EMERGENT SKILLS AND BELIEFS IN AN INITIAL

TEACHER PREPARATION COURSE

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ABSTRACT

Research on teacher preparation has focused primarily on traditional preparation courses or, in the case of ESL, on the university-based BATESL or MATESL courses. In contrast, the present study focuses on the much shorter Trinity Cert. TESOL initial course, involving distance learning modules and a four-week on-campus segment. In particular, it investigates the major constructs, and the key components within each construct, developed by nine trainees, many of whom were complete novices, from the initial signing-up for the course until its completion. Data was collected by means of questionnaires, interviews, written lesson evaluations, feedback from tutors and a stimulated recall procedure during practice teaching.

Results indicated that trainees developed beliefs about teaching which could be grouped in three main sets of constructs: personal, planning and classroom. Personal constructs were found to be comprised of subject matter knowledge, role models and confidence; planning constructs were made up of lesson planning, materials and timing; and the components of classroom constructs were shown to be classroom management, student needs, communication and error correction. Personal constructs were largely present at the beginning of the on-campus four-week course, although subject matter knowledge, in particular, had been developed during the distance learning modules. Planning constructs and classroom constructs, which are shown to be closely intertwined, were seen to undergo rapid development, starting with peer teaching and leading on to classroom practice teaching.

The major outcomes of this study point to the importance of role models that trainees bring to the course, the necessity to develop subject matter knowledge well before the course, the individual differences between the trainees in terms of converting input from the course into output for practice teaching, and the extent to which teachers experienced in another field of teaching are at an advantage over the complete novice. The study concludes with several suggestions for focusing trainees so that they can gain the maximum benefit from the course. In addition, ways in which minor aspects of the course could be improved are put forward.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

In New Zealand, language teacher preparation has traditionally been the domain of the Teachers' Colleges (or Colleges of Education) with additional Diploma courses available from certain universities to experienced teachers. Most trainees in such programmes were destined to teach, or were teaching, in the State education sector. To a large extent their subject matter knowledge was already well-developed, often to university level, and they attended a teacher preparation course to learn how to impart this knowledge to students. The languages being taught were normally foreign languages such as French, German, and more recently Japanese, Spanish and Chinese. The Vietnamese and Cambodian refugees, who began arriving in New Zealand in the mid-1970s, however, brought a new group of learners to our schools and Polytechnics at a time when the numbers of Pacific Islanders were also burgeoning, therefore creating a need for specialist ESL (English as a Second Language) teachers, few of whom existed at the time. Not only did they not exist, there were also no initial teacher preparation courses for them. As a result, at primary (and sometimes secondary) school level, the ESL students were often assigned to the remedial teacher.

The 1980s saw a trickle of private students coming into schools which turned into a flood in the 1990s as schools saw the moneymaking potential that such students offered. The extent to which schools were prepared to cater for these students differed greatly and, again, there was found to be a lack of well-trained staff to look after their linguistic and cultural needs.

Foreign students did not all go to schools for their language tuition. Many went to either established or newly-formed ESL courses in Polytechnics or went to one of the newly-opened language centres or language schools. Such language schools often operated on similar principles to language schools in Europe and expected staff to have similar ESL qualifications to staff in those establishments, namely, a minimum of a Certificate in Teaching English as a Second Language (Cert. TESL). Thus, it can be seen that there was a similar scenario, only some twenty-five years later, to the origin of the four-week courses offered in Britain. It was this scenario, mirroring what was happening in Australia (Wajnryb, 1994), which encouraged the setting-up of the four-week courses in

New Zealand, beginning in the late 1980s. New Zealand was fortunate in that the two internationally-recognised courses had been developed and trialled extensively in Great Britain. It was possible to set them up and teach them in New Zealand, then have them ratified (or moderated) by international moderators as being to the correct standard. The international recognition was, of course, a huge bonus for trainees, many of whom would travel at some time and who, then, had a very marketable qualification to gain employment in many countries.

During the last ten years, Colleges of Education have also made an attempt to cater for the demands for ESL-trained teachers. Different courses are offered by the various Colleges dependent on their resources and policies. The researcher is not aware of any College of Education that specifically offers teacher preparation in ESL as a major subject, but there are courses, offered either as minor electives or attached to existing language courses, which offer methodology. The trainee is then expected to develop the practical skills during teaching practice. Some trainees have reported (personal communication) that this is not an ideal situation.

The most obvious difference between the short courses and traditional teacher preparation courses is the time factor. The minimum length of the Teacher College programmes is nine months (and often more) with approximately one-third of that time being spent in schools, both observing and practice teaching. It is, indeed, quite normal to teach for one hundred hours during the preparation year, some of which would be in full control of one or more classes for several weeks. This stands in stark contrast to the approximately 130 course hours, including only six hours practice teaching and a prerequisite distance learning component of approximately sixty hours, for the four-week course which is the focus of the present study. The four-week courses have never claimed that they offer a complete training package for teachers but point out that this is initial preparation only. Lay people, however, seem to notice only that a teaching qualification can be gained in a short time. Not surprisingly this has brought some sceptical comments from other teacher preparation institutions, such as that reported by Richardson (1992:29):

> I found myself wondering if this misconception about the Certificate course being more than an initial training course may account for the condemnation of it I encountered in Dublin from trainers in Higher Education and Teacher Training Colleges - "you're arrogant enough to think you can train a teacher in 4 weeks".

An alternative view of traditional teacher preparation programmes is, however, put forward by Tom (1997:131), who makes the observation that, "all too often the teacher-in-training is bored with trudging through a multiyear professional curriculum". While not necessarily advocating a four-week course, he favours a "compressed approach" to teacher education, especially the preservice component, which he thinks should be short

and intense, pointing out that such an approach can be deeply motivating, and can "grip us, seize our attention, and force us to respond to new and largely unforeseen demands" (pp. 131-2).

Another difference of note between the four-week courses and the more traditional teacher preparation courses is the very close integration between theory and practice on the short courses. University courses, such as the MATESOL or even the New Zealand Diploma courses, which have no practice teaