the data with regards to the specific research questions and aims to relate the findings to the existing literature as well to the context of the research. It focuses on the critical role of the institutional culture and support system in enabling teacher development.

However, instead of presenting the discussion according to the SRQ strictly, lesson planning strategies and identity development are discussed first. This is followed by the main thrust of the thesis argument, which discusses the importance of institutional support culture.

Therefore, Section 5.1 focuses on the strategies teachers adopted in planning their lessons, and in particular the types of resources used in answering Specific Research Question 1 – What strategies do such teachers adopt when planning their lessons?

Section 5.2 articulates the construction of a professional identity and the dilemmas these teachers faced in answering Specific Research Question 3 – How do they construct their professional identity?

Section 5.3 discusses the critical role of the institutional culture and support systems in enabling teacher development. It emphasises the effectiveness of institutional CPD support mechanisms in enabling these teachers gain pedagogical knowledge in answering Specific Research Question 2 – How do institutional support mechanisms, both formal and informal, enable their work?

Section 5.4 is a Summary of the chapter which sees the emergence of a set of facilitative conditions for the development of untrained teachers at this institution.

5.1. Strategies adopted by the teachers in planning their lessons

This section discusses the three types of resources the teachers used in their planning strategies.

5.1.1 Strategies from institutional resources

Lesson planning is an important preparatory stage before a teacher steps into a classroom. Much time and effort go into this process. In this study, all the teachers see

lesson planning as an important step in effective teaching. As Calderhead (1984:69) points out that 'it is in planning that teachers translate syllabus guidelines, institutional expectations and their own beliefs and ideologies of education into guides for action in the classroom. This aspect of teaching provides the structure and purpose for what teachers and pupils do in the classroom'.

The first step in the planning process for all the teachers in the present study was to refer to the institutional guidelines. As such, an institution-sanctioned, planned curriculum outline with clear learning outcomes was used as an important first step in guiding these teachers. In the institution under study, a clear curriculum framework known as the Curriculum Outcomes Document (COD) was available for all the teachers to refer to. This COD is a document outlining the set texts to be used and covers all the five skills (Speaking, Listening, Reading, Writing and Grammar) of English Language learning. It was created by the coordinator of each class level who established the content to be covered and organised in weekly blocks for the whole academic year from January to December (see Table 4.2).

It is not unsurprising that the degree of adherence to the COD was contingent on the confidence and expertise of the teachers. As a novice teacher with no teaching experience, the degree of reliance on this was high to ensure that the lesson plans had the basic framework such as learning objectives, a starter, the main body of the lesson and a summary. This was to ensure that teaching was carried out smoothly and standards met. These teachers were using what Shawer (2010a) referred to as curriculum-transmitting strategies. They used the curriculum fidelity approach (Shawer, 2010a) and followed the prescribed curriculum systematically, adhering closely to the scope and structure of the COD. Textbooks, workbooks were used in a predictable manner, following the chapters or units outlined in them. The teacher's book was treated as a major source of teaching ideas and pedagogical knowledge. This enabled the teachers to learn-as-they-teach and be within their 'comfort zone'. In this case, strict adherence to textbooks provided a clear structure for the curriculum that needed to be covered. This is in line with Dreyfus and Dreyfus' (1986) model of skill acquisition whereby at novice level, the dependence on rules and regulations provide a sense of security that they are on the right track.

Seven teachers - Gina, Siaw, Pippa, Harn, Lil and Lorna and Jaki (in the novice/advanced beginner level) adhered to the textbook and teacher's books and were very not interested in doing anything innovative that would take them beyond the realms of these books provided by the institution. They seemed to be quite happy following the textbook closely and the teaching ideas in the teacher's books. Lil recalled, *'I use the main text, Chatterbox Starter, and the teacher's book. It helps a lot'*. When asked if she uses other resources, she replied *'only pictures and games'*.

Similarly, Gina gets *'ideas, questions, presentation and practice from the teacher's book'*.

Hence, they did not actively look for extra materials or have pedagogical strategies for building on students' prior knowledge, though some may have the tendency to try to look for other materials. They appeared to be sticking very closely to the resources from the institution, and not to have the awareness of the affective needs of the students. Classroom observations as outlined in Chapter Three confirmed that these teachers mainly delivered information to the students in a transmissive manner and that their students tended to be passive learners. Even if the teacher's book suggested some supplementary activities, they were delivered in a transmissive way.

Their lesson plans reflected this approach – they were planned in a predictable and linear manner. They followed the lesson plan and the teacher's book strictly and followed the timing allocated for each activity with little flexibility. Based on the strategies they adopted, it can be interpreted that, for them, knowledge was what could be garnered from the pages of the book, objective and independent of the learner. It seems reasonable to suggest that this teaching approach did not take into cognisance the learning styles or needs of the students. This transmissive model is what Richardson (1997:3) cautions against, as it *'promotes neither the interaction between prior and new knowledge nor the conversations that are necessary for internalisation and deep understanding'*.

As English is not the first language of these teachers, they made use of additional resources supplied by the institution such as CDs, cassettes and videos which came with the textbooks to plan a variety of activities. These resources provided by the institution gave a sense of assurance that they were doing it correctly. However, most textbooks used in the institution were sourced from the UK and the US. They were culturally specific and American language or Eurocentric language was less familiar to students studying ESL in the South East Asian region. The teachers were not familiar with some of the topics themselves, and hence found it difficult to incorporate them into their teaching. In addition, it could be argued that relying exclusively on textbooks to plan their lessons would render them mere transmitters of the contents in the textbooks.

Another group of 6 teachers (Pritti, Lori, Alimah, Joey, Tang and Meena) including a few (Lorna, Gina, Jaki, Siaw and Harn) from the novice/transmitters group who have gained more experience and confidence, felt a need to experiment with new ideas and resources as Lorna said, *'relying on the textbook alone is so boring'*. The sole dependency on the textbooks and teacher's books was reduced as they made decisions to include other resources such as supplementary books from the school's resource room or from their own collection and adapted them accordingly to suit the learning needs of their students. They showed a different approach from the

curriculum transmitters (who used CDs and cassettes in a transmissive manner) by actively adapting and experimenting the curriculum.

These teachers used curriculum-development strategies thereby adopting a curriculum adaptation approach to varying degrees. Using macro-curriculum-development strategies (Shawer, 2010a), they adapted, experimented, created materials and supplemented from authentic sources from the environment such as newspapers, posters and the internet. Micro-strategies included the selective use of textbooks, skipping of topics or developing questions to make the process of language learning more meaningful to the learners.

The strategies they used filled in gaps of knowledge in the textbooks by supplementing and adapting the contents and questions. There were several sources of language input and the teachers acquired curriculum-development skills by adapting the material to ensure its relevance to the students. There was evidence that material development and pedagogy is inextricably linked – by adapting the curriculum, the teachers also delivered the lesson in a more creative manner as they had greater ownership of the whole process. Joey recalled that her students *'told me that they had enjoyed a particularly interesting lesson I had planned adapting materials from the MELTA conference. I know my students, what they like and what they are able to do, so I plan for them'*.

In the socio-cultural view, Dunscombe and Armour (cited in Kelly, 2006:509) concluded that *'this iterative engagement in constructing and reconstructing their knowledge allows creativity and innovation to surface'*. Analysis of the data from the interviews, lesson plans and classroom observations led to the conclusion that the kinds of strategies these teachers used fitted with a model of learning which was broadly constructivist and interactive, as they found a way to match the curriculum to the students' learning needs, thus in turn enhancing the students' motivation and engagement.

The six teachers who used the curriculum-development strategies (competent level) reported during the post-observation interviews that their lessons were more interesting for their students (based on their feedback) as well as for themselves. As they had put in a lot of effort in adapting material for use in their classes, they had a strong sense of ownership and took great pride in their efforts. They had invested a considerable amount of time and energy to make adaptations from the resources available to suit their teaching needs which reflected the basic constructivist teaching and learning principles. Pritti was overjoyed when *'the students told me they enjoyed the lesson I had planned, adapting the resources from the MELTA conference'*.

These teachers also tended to reflect more about their lesson plans and tried to bridge the divide between what was planned on paper and the reality of enacting it. As such,

they were prepared for alternatives should the original lesson plan not work. The lesson plan was not an end in itself, but a dynamic document which lent itself to constant refinements as the lesson happened, as well as during post-lesson reflections. Therefore, they took the position that lesson plans should be a guiding framework for the lesson and should not be doggedly adhered to, in order to cater for the dynamic interactions in the classroom as each lesson unfolds, as Tang stressed, *'I always have a plan B'*.

Going one step further, teachers who adopted the enactment approach (proficient level) used curriculum-making strategies to bring their lesson plans to another level. Here, as these four teachers (Supiah, Peerle, Ruby and Noor) gained even more confidence and experience, they ventured out into making their own teaching aids, as Noor, a teacher who loves art says *'I draw my own pictures for my young learners'* and used resources from external environment. They were creative and imaginative and were able to use available resources such as posters or newspapers to create individualised authentic teaching material for their students. This cost saving method was an incidental by-product of their curriculum-making strategies. *'I get posters from the Health Department; after all they're free'* – Ruby.

With the advent of ICT in the classroom, Lorna, (who moved from the novice/transmitter stage and the competent/developer stage) who was in the IT industry prior to teaching - and one of the most technologically inclined teachers at the centre, introduced video-making to her class as part of a year-end school trip to the new State Legislative Building. She created worksheets based on her own research, planned the trip and guided the students in making the video. During the staff party, it was uploaded for viewing. She explained, *'the students did everything, they recorded and edited the video clip. I just gave them advice and they did a fantastic job and hidden talents were seen'*. It was an extremely rewarding and enriching experience for her as well as her students. By sharing the lesson outcomes during a staff function, it was for the greater good of the teaching community. It was clear that the effort she had put in to create a specially designed experience for her students enriched and built up her own confidence as she moved up the skill acquisition stages.

Thus, it could be interpreted from the data that both the curriculum-developers and the curriculum-makers were providing the environment for constructing knowledge. Howard et al. (2000) stressed that by doing so, teachers such as Lorna were engaged in a community in which learning is the result of interactions, reflections and experiences. They also addressed issues of social interaction, conscious construction of knowledge and student motivation by 'organising materials/resources, providing relevant/interesting and novel experiences, providing opportunities for active exploration and scaffolding through direct attention to a new aspect of a situation' (Siraj-Blatchford, 1999:40). They thus had more interesting lessons prepared

(evidenced by student feedback) and were perceived to have more competence as recalled by Joey, *'My students told me they enjoyed the lesson and commended on my teaching'*.

However, this did not mean that the teachers who were curriculum transmitters were not constructing knowledge. By closely adhering to the set texts, they also learned the 'how' of lesson preparation and were able to learn to construct knowledge in their own way as they were guided by teaching notes and steps outlined in the teacher's books. The fact that they had to do their own lesson plans through trial and error showed that they were constructing knowledge on a personal level. As Lil puts it, *'the teacher's book helps me a lot, guides me what to do, step by step'*. Through planning her lessons, she has built up her tacit knowledge which Polanyi (1966) defined as implicit and exists in people's mind.

Hence, the findings clearly showed that the first point of reference for all these 17 teachers was the COD. After consulting it, the teachers generally followed one or more of the three curriculum planning strategies espoused by Shawer (2010a), depending on their level of expertise, confidence, prior and ongoing experience. All the teachers described a journey starting from being curriculum-transmitters, but progressed at different rates and with different degrees of change. At the beginning of their teaching career, the novice teachers tended to adhere to the institutional mandated textbooks and relied heavily on the teacher's books for planning ideas. With the benefit of experience, they felt empowered to move out of their 'comfort zone' and experimented with new materials, adapting them to suit the learning needs of their students which were assessed through feedback from classroom interactions and students' written work.

However, this did not mean that only those who adopted the curriculum transmitting strategies were 'comfortable'. Indeed, [because of their lack of experience,] they needed to follow the textbooks and teacher's books in order to teach in the early stages. For the more creative and imaginative teachers, they even tried their hand at making their own teaching materials to enhance their teaching strategies. The strategies adopted by teachers in lesson planning and the moving up of the skill acquisition stages can thus be summarised in Figure 5.1 below.

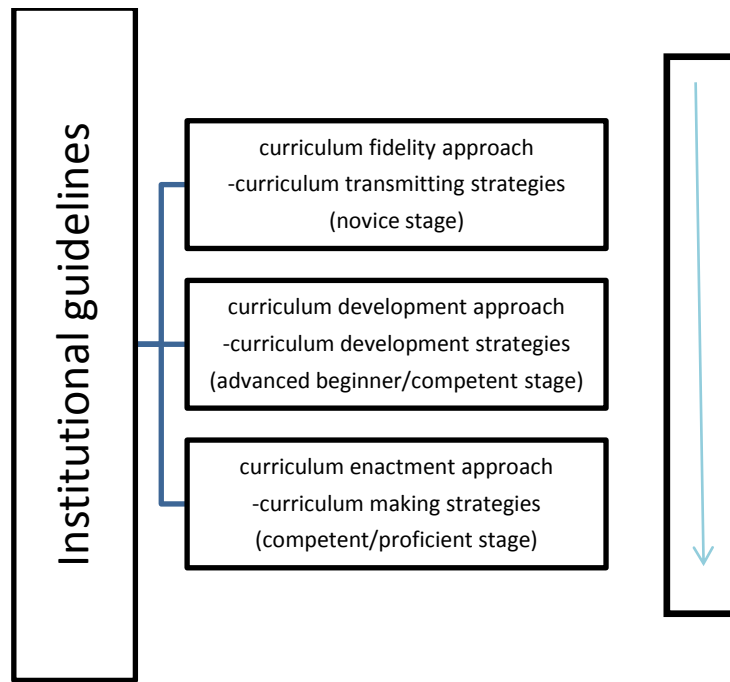


Figure 5.1 Types of strategies adopted by teachers when planning lessons

However, the strategies adopted by the teachers were not strictly compartmentalised, rather it was a continuum, starting from curriculum fidelity strategies to curriculum development strategies, and for a few, curriculum making strategies as they gained more experience and confidence in themselves as they move up the stages. It is difficult to generalise as the rich complexity of responses reflected the individual's level of confidence, sources of ideas and experiences.

In addition, there was also a certain amount of overlap as teachers gained more experience and knowledge and hence the three approaches are not mutually exclusive, rather there is an accumulation of approaches rather than moving from one level to another. The more basic skills which were still useful and appropriate were retained, but new approaches were gradually tried and new skills added. This approach is represented in the diagram in Fig 5.2. Here, it is not conceptualised as a journey from being curriculum transmitters to curriculum makers, but embracing all three approaches at one time or another depending on the familiarity of the lesson to be planned.

Hence, even Siaw who started as a novice teacher and eventually worked her way up to be a competent teachers who used the curriculum making approaches in her lesson plans would revert to curriculum transmitting strategies to a certain extent, for example when teaching a topic with which she was unfamiliar –*'it gives me structure, more confidence to deliver it, especially if I'm not familiar with the materials'*. It can be argued that there is pedagogical value in doing so, as they have been 'tried and tested'. Thus, it can be interpreted that teachers who are curriculum makers also

employ curriculum fidelity and curriculum adaptation approaches as their strategies in planning a lesson.

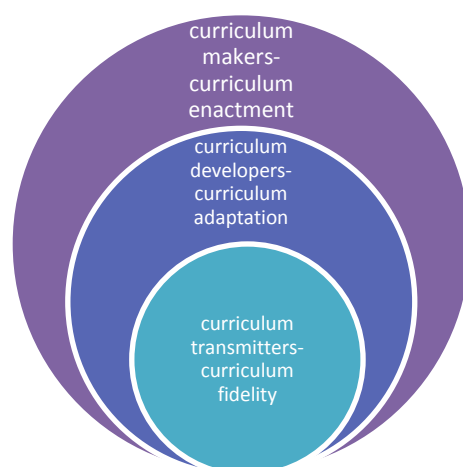


Figure 5.2 Approaches and strategies used to do lesson planning

5.1.2 Strategies from social resources

The importance of resources supplied by the institution or garnered from the environment played an important part in the planning processes of the teachers. In addition, the teachers found that they were able to learn through socialising with one other informally before and after class. From a socio-cultural perspective, thinking, memory and understanding are shaped by the social activities in which we participate (Flavell, Miller and Miller, 1993). Thus subject-related professional knowledge, what Shulman (1986) calls pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) is constructed through teachers' interactions in-situ. This knowledge is what Lave (1993) calls situated knowledge.

Through the actual process of teaching, all the teachers encountered many positive and negative experiences that influenced their work which provoked them to re-examine their teaching strategies. Through collegial interaction, these experiences were shared and teachers learned from each other – that is to say, these non-qualified teachers were not only learning from each other, but were participating fully in the large community which included the qualified teachers. All of the teachers interviewed described these exchanges as valuable source of knowledge that influenced their teaching, even though many of these interactions were informal.

Jaki, a new teacher remarked, *'I learn a tremendous amount from my colleagues by talking informally in the staffroom. I come in early in the evening and use that opportunity to talk to the teachers like Teacher L, who is a trained teacher, to bounce ideas and share teaching ideas'*. Thus, her socialising with her colleagues enabled her to developing her own tacit knowledge and understanding. Similarly, Joey found that

she could share her frustrations and problems with her colleagues and learnt through socialising. *'We try a different way if something doesn't work, we find our own way, an informal way of learning, we learn through socialising'*.

A small number of teachers also had the opportunity to participate in more formal peer observation. The reason for this small number is often due to timetabling clashes and it became rather difficult to arrange for peer observation to take place. Lorna recalled that *'by observing another teacher's class on how she managed a language activity on Volcanoes, I went away with ideas how I could adapt the lesson for my own use or imitate certain aspects where appropriate'*. This concurs with Ibarra (1999) who reported how individuals develop practices by observing others, imitating them, and then adapting and developing their own practices.

The majority of teachers also found inspiration from talking to their family members, especially those who have children of the same age group of the students they were teaching. What happens during teaching-focussed conversations initiated by the teacher could be used as an idea to be used in the classroom as was in the case of Alimah who took the *'suggestion offered by my son to use paper plates for the students to write the types of food the students liked on it and those that they disliked under it'*.

Harn recalled that she recommended reading texts to her students based on her daughter's recommendations, *'I want to get them interested in reading, they are adverse to printed materials. I show them what my daughter is reading, what I read myself. If they like to read, half the battle is won'*. Even those without any children such as Lil, a newly married teacher, got a clearer picture of her planning strategies by simply *'talking it through with my husband, he offers a listening ear, and I feel better after that'*.

Thus, a novice teacher might depend heavily on a detailed lesson plan based on the school's prescribed curriculum (object-regulated) to teach a lesson, as Harn commented *'I need the lesson plan, without it, I cannot teach'*. Over time, through socialising with others (other-regulated), Pritti obtained *'lots of ideas from talking to the other teachers in the staffroom'*. Alimah developed personal pedagogical skills to execute a lesson more confidently (self-regulated), as evidenced by her statement that *'Once I've planned it, it's in my head, I don't really need to look at it'*. These are in line with Vygotsky's notion of ZPD and Johnson and Golombek's (2002) notion of mediational means in teacher learning whereby knowledge is co-constructed. This means that the teacher is able to progress from being dependent on others to being confident in oneself.

5.1.3 Strategies from historical resources

Teachers bring with them untapped tacit knowledge which again is a factor that contributes to the individuality of responses that has the potential to greatly enrich the

collective knowledge base. As these teachers in the present study came into teaching from a previous career, they brought with them skills and practical knowledge which they could draw upon as they started their teaching career. For example, Joey found that her previous work experience in the hotel and tourism industry gave her 'people skills' she could use to connect and engage with her students in class. She found that by getting the students on her side, she could get them to cooperate with her in getting the class work done easily. This again highlights the individuality of responses. What contributed to teacher expertise and individuality in this setting is highly varied as a result of the teacher's prior experiences. They did not have a first degree or pre-service training route into teaching, but came from a variety of backgrounds and experiences.

Tang found his previous training in religious studies helped him understand the psychology of teenagers better, and used this knowledge to provide counselling and engage them in activities that would motivate them. Similarly, Supiah who had worked in broadcasting, managed to use her network to get a student to go on air to be interviewed about her favourite books and authors, following a successful reading campaign initiated to encourage students to read books in English.

On the other hand, a small minority of the teachers found rather quickly that there were many aspects of their previous knowledge that they needed to abandon or relearn in order to be an effective teacher. Harn, who came into teaching after a career in purchasing and marketing conceded that she needed to adjust her expectations regarding the fixed nature of her previous work – that in teaching, the classroom dynamics are fluid and she had to learn to adapt to the new environment.

Thus, most of these teachers have managed to reflect what Polanyi (1966) referred to as 'tacit knowledge' from their previous work experience and what Connelly and Clandinin (1988:59) called a 'moral, affective and aesthetic way of knowing life's educational situations' and applied them to daily teaching practicalities. It also concurs with how Cochran-Smith and Lytle (1999) conceptualise knowledge as knowledge-of-practice, where teacher learning is embedded within a particular context or construct and where teachers are generators of knowledge.

As every school has unique organisational and group dynamics, the way to bring the nuances of context into sharper focus is to tap into the collective tacit knowledge of all the staff members. From the data, it can be deduced from the participants that the collective tacit knowledge and shared resources – both physical, social and historical - are means of gaining pedagogical knowledge. This is presented diagrammatically in Figure 5.3 with reference to lesson planning.

How teachers use resources in their lesson planning approaches/strategies

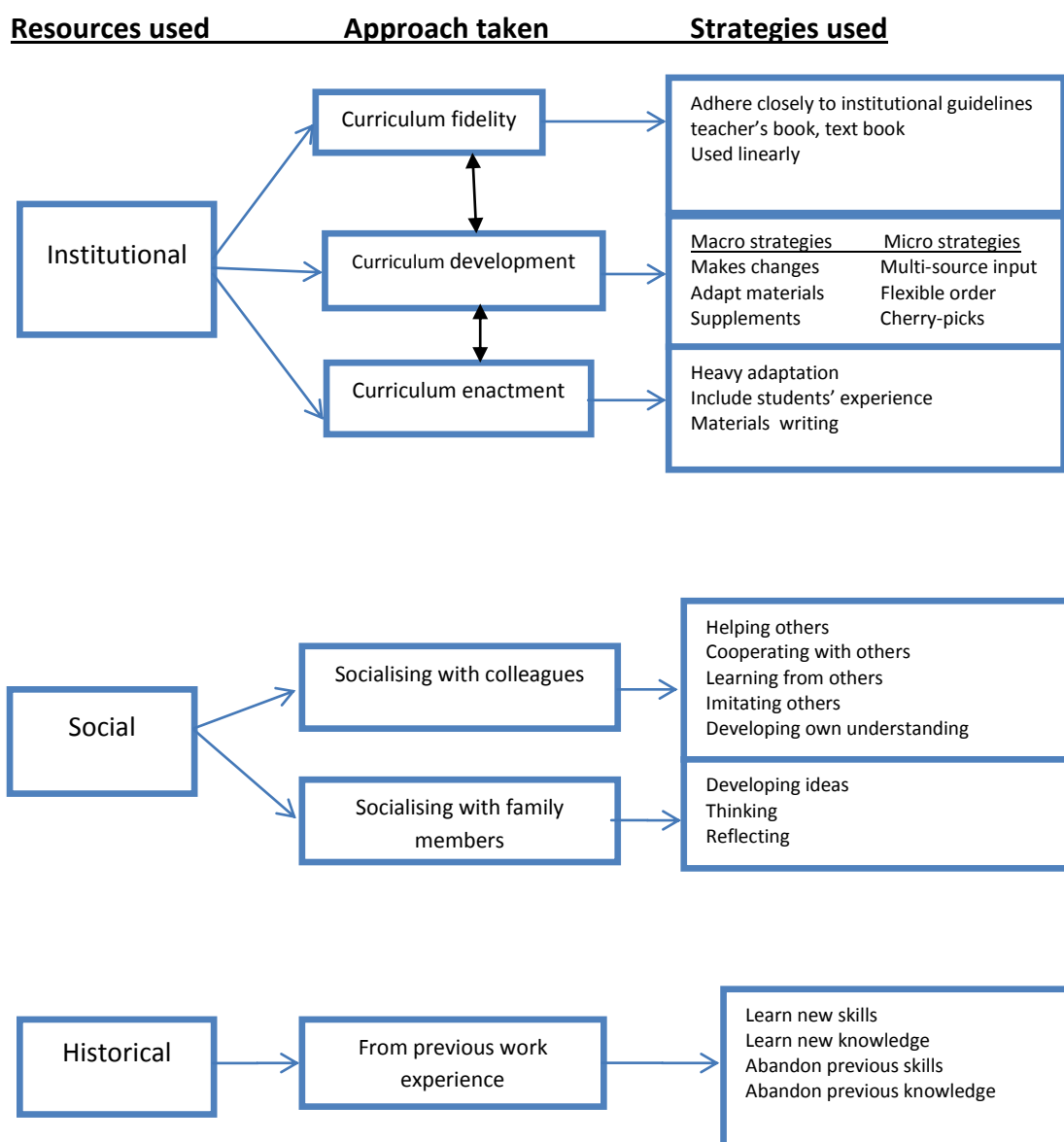


Figure 5.3 A conceptual framework of resources used, approaches taken and strategies used to plan their lessons

In summary, in answering the first Specific Research Question, this study identified several factors leading teachers to transmit, develop or make curriculum. Slightly more than two thirds of the teachers with more experience developed or made curricula (functioning at the competent/proficient levels) to address students' language needs such as accuracy and fluency in the four language acquisition skills of listening, reading, writing and speaking. They tailored content and activities to student's existing knowledge and built on their prior knowledge. This in turn motivated the students' interests and enhanced the currency of the whole teaching and learning experience.

Those with less confidence, functioning at the novice/advanced beginner level (slightly under a third) stuck closely to the teacher's books for lesson ideas and activities. These findings were found in trained teachers' approach to EFL curriculum in a study by Shawer et al, (2009), but in this case, untrained teachers also approached their curriculum in similar ways.

In addition, all the teachers made use of resources garnered through socialising with each other and with their family members. This could be in the form of ideas, advice, shared resources which helped them develop their own thinking. On the other hand, a recognition of the mismatch between old approaches, skills and beliefs and the reality of the classroom caused them to rethink old approaches and habits. Finally, the previous historical work experience of these teachers could be adapted and transferred into the classroom. This shows that teachers were able to use all these strategies and resources in helping them develop their pedagogical knowledge.

Another issue that emanated from the interview data was that the more experienced teachers such as Alimah, Tang and Joey wanted more autonomy in determining the way they planned their lessons and not to be enslaved to the detailed lesson plan. This desire for more autonomy reinforces their identity as teachers and increases the chances that the lesson planned applied to the individual teacher's strengths and teaching contexts. This tension between institutional and personal discord will be discussed in more detail in the next section on teacher identity.

5.2 The construction of teacher identity through the learning process

This section discusses the important and significant 'identity journeys' and how the teachers perceive themselves as teachers, in particular how these are affected by their non-qualified status. As reviewed in Chapter Two, most of the existing literature focused on in-service qualified teachers or pre-service teachers who are on a formal training programme. The factors which helped shape teacher identity in these contexts are compared with these unqualified teachers and the extent to which these experiences are similar or different is discussed here.

Cooper and Olson (1996) suggested that teacher identity is continually being formed and reformed as individuals develop through interactions with others. Viewing teacher identity through a socio-cultural perspective, Olsen (2008) saw it as both a product and a process, the former, a result of influences on the teacher, and the latter, a form of ongoing interaction within teacher development.

From the analysis of the data, it can be concluded that the teachers travelled along different 'identity journeys' and encountered different struggles in order to be 'worthy' of calling themselves as teachers. Some teachers such as Lorna and Meena are perceived to have a 'fragile' identity as seen by their need to be affirmed by their students.

...once, I was teaching IT to a group of very experienced teachers, and one of them complimented me that I was a good teacher,... that really boosted me – Meena.

'I was so surprised when student HM phoned me and she said she had learnt a lot from me. Oh... that felt so good – Lorna.

It can be argued that affirmations such as this are important for these teachers, especially so when compared with qualified teachers who have access to many other affirmations such as tutor's feedbacks of other forms of formal competence assessments.

Others, such as Alimah saw her acceptance by other staff when asked to give a demo lesson to her peers as a confirmation that 'marked' her identity as a teacher. She was perceived to have made a successful journey from being an 'accidental' teacher initially to a situation where she is now regarded as one of the competent teachers among those who do not have qualifications by being asked to coach others, which Joyce and Showers (1982) concluded was a sign of professional recognition and may lead to identity building in a positive way.

I never saw myself as a teacher initially. Now after 6 years, I'm very confident, I have teachers coming in to observe my class upon recommendation by the Director, asking me how to do certain things. I feel more comfortable telling people I'm an English teacher. I never was before' – Alimah.

Having come this far, she still needs to feel 'properly qualified' by going for further education and getting a formal teaching qualification to validate herself and to the world that she is now a properly qualified teacher. Her journey corresponds with the notion that identity is an ongoing process of interpretation of experiences (Kerby, 1991), or what Conway (2001) called a dynamic process. Coldron and Smith (1999) regarded agency as an important element of professional identity, meaning that teachers had to be active in the process of professional development. Alimah's journey in her identity formation clearly concurs with the statement made by ten Dam and Blom (2006:651) that 'learning is a constructive and socially and culturally situated process.'

Professional identity also implies both the person and the context. The way teachers think and behave professionally is contingent on the value they personally attach to the opportunity to be a teacher. For Ruby and Meena, becoming a teacher marked a return to their original ambition. Having being denied the opportunity to become a teacher through the concerns of family members earlier, they have now taken this taken this second chance whole-heartedly.

Ruby, now a retiree in her late sixties, appreciates that she has this opportunity to be a teacher, however late the opportunity might be. Thus she has completely immersed herself *'by getting on with it, I do not sigh'*, in making herself the best teacher she could be. For Meena, the opportunity to get into teaching after an initial career detour into the IT industry has made her appreciative of this second chance. For both Ruby and Meena, the fact that they are enjoying their second career is of great personal value to them.

Lori's journey into teaching was a result of a need to blend family life with a career. Her initial beliefs that teaching was *'just teaching'* were reconstructed when she realised that *'it's not so easy to handle a class, and I realised it's quite a challenging profession'*. However, despite this initial dilemma, she felt that was what she wanted to do, and has invested a considerable amount of time and effort to study for a degree as she wants *'to become a lecturer one day'*. It is clear that Lorna's identity as a teacher was ongoing and was shaped within her experiences.

A teacher's professional identity may consist of sub-identities which may or may not be in conflict. As these teachers have come from a non-teaching background, Goodson and Cole's study (1994) have shown that they are likely to come into teaching with a fully formed professional identity, and their past identities may have an impact on how they see themselves as teachers. For Joey, coming from the corporate world, she had always felt different from the traditional stereotypical teacher, whom she perceived as *'not having a sense of humour'*. She believed that her behaviour was different from theirs, in her words *'crazier, tells jokes, is freer'*. She opined that she *'still doesn't have that teacher mould'*, yet she still has her *'own sense of identity'*. She has since managed to bring congruence with her current identity as a teacher by choosing not to join in the said stereotypical mould, yet fitting in with the community.

Tang, who once trained to be a priest, but left the priestly training, remarked that *'my vocation now is a teacher, not as a priest. I find students look to me as a motivating force, they listen to me, maybe it's the power of my speech'*. Both Joey and Tang brought knowledge and skills from their former *'identity'* into teaching. Here, it can be interpreted that they have successfully managed to build a new identity as a teacher, one that is completely different from their previous identities.

Tang recalled he underwent a paradigm shift in his personal beliefs - to him, being a teacher meant *'sharing my knowledge with my students. I'm also learning, so there's a cycle in teaching and learning'*. Initially, he thought teaching for him was *'just a stepping stone'*. But now, he says *'Teaching is for me'*. He has a strong desire to be a teacher and has made a considerable effort to get himself a degree in TESL through distance learning despite having financial commitments to his family, *'or else I'll be unstable in my career'*. He revealed his current feelings towards teaching *'I look forward to improving myself, I see myself as a professional teacher'*.

Here, Tang displayed a positive sense of identity with the relationship and roles he underwent, in what Day (2004) notes as important to maintaining self-esteem, commitment to and a passion for teaching.

The discussions above can be conceptualised in Figure 5.4 below.



Figure 5.4 The relationship between experience, person and context, sub-identity and agency in the construction of teacher identity.

In answering the third SRQ, it can be concluded that the different ‘markers’ of identity determined the journey the teachers took. For the novice teachers (slightly over a third), the process of identity construction was more difficult and ongoing. For these teachers, it would simply confirm their fears that they were not ‘really’ teachers – their identity remained ‘fragile’ even after a few years of teaching. For others, (two thirds), this journey was more positive and secure, in line with Day’s (2004) conclusion that a healthy, positive, holistic experience in teaching allows a positive professional identity to develop. For such teachers who are more secure in their identity, they would look for ways to improve their planning and teaching strategies.

5.2.1 Conflict in professional identity building

Some other issues that came out from the data which warrant discussion here are the issues of teacher dilemmas in professional identity building. Three teachers, Alimah, Joey and Tang expressed their feelings of tensions of having to negotiate what they felt they wanted to do and what the institution expected. Alimah felt strongly that the school should not ‘force’ them to do a detailed lesson plan for each lesson as she argued that a detailed lesson plan may hinder the spontaneity of a lesson. *‘I feel put off by having to write in such detail, it stresses me’*. She felt adamant that her lesson plan

should be suitable for her, *'I should prepare something that suits me, because I'm delivering the lesson'*. Even though she acknowledged the importance of a lesson plan, she felt confident that she could carry out the lesson with an outline that suited her as *'I know what I'm going to do'*.

Joey echoed Alimah's feelings as she felt that *'having to do a detailed lesson plan is restrictive for me'*. She articulated her reasons that *'the lesson plan should only be a guide, I instinctively know what to do'*. Here, she showed her intuitive ability to adapt the lesson during the lesson itself, demonstrating her ability to put into practice her knowledge-in-action. Tang also acknowledged the pragmatic needs of his students, he thinks of his learners' needs as *'the reality is very different from planning'*.

These teachers are signalling how they view themselves as teachers, that is, they do not see themselves as blind implementers of policy but as those who understand the dilemmas faced by teachers. They are working out how to manage this conflict which is at odds with their own philosophy of wanting more autonomy. Rather than proposing that such dilemmas be resolved or avoided, it can be argued that they are a crucial part of teacher's identity formation. The more confident they felt, the stronger their sense of professional identity. Britzman (2003) concluded that viewing teacher identity this way allows an alternative explanation to account for teacher identity formation as developmental and that this process of negotiation illustrated the notion that teacher identity is not formed in a definable or predictable way; much the same way that learning to teach is not a linear process.

5.3 Institutional support systems and culture

The critical role of institutional support systems and culture in enabling development is discussed here. By utilising feedback gathered through collaboration framed around collegial support, new knowledge is constructed and can result in enhancing the prevailing institutional culture in a positive way.

5.3.1 The constructivist approach to teacher learning

Instead of a deficit approach that assumes that teachers need information from external experts, the constructivist approach centres on teachers learning through constructing knowledge for themselves in a situated context. Teachers learn by doing, reading and reflecting. By collaborating with other teachers and by sharing what they see, such learning requires an environment that supports teacher inquiry and strategies grounded in teachers' questions and concerns. To facilitate meaningful learning, teachers must learn about, see and experience successful learning-centred practices. Here, teacher learning 'is usefully understood as a process of increasing participation in the practice of teaching, and through this participation, a process of

becoming knowledgeable in and about teaching' (Adler, 2000:37). Borko (2004:4) asserts that learning occurs 'in many aspects of practice, including their classrooms, their school communities and professional development courses or workshops. In addition, learning can occur in a staffroom conversation with a colleague or when talking to parents after school. Hence, teacher learning must be seen in these multiple contexts and social systems in which they are participants'.

With this approach, teachers were seen as active participants in their own professional growth. There was much interaction among teachers – both qualified and unqualified – as they tried to understand what was happening in their classrooms. There was connection between what was learnt during CPD and their work; what was learnt in CPD was consciously applied in the daily teaching, and as the experimenting of ideas became successful (or unsuccessful), teachers learnt from it. This application to teaching enhanced the professional development of the teachers and had a more sustaining effect on learning. In other words, it is a fibre that is woven through the fabric of the school. This also had a ripple effect on the confidence building. As adult learners, Glathorn (1990) stressed that teachers want learning opportunities that are meaningful and practical to them, offer an immediate pay-off, involve reflection on their many experiences, and include social, active learning.

In answering the second Specific Research Question, that is, how do institutional support mechanisms, both formal and informal enable them in their work, this section focuses on the critical role of institutional culture and support systems in an enabling environment and discusses the support mechanisms in turn. These include workshop, teacher support/curriculum groups, classroom observations, analysis of critical incidents and peer coaching. These school-based and teacher-led CPD activities were sustained investments in the provision of teachers' learning opportunities and promoted the spread of ideas and shared learning resulting in a positive institutional culture.

The focus on the subject matter (content) gave teachers opportunities for 'hands-on' work (active learning) and was integrated into daily life of the school (coherence). The common area of intersection represents the teachers' new knowledge or additional construction of TESL knowledge. This can be represented in Figure 5.5.

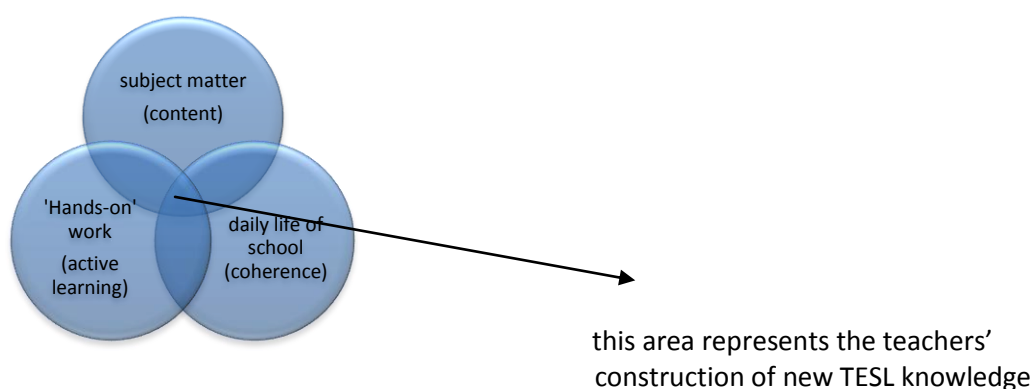


Figure 5.5 Figure showing the integration of content, active learning and coherence of CPD activities

The monthly training workshops offered by the centre were teacher-centred. The teachers participating in the workshops were both the qualified ones as well as the non-qualified. The unqualified teachers reported that they never felt sidelined and felt they were full participants in this aspect of the academic life of the school. They also attended all the staff meetings as well as smaller curriculum group meetings, as Lori recalled, *'We are always included in the staff meetings'*.

The topics during the two-hour session emanated from the needs of the school. As mentioned previously in Chapter 4, these meetings were held on Monday afternoons, as this is a non-teaching time. For example, if there had been instances of teachers struggling with the teaching of grammar, then this need would be addressed through a workshop on it. The mechanism by which this becomes known is through 'open-door' policy embedded in the school culture that encourages dialogue between the teachers and the management. This need could have been picked up during class observations or from post-observations interviews done by the Director of Studies or the Academic Advisor. It could also be a request from the teachers concerning an issue that was of concern to them. A session would then be planned by the management in consultation with the teachers. This would begin with an initial plenary theoretical input by the Director of Studies or Academic Advisor. Teachers would share their problems and brainstorm in groups ideas and discuss ways and means of coming up with some 'best practices' and this would be implemented in the school. *'Instead of a dry grammar presentation of changing this verb to present tense by adding -s or -ies, Teacher NT suggested we do a competition. I tried that, and it worked out well'* – Siaw.

Here, teachers developed collegiality as a consequence of the highly interactive nature of the activity, thereby providing opportunities for teachers to examine - through peer feedback and discussion - their beliefs or perspectives on teaching and learning. From the interviews, the teachers reported that it did enhance their PCK as they went away with ideas, strategies and techniques and materials that could be used in the

classrooms. All the teachers expressed that they had found participating in these workshops extremely beneficial to their gaining of knowledge for use in the classroom. Siaw recalled that *'it's not like, here's the books, and you teach. ..the backup, workshops, school management...are very helpful'*. If she experienced a problem, she would *'just go look for experienced teachers and talk about it'*. This is in line with Wenger's (1998) concept of a community of learners involving both active learners and more skilled partners in the course of the collaborative endeavour with a goal to advance collective knowledge in a way that supports growth of the individual knowledge (Bielaczyc and Collins, 1999). Thus, a setting is created whereby untrained teachers enter the teaching profession and work with more experienced teachers. The latter assume roles as mentors and renew their own professional development. It also enables teachers to become sources of knowledge for one another.

Besides the monthly workshops, all the teachers also met in teacher support/curriculum groups which functioned in a complementary role to teacher workshops. It was usually a smaller group involving teachers teaching the same level to discuss specific goals, concerns, problems and experiences. In this context, it was known as 'curriculum groups'. It provided a non-threatening platform where teachers could review, plan develop and collaborate on curriculum and resources. They met to give feedback back on the pacing of the COD as to whether it needed any amendments, to discuss strategies, approaches, methods to help them in their teaching. Siaw, the coordinator for the Primary Three classes *'had feedback from the other teachers teaching the level that they were falling behind in the COD as planned. As a result I had to adjust the pace of the lessons in the COD to ensure uniformity across the classes'*. Hence, she had developed this awareness of the need to listen to the problems and needs of her colleagues and acted to solve the problem. Thus, the curriculum group meetings allowed flexibility and were dynamic in nature, responding to specific needs of the teachers.

They also met once a year (in July) to evaluate the curriculum used with a view to assessing the relevance of the set texts, workbooks, or other student materials; the usefulness of the teacher's book, and to give recommendations whether to phase out certain books or request for new books. They were also given the opportunity to assess new books and pilot them with their students. Through this process, all the teachers had an opportunity to review the curriculum and problems and to come up with pragmatic suggestions. *'We reassess and evaluate the books used in our level. It's useful to see how other teachers are finding the books'- Pritti*. This allowed the teachers to have ownership of the planning process so that they were able to see how the books would be used in their classes the following year. *'This exercise is useful. If some current books are too difficult or too easy, we chuck them out. If we need more books, the management is always very supportive'* – Noor. The teachers are actually part of a process of revising the curriculum, in the light of students' learning needs,

which is characteristic of curriculum-developers. Besides curriculum evaluation, the teachers also meet to collaborate on the setting of the exam papers before the exam and after the exam to moderate marking.

By coming together to collaborate and share ideas on matters of importance in the school calendar such as exams and curriculum evaluation, the collective participation of teachers in curriculum group meetings gave coherence and provides active learning opportunities. This in turn was related to improvement in teacher knowledge and skills, *'I have more confidence now, there are so many ways of learning, keeps me on my toes – Supiah'*; leading to changes in classroom practice. The knowledge constructed here is what Lave and Wenger (1991) call situated knowledge – one that is constructed in a contextually developed situation in response to a 'group of people who share a concern, a set of problems, or a passion about a topic, and who deepen their knowledge and expertise in this area while interacting on an ongoing basis' (Wenger, McDermott and Snyder, 2002:4).

One of the most powerful contexts of teacher learning is the activities inside teachers' classrooms. Borko (2004) identified that the materials, lesson plans, sample of students' work enabled teachers to reflect on their own practice and work for improvement. If the materials or resources were too difficult, they were simplified or adapted, if they were successfully used, they were shared. McKenzie and Turnbull (1992) stressed that teachers need to make conscious the strategies and processes that they themselves have used in their learning. Classroom observations by peers or management provided an opportunity for teachers to see how they were teaching through the lens of another person. In this context, classroom observations are normally conducted by the Director of Studies or the Academic Advisor in the spirit of teacher professional development rather than being evaluative, although non-evaluative peer observations also took place. However, it must be mentioned that a certain amount of skill assessment was unavoidable, but the post observation interview was a time to encourage reflection and many teachers have expressed that they had learnt a lot of their own teaching.

Pippa recalled that *'I learnt a lot from the post observation follow-up interviews as I am finding my bearings, how things are done differently here. I found the students here are better motivated to learn than my previous school and I need to put in my own teaching strategies to maximise their learning'*. McKenzie and Turnbull (1999:19) termed this 'inside-out-learning', as it allowed teachers to view learning from their students' perspectives and be aware of their own learning strategies and are therefore consciously able to monitor their own learning experience. In this context, it alluded to Wenger's notion of social practice – it is 'about doing in a historical and social context that gives structure and meaning to what we do' (Wenger, 1998:47). It is argued that Pippa had developed 'an awareness of the norms and comes to understand and

engage or adapt language, roles and other explicit artefacts as well as various implicit relations, tacit conventions and underlying assumptions and values' (Handley et al., 2006:649).

During the course of teaching, teachers often faced critical incidents such as an unexpected response or an unanticipated opportunity. Seizing these significant opportunities and turning them into teaching moments can trigger self-awareness through self-observation and self-evaluation. However, Farrell (2008) noted that trainee teachers seemed to focus more on the negative incidents than positive incidents. Although most of the teachers in the present study were quite able to point to positive outcomes, this tendency to highlight setbacks over success was clearly evident. For example, Alimah reported that *'when the lesson did not go as well as planned, I would wonder and reflect what the reasons were and what steps I need to put in place to make it work the next time'*. This is evidence that she did focus on what could be improved, but not necessarily that she did not focus on the positive aspects. Thus, she was making clear the importance of self-reflection in the development of herself as a confident and reflective practitioner.

Joyce and Showers, (1982) noted that peer coaching is a developmental process and is an effective way to promote CPD as it provided for two teachers to look at teaching problems and to develop possible solutions. This was particularly so in the case of new teachers. Both Gina and Lil recalled the help they got from a more experienced teacher during their first year of teaching. *'I asked for help from Teacher N, she's an experienced teacher in lower primary, and I learnt a lot from her' - Gina. 'Teacher N came to observe my classes and showed me how to use the textbook, teacher's book and other resources. That's how I learned - Lil.*

Similarly, Lori found sessions like this helpful as in her previous school, lesson plans were done by the coordinators, she only needed to execute it. She now found herself in a difficult situation as she had no experience in writing lesson plans and had to think what and how to teach. Over time and through help given by more experienced colleagues, she was given sample lesson plans and books (such as *The Practice of English Language Teaching* by Jeremy Harmer) to read on lesson planning and so managed to do it on her own. Here, Vygotsky's (1978) concept of ZPD in utilising a social support system as a kind of learning process whereby one can bridge the gulf that exists between what one can achieve independently and what one can achieve in collaboration with someone more expert, with the help of artefacts is clearly seen.

From the perspective of a Vygotskian theory of learning, knowledge is essential social-cultural in nature, constructed through processes of collaboration, interaction and communication among individuals in social settings. Vygotsky's notion of ZPD, according to Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994:468), is the 'framework that brings all the pieces of the learning setting together – the teacher, the learner, their social and

cultural history, their goals and motives, as well as the resources available to them, including those that are dialogically constructed together'. Another useful notion in Vygotskian socio-cultural theory is that of scaffolding, whereby support is extended to the less knowledgeable partner (for example, the novice/advanced beginner teacher) as he/she collaborates with a more knowledgeable partner (for example, the competent/proficient teacher).

Here, it can clearly be seen that support through scaffolding helps the novice teacher gain pedagogical knowledge. In addition, it supports the concept of a 'community of learners' involving both active learners and more skilled partners who provide guidance and are present in the course of collaborative endeavour (Rogoff, Matusov and White, 1996). Strategies such as team planning, sharing, evaluating and learning offer facilitating conditions to fill the need for constant feedback as an ongoing process and not merely as a discrete one-off brief visit by an external school inspector.

From these five aspects of CPD, that is through job-embedded workshops, teacher support group, classroom observations, peer coaching and analysis of critical incidents - three main perspectives on knowledge and teacher learning emerge – knowledge-for-practice, knowledge-in-practice and knowledge-of-practice. Knowledge-for-practice stems from the traditional transmissive type of teacher training where a 'sage on stage' presents formal knowledge often in a one-stop workshop with the teachers in a passive role. They are then expected to apply this knowledge generated by others in their classroom. It is known that this approach to professional development is ineffective. In addition, Cochran-Smith & Lytle (1999) stressed that teacher learning does not occur from a one-shot workshop, but takes place over time with the collaboration and support from peers.

From the analysis of the data, it can be interpreted that the establishment and maintenance of communication norms and trust, as well as collaborative interactions that occur when groups of teachers work together to examine and improve their practice, foster teacher knowledge-in-practice and knowledge-of-practice learning. The nurturing environment promotes an enabling school culture created by management policies and results in a nurturing learning community which contributes to and supports the teachers' learning and co-construction of knowledge. This can be conceptualised in Figure 5.6.

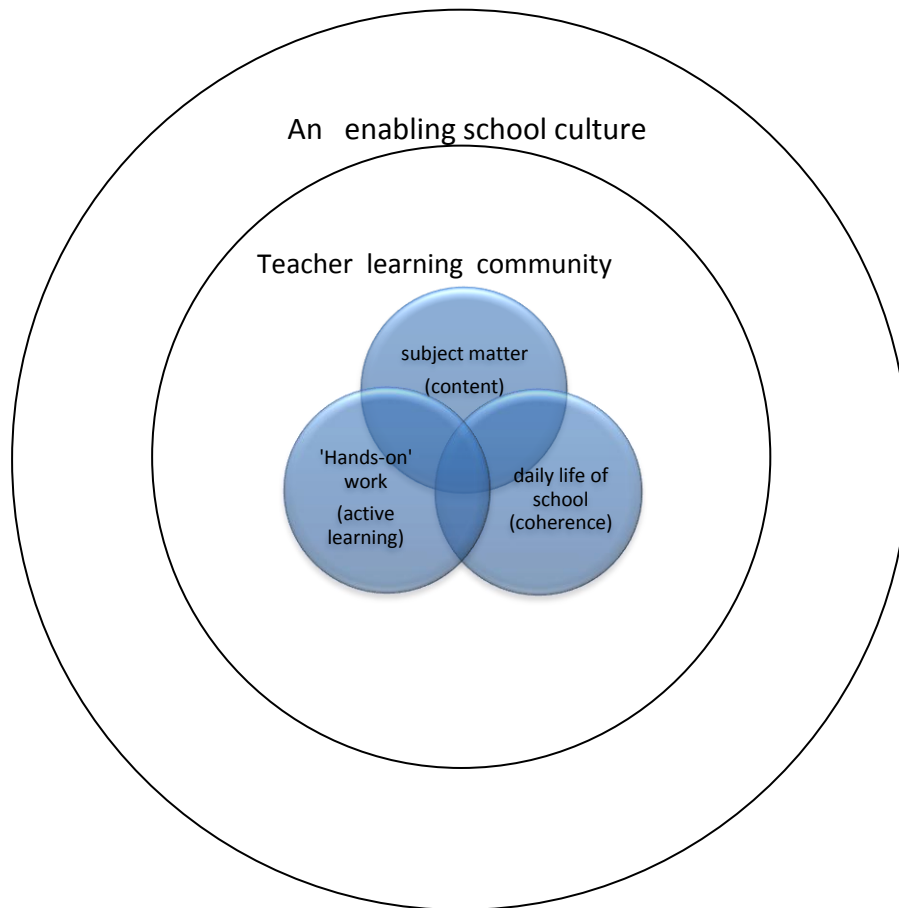


Figure 5.6 Conceptualisation of teacher learning embedded in and supported through school context

In the final analysis, it is clear that even though non-qualified teachers have access to other planning strategies and resources (such as through socialisation and drawing upon their past experiences), their development as teachers and their feeling of being part of the 'community of practice' in the institution and ultimately of them developing an identity as teachers is clearly contingent on the way the institution has included them in the various professional development processes to enable professional growth to take place. Not only were the CPD programmes inclusive, they also catered specifically for any problems the teachers might face. In other words, the institution has gone the extra mile to help them. These processes were not static, as some teachers showed evidence of progression during the period of the study.

The findings also clearly show that the extent to which individual or peer-related development would have developed in the absence of such mechanisms is limited. In addition, it is important to stress that teacher development is clearly supported by the

specific institutional mechanisms in this context. The main outcome of this study showed the importance of institutional support in enabling the development of non-qualified teachers and this could be transferred in the case of teacher shortage in other subjects or institutions facing similar problems.

5.4 Summary

The present chapter has provided a detailed discussion of the factors associated with managing a process by which unqualified teachers learn to teach through a socio-cultural approach. The planning strategies adopted in planning their lessons showed an accumulation of approaches. It was seen as a continuum, rather than three separate strategies developing at different rates and to different degrees, depending on their confidence. The resources used in planning came from institutional, social and historical resources. It showed a mastery of skills at different levels and using tacit knowledge from a previous job.

The implementation of a process to enable them to co-construct pedagogical knowledge in-situ in a learning community, supported by a safe and supportive school environment resulted in a nurturing learning community which allowed the teachers to develop pedagogical knowledge. Through this process, the non-qualified teachers constructed their professional identity in the absence of feedback from being in a formal training programme. As such, these teachers sought affirmation from their students and from being accepted by other staff members (both qualified and non-qualified colleagues). These positive 'markers' of identity showed a more positive and secure journey in professional identity building. Yet others who were less secure, struggled with their own 'worth' as a teacher, and simply confirmed their fears that they were not 'really' teachers.

What emerges is a set of facilitative conditions for the development of untrained teachers. These include - strategies and resources to enable teachers to do lesson planning, the critical role of institutional culture and a teacher-centred, job-embedded support system and how the teachers' development of their identity is shaped. Their development as teachers is crucially dependent on the way the institution has included them in the CPD processes.

The next chapter deals the conclusion, implications and recommendations that have emanated from this study.

Chapter Six

Conclusion, Implications and Recommendations

6.0 Introduction

The aims of this research were to investigate the overarching research question of how non-native English speaker teachers who did not have the necessary qualifications for the teaching of English as a Second Language at a language centre in Malaysia learned on the job to gain pedagogical knowledge to enable them to teach. As the demand for English language teachers in the private education sector soars in Malaysia due to a national political policy change in the 1970s to relegate the English language to a second language and its ensuing decline in quality, this sector has grown exponentially. This has meant that demand for teachers who are able to teach ESL has outstripped the supply, and hence, the need to train such teachers to meet the demand has become urgent. This study traces their learning through an alternative pathway using a socio-cultural model rather than the traditional cognitivist model.

This chapter comprises five sections.

Section 6.1 provides a summary of the context of the institution, its needs and the processes that enabled the research data to be collected and analysed.

Section 6.2 discusses the implications of the research findings with a specific focus on the critical role of the institutional support mechanisms and its effectiveness.

Section 6.3 states the contribution, generalisability and limitations of the study.

Section 6.4 provides recommendations for further research.

Section 6.5 is the conclusion of the study.

6.1 Summary of the study

This study focused on a small group of untrained teachers at a private language centre in Malaysia where the context is likely to be similar to many others in that country. In the institution under study, there were three main groups of teachers. 54% of the teachers (17 out of 32) did not have any teaching qualifications of any kind, 21% (7 out of 32) have a general teaching certificate, while 24% (8 out of 32) have a relevant TESL qualification. This study focused only on the first group of unqualified teachers.

In order to understand the problem in-depth, a qualitative approach was adopted as it allowed the researcher to interact closely with the participants by way of semi-structured interviews, classroom observations and documentary analysis. Data collection lasted over 11 months during one academic year, beginning January 2010 and ending in November 2010. The data was analysed using inductive analysis methods to yield categories which were then grouped into themes.

The sample of 17 teachers was the maximum number of teachers in that category in the case study. The sample consisted of teachers who had made a career switch to teaching ESL having come from a previous non-teaching background. The reservoir of prior practical knowledge and skills these teachers brought with them provided a certain richness to the study.

From the analysis and discussion of the findings, it can be concluded that although learning takes place through the provision of institutional resources as well as through harnessing their own historical resources, their development as teachers is strongly dependent on the professional support system embedded in the school culture. The importance of constructivist support system in-situ had provided a set of facilitative conditions for their professional development. It is *this* support that had played a major role in their feeling being totally accepted into the institution's community of practice, enabling the construction of their identity.

The following sections focus on the implications of the study for policy, practice and further research.

6.2 Implications for policy and practice

The main implications that have arisen from this study are linked to the training needs for these unqualified teachers. One of the key findings was that, despite existing institutional support, 7 out of the 17 teachers taught in a predominantly transmissive manner. This suggests that the institution needs to implement a training programme for such teachers to enable them to learn some of the skills needed to develop the curriculum beyond being mere transmitters. The findings suggest that such a programme should include more pedagogical input such as attendance at the Malaysian English Language Teaching Association (MELTA) conference, subscription to professional ELT journals, IT skills and people management skills to enable them to be able to teach more confidently.

All the 17 teachers in the study identified that one of the ways that had learned to teach was through informal peer consultation. Therefore, formalising the peer consultation process could be beneficial. This could take the form of a substantial induction process where an unqualified teacher could work alongside and be supported by a qualified teacher under a formal mentoring scheme. This is not to deny the contribution of informal support networks, which were seen by the teachers to be

important and beneficial. There could also be more opportunities for unqualified teachers to engage in guided self-assessment to identify their specific teaching needs.

Another implication of the study is the importance of recognising the positive aspects of being a non-qualified teacher, for example capitalising on the tacit knowledge (for example gained from other professional experiences) that such teachers bring with them to the classroom. A professional development approach which took account of, valued and utilised such skills from the outset could be a powerful way of raising confidence and self-esteem.

It was clear from the findings that, for some teachers, there was a mismatch between their expectations of what a teacher's job is and the actual realities of the classroom. This suggests that expectations should be made clear through the application and subsequent induction process. There was also the suggestion that socialisation and induction procedures for new untrained teachers to include shadowing opportunities.

Finally, there was evidence to suggest that the school management need to constantly reflect on the current CPD programme to ensure its relevance to the existing teachers and incoming unqualified teachers.

6.3 Contribution, Generalisability and Limitations of the study

6.3.1 Contribution of the study

The main contribution of the study is an understanding of the critical role of the institutional culture and its systemic support system which, in the institution under study, enabled the untrained teachers to develop professionally.

This study has looked into three important aspects of how untrained teachers develop their teaching strategies, the development of their professional identity and the critical role of the institutional culture in providing a teacher-centred, job-embedded CPD programme. Most other studies were done on pre-service or qualified in-service teachers focussing on one aspect only.

Firstly, this study found that the teachers adopted different curriculum planning strategies while planning their lessons. However, there is no strict compartmentalisation of the three different types of strategies, rather, what is seen is a progressive accumulation of skills which teachers used to approach their lesson planning. This is in contrast to Shawer's work (2010a) which concluded that teachers' pedagogic style tends towards a predominance of one of the three main curriculum approaches.

Secondly, the study has shown that the feelings of the non-qualified teachers of being a legitimate part of the school teaching community through participation in

professional development and related activities alongside their qualified colleagues enabled the building of a secure professional identity.

Finally, this study has thrown light on the effectiveness of a 'self-initiated' teacher-centred CPD model. This study concludes emphatically that teachers can gain pedagogical knowledge through participation in a community that includes both qualified and unqualified teachers. The leadership roles in the institution sustained structures in place to support teacher learning and were effective in creating settings where teachers felt safe to share aspects of their teaching, to admit mistakes and felt buoyed by the positive spirit of collegiality.

It is this participation that was pivotal in enabling them to develop their professional identity, and together with feedback from their colleagues and students reinforced their sense of self as a teacher.

These three aspects can be summarised in Figure 6.1 which shows the relationship between the strategies and resources used by the teachers when planning their lessons, especially the central role played by the constructivist CPD in-situ model which enables the teachers to perceive themselves as 'a teacher'.

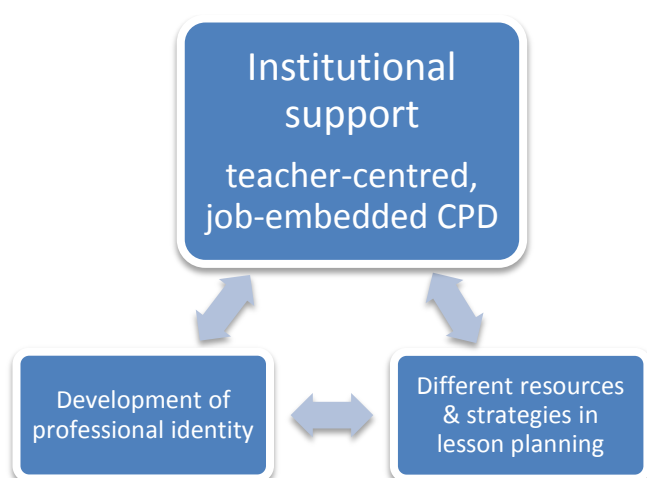


Figure 6.1

Figure showing the central role played by institutional support mechanisms

These three elements interact in a cyclical pattern, with the CPD support system playing a major role, mutually enhancing one another.

The findings and implications of the study are clearly of significance in that this is an under researched area in Malaysia. The outcome of the study is also timely, as the

debate on the quality of the teaching of English in Malaysian national schools by parents and employers has continued unabated in the various forms of media over the last decade, and these findings and recommendations can provide a model for a pragmatic solution to this long standing problem in the private sector. It could also be of interest to other countries in South East Asia and other countries where opportunities and resources for English language teacher training may be limited. The findings of this study have, therefore, not only local, but also regional and potentially international relevance.

6.3.2 Generalisability

This small-scale qualitative study does not claim its findings to be generalisable in the same way as larger scale and/or quantitative research, rather the aim of the study was to present an analytical and critical approach with in-depth data gathering based on a sample of seventeen untrained teachers in one language centre. The findings are thus intended to contribute towards understanding the processes by which teachers gain pedagogical knowledge through a socio-cultural pathway and the ensuing building of their professional identity.

Nevertheless, we may invoke the principle of 'transferability' (Lincoln and Guba, 1985) when considering the study's wider implications. Data were collected using the teachers as cases, and aimed to offer a detailed understanding from which theory might 'be developed or modified' (Lincoln and Guba, 1985:28). Wolcott (1995) argued that each case study is unique, but others can still learn from it. In this regard, Dimmock and O'Donoghue (1996) stated that the researcher's obligation – which the writer humbly claims to have carried out in the writing of this thesis - is to provide a detailed account of the context, setting and participants and the onus is on the reader to make a decision as to whether the findings are applicable in his/her own context.

The most 'transferable' aspect of this study is the fact that the institutional support system was crucial in enabling the non-qualified teachers to be accepted fully as members of the staff.

6.3.3 Limitations of the study

This study was confined to one private language centre in Sarawak, Malaysia. Although there are many other language centres in Malaysia, the context may or may not be exactly similar.

Secondly, this study only involved seventeen untrained teachers because that is the maximum number of such teachers in the centre. The study did not examine factors such as age, gender or whether the teachers taught fulltime or part time, rather the participants were selected simply because they did not have a TESL qualification.

While the researcher would claim this study to be robust, future research may build upon it with a larger sample of participants. Further considerations for an ongoing research agenda are given below.

6.4 Recommendations for future research

Further research might be applicable in other institutions in Malaysia or in other countries in the South East Asian region where there is a need to train English teachers through an alternative pathway.

The focus of the study was the experience of unqualified teachers. It did not, therefore, seek to study the lesson planning strategies adopted by the qualified ESL teachers or the teachers with a general teaching qualification and their perceptions of the effectiveness of the CPD in enabling them in their work. Nevertheless, a comparative study which also took account of the experiences of both qualified and non-qualified teachers may be a fruitful area for further research.

Although there was no direct indication from the present study that previous personal English language learning experience impacted on the teaching of the language further studies may wish more fully to consider this aspect.

This study did not follow-up with the teachers who were still undergoing academic studies through distance learning in several local universities while it was being conducted. This is an area which could be potentially done to study how they perceive themselves finally as a fully qualified teacher. The views of the qualified teachers with regards to the 'transformation' in their non-qualified colleagues into qualified teachers could provide an interesting perspective.

Finally, this study could be used to build up other studies in other languages or areas within a similar context.

6.5 Conclusion

This study showed the process by which teachers who are non-native speakers of English develop their skills and perceive themselves as teachers in the absence of formal teacher qualifications. The problems they faced in carrying out their duties at the language centre have been enabled by the learning environment where multiple resources were provided and professional support mechanisms institutionalised to allow teachers to participate in and take ownership of their own learning through formal and informal CPD programmes. Teachers who wanted to formalise their tacit knowledge and experience by studying for a degree in TESL to strengthen their sense of professional identity were encouraged to do so, with support given for leave of absence for exams and assignments.

The journey these untrained teachers underwent took them from a starting point where they had little knowledge of teaching. Along the way, they developed pedagogical knowledge and classroom management skills, resolved conflicts and barriers through participating in teacher-centred, job-embedded CPD to a point where they are on their way to become competent teachers.

This study is thus summarised in the following Japanese proverb, 'To teach is to learn,' and for this group of teachers, their teaching and learning have taken them to places they never thought they could go, and to challenge themselves to be the best teachers they can be.

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List of Appendices

Appendix 1

Interview schedule

Pre-observation interview questions

Lesson planning

1. How do you go about planning your lesson?

- a) Where do you get your ideas to plan your lesson?
- b) What resources do you use to plan your lesson?
- c) Do face difficulties when planning?
- d) If so, who do seek help from?
- e) How long does it take, on average for you to plan your lesson?
- f) When do you usually do your lesson planning?
- g) How useful do you find the lesson plans in enabling you to teach?

Let's now go through the lesson you intend to teach on _____.

Post observation interview questions

Professional identity

1. How did you come into teaching?

- a) When you first started teaching here, how did you feel about teaching?
- b) Have these feelings changed since then? In what way?
- c) How do you feel about teaching now?
- d) How connected do you feel towards the teaching profession in general?
- e) How connected do you feel towards the community of teachers here?

- f) Do you ever feel you are a sub-group compared with the teachers with ESL qualifications?
- g) Do you feel you are able to learn from your colleagues in a collaborative manner?
- h) Do you feel you get enough support from the school management?
- i) Do you have any professional goals for this year?
- j) Do you have any personal goals for this year?

Continuing Professional Development

2. How do you perceive the effectiveness of the training workshops/community of practice in helping you in your work?

- a) Have you used any of the activities discussed in the workshop /CoP with your students? If so, can you give a specific example? How did the students find them?
- b) If not, would you incorporate them in your lesson plans and try them out?
- c) I understand you have made a career switch to teaching ESL. To what extent are you able to transfer your prior knowledge and skills to your current job?
- d) To what extent (if any) do you believe lesson observations can help you improve your teaching?
- e) Were there any critical incidents, both positive and negative, for you during the lesson?
- f) Did it have an impact on you, personally? Professionally?
- g) Let's discuss the lesson and what your feelings are regarding it.

Appendix 2 - Researcher's notes in personal lesson observation record book

Date: 25 May 2010

Class: C2T Teacher: AS No. of students:14 Age of students: 8 years

Usual class time 2.15- 5.15pm	Open Coding
<p>2.13pm Pre-starter activity. Ss doing a word search which is also a colouring activity, copying a spelling list of 10 words.</p> <p>On board is a mini lesson plan.</p> <p style="text-align: center;"><u>Today's plan</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Copy spelling list -Come to a bbq -Food from far and wide -Guessing game - Ask your partner <p>2.15 Tr: Let's look at the time. What time is it? Ss: 2.15 Tr: Let's start. We'll continue the colouring later on. Pencils down. Ss comply</p> <p>2.16 Starter A ss walks in. Teacher greets her, she responds. Good afternoon, Shelly. Good afternoon, Ms Alimah</p> <p>Tr greets 2 more ss who had just walked in. Asks Andrew to settle down. 'Andrew, settle down, thank you'.</p> <p>Tr writes I like to eat.....on board. Tr asks a few ss what they like to eat. S1: I like to eat sausages Tr: make me a sentence S1: I like to eat sausages</p> <p>Tr goes round class, asking Tr: Yun Yee, what do you like to eat? Yun Yee: Fried chicken Tr: Who likes to eat fried chicken? Raise your hands, straight up. A few students responded by raising their hands.</p> <p>Tr continues: Tr: Andrew?</p>	<p>Class routine</p> <p>Lesson plan;</p> <p>Eliciting;</p> <p>Class routine; ss compliance</p> <p>Class routine</p> <p>Mentions ss by name; polite language</p> <p>Shows structure; elicits from ss</p> <p>Gives opportunity to ss to respond</p> <p>Calls ss by name for response</p>

<p>Andrew: fried chicken</p> <p>Tr: Shirley? Shirley: Spaghetti</p> <p>Tr: who haven't I asked yet? Olivia raises hand. Pizza, chicken.</p> <p>Other ss's responses-soup, porridge, milk shakes.</p> <p>2.25 Tr announces the day's objectives. Title: Food from far and wide - a poem Tr helps recall by reminding ss they had done a poem-<i>The bicycle</i>.</p>	<p>Gives equal attention to ss</p> <p>Clear lesson objectives announced; recalls earlier lesson</p> <p>Role modeling</p>
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Open Coding Analysis Sample

Folder B Tape 3

25 May 2010

Preobs interview

Teacher: AS

	Open Coding
<p>RE: Hello. Before we talk about the lesson, I would like to know how you plan your lesson. Now I'm wearing the hat of a researcher. When you plan your lesson, where do you get your ideas from?</p> <p>AS: <i>I'm teaching Cambridge 2 now, I've taught Cambridge 1 before, so I'd know more or less what the children have covered, so when I plan a lesson, I'd look at the Curriculum Outcomes Document first, what are we going to learn, then I'd look at the group of children I'd be teaching, because the children's past experience of how much they already have of a certain lesson, their background, I don't want to re teach them something they already know, so we should actually add on to that. I'm teaching a very important stage, the foundation has to be strong. Sometimes, I do go back to basics, asking the children what's a noun, what's a verb.</i></p> <p>RE: So, when you plan a lesson, what else do you look at, besides the Curriculum Outcomes Document?</p> <p>AS: <i>The children's background, so I know what has been covered before. This year I know, because I taught Cambridge 1 before; I know what the children would have achieved in the first year, and what is required in their government schools, I'd look at that as well, see how they can use the English they learn here in their schools, because the parents do look at that. But I think, for my younger group, the pre primary class, I'd be very happy if they speak English and write in proper English, even if it is a short sentence. I use whatever worked or didn't work in the past for planning.</i></p> <p>RE: When you sit down to plan an actual lesson, where do you get your ideas from?</p> <p>AS: <i>Books..children's books, academic books, I've a collection of my own favourite books and Internet now. But, there may be too much information, I have to plan for a certain amount of time, so I need to find something suitable. Usually, I rely a lot on what work they have done in the past.</i></p> <p>RE: Do you use the Teacher's book?</p> <p>AS: Oh yes, I use it.</p>	<p>Follows COD; gets ideas from past experiences; adds on to existing knowledge</p> <p>Plans lesson according to ss prior knowledge, bears in mind parents' expectations, uses past experiences, has realistic expectations; uses trial and error</p> <p>Gets ideas from books, Internet, prior knowledge; prior experience</p> <p>Uses tr's bk for ideas</p>

<p>RE: Do you get ideas from talking to family members and colleagues?</p> <p>AS: <i>Yes, I get ideas by talking to my husband. He has lots of ideas, I never knew that. [laughs]. I also look at my own children, what doesn't work for them, probably won't work for my students, they're about the same age at one time.</i></p> <p>RE: What about your colleagues?</p> <p>AS: <i>Yes, some colleagues, definitely some. Some colleagues, we don't share the same views.</i></p> <p>RE: What about people you know outside of ELC? Do you get ideas by talking to them?</p> <p>AS: <i>I don't have much time to associate with people outside ELC regarding work. Usually, it's about kids, other things.</i></p> <p>RE: We've basically covered the next question, which is what resources do you use?</p> <p>AS: <i>Teacher's book, my own resources, Internet and my own experience, from talking with my students to find out what they know, and use that in your lesson. When you're asking them to write a sentence, it's easier if the child has had that experience. It's important for the teacher to put herself in the child's shoes, you can't presume this, you have to actually know your children, and I usually the time before class to get to know them a little better, what they like, where they spend their time; and all these are used in my lesson, because when you're starting a lesson, you can't talk of something which is beyond them. When I first started, and I hadn't been in a classroom for a very long time, it was difficult to go down to their level; now it's something I enjoy doing.</i></p> <p>RE: When you plan a lesson, do you get stuck for ideas?</p> <p>AS: <i>Stuck for ideas, no, but stuck for time, yes. When planning a lesson, sometimes I wished I had more time, but I know I've to move on. Little children get bored easily, no matter how interesting something is, but if repeated too often, they get bored. Every time I plan something, it has to be repeated, it give them a routine, they like the pattern.</i></p>	<p>Talks to family members for ideas</p> <p>Gets ideas from some colleagues</p> <p>Doesn't normally get ideas from friends out of school</p> <p>Resources used are teacher's bk, own resources, past experiences; puts herself in ss's shoes, gets to know ss personally; knows learning level of ss; more confident now</p> <p>Doesn't get stuck for ideas, gives routine to ss</p>
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Table3.7 Interview Script with teacher Alimah
Date verified: 23 June 2010

Lesson Planning	Open Codes	Categories
SRQ1: How do you go about planning your lesson?	1.follows school's scheme of work 2.follows textbook 3.uses teacher's book 4.uses resources in library 5.uses own prior knowledge & experience as well as students' prior knowledge 6. makes teaching aids 7. gets ideas by talking to family members, own reading, Internet 8.gets ideas for planning from talking with colleagues 9.gets ideas from training workshops & CoPs 10. sets time aside to plan 11. thinks about planning along the week 12. plans all the week's lesson at one go on Monday (non teaching day) 13. doesn't get stuck for ideas 14. feels time constraint 15. time taken contingent on familiarity of lesson 16. enjoys planning to help get organized 17. stressed by needing to do detailed lesson plan as requested by management 18. prefers to plan lesson suitable for herself 19. acknowledges usefulness of lesson plan-doesn't need to refer to it while actually teaching 20. finds the process of planning useful, once done, it's in the head 21. thinks of problems & suitability to cater for mixed ability classes 22. reflects and records major negative incidents-gives ideas for writing comments for report cards	Uses resources from Institution Uses personal resources Obtains resources from socializing Has a personal planning strategy Feelings towards lesson planning Perceptions of usefulness of lesson plans Reflections done

	23. doesn't feel the need to record positive moments-lingering good feel	
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Table 3.8 Examples of codes and categories

Appendix 3 Segment of lesson plan

Week 21 C2T (18ss) – Room 1 Tuesday 25 May 2010 2.15 – 5.15 pm

Teaching Texts: 1. Focus on Literacy 2 Unit 14 pp. 30-31, Teacher's bk pp.50-51,
2. Grammar One Unit 4 pp. 14-15, Teacher's bk pp.13-14
3. Word Search Fun by Maureen Spurgeon
4. Spelling List

Learning Outcomes: By the end of the lesson, students will be able to:

1. Read and understand poems shared, and answer questions related to the poems on their own
2. To use commas to separate items on a list
3. Use *her* and *his* correctly in a guessing game
4. Ask questions (Trinity GESE grade 3)

Time	Activity	Skill	Interactions
2.00-2.15	Pre-starter Copy spelling list for Thursday 27 May 2010 Breath frosty Vinegar slippery Pavement warm Spaghetti sprinkled Piled mound Do a 'food search' titled <i>Come to a barbecue</i>	Reading vocabulary	T-Ss Ss-Ss
2.15	Take attendance	Listening	T-Ss
2.15-2.25	Text: Focus on Literacy – Food from far and wide <u>Starter</u> T says what food she likes eg I like to eat fried rice Elicit from ss what they liked to eat (ss take turns) T writes on whiteboard – I like to eat.....	Listening Speaking	Ss-T Ss-T-Ss
2.25-2.45	Presentation & Practice <u>Vocab work – pronunciation</u> Ss repeat after T Breath inside shakes mound Snowflakes frosty pavements warm Slide slippery sprinkled plate Spaghetti enough cheese Around stuff lot Great hot vinegar	Reading	T-Ss-T

<p>2.45-3.00</p> <p>3.00-3.15</p> <p>3.15</p> <p>3.30</p>	<p><u>Shared Reading</u> T points out differences between poems & continuous writing Story.....poem Sentence.....line Paragraph...verse Author.....poet Ss in small groups take turns to read a verse each.</p> <p>Read – <i>Chips</i> by Stanley Cook <i>Spaghetti! Spaghetti!</i> by Jack Prelutsky</p> <p>Discuss with ss about poems Do you like chips/spaghetti? (yes, I do, no, I don't) What are the chips in? (in a paper bag) How does the poet cool the chips down? (he blows on them) Can you find 2 words that begin with s and sound the same? (see & sea)</p> <p>Pair work – Table top activity Ss in pairs, distribute word cards that are rhyming words (bat/hat, mice/dice...) Ss find the rhyming words T monitors activity, checks as a class activity</p> <p>How are commas used within lists Pair work – table top activity (refresh) Read what the hedgehog likes to eat. Give each pair of ss some cut-out words to arrange</p> <p>T monitors Ss read sentences <u>Production</u> – Ss complete questions pp 31 in exercise book</p> <p>LIBRARY TIME</p> <p><u>Summary</u> T: What's on your plate? What's at the bottom of your plate? T writes on WB I like to eat I don't like to eat..... Ss write 4 things they like to eat on paper plate</p>	<p>Reading Listening Speaking</p> <p>Reading Listening</p> <p>Reading</p> <p>Reading Sequencing</p> <p>Writing</p> <p>Speaking</p> <p>Writing TRINITY GESE grade 3</p>	<p>T-Ss Ss-T-SS SS-Ss</p> <p>T-Ss Ss-T</p> <p>Ss-Ss</p> <p>Ss-Ss</p>
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	<p>and 4 they dislike at bottom.</p> <p>T makes sure ss wrote commas in correct places.</p> <p>Hang paper plates as class display.</p>		
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Appendix 4

25 January 2010

Dear colleague

Invitation to participate in a research

As you know, I'm currently doing my thesis for my Doctorate in Education with the University of Leicester, UK. For the thesis, I would like to invite you to participate in the research.

The purpose of my research is to understand how teachers who do not have TESL qualifications like yourself manage your teaching. The research aims to capture the teachers' perceptions of the effectiveness of their teaching strategies and the resources they use. It will also explore their sense of professional identity through communities of practice and the effectiveness of the existing professional development training workshops in enabling them in their work.

The data collection methods will be a semi-structured interview before and after each class observation as well as documentary studies. All data collected will follow the British Educational Research Association (BERA) guidelines and I will send you a transcript after each interview for you to verify. Pseudonyms will be used and whatever data collected will only be used for the purpose of the research and will be presented in a way that will respect the confidentiality of the participant. Furthermore, the thesis will not be published. You are also entitled to withdraw at any time if you so wish.

The benefits for you in agreeing to participate is that you will understand your work and yourself better and you will be part of a rigorous academic study in contributing to educational research. The institution will also benefit from this synergistic endeavour as we move forward to being an excellent educational provider in our community.

I have already obtained approval from the Director of Studies to conduct the research and I sincerely hope you will agree to participate. I will follow-up with more details at a later date. Thank you.

Yours sincerely

Rosaline Eu

Signed consent

I agree to participate in the research project as described above.

Name_____ Signature_____ Date_____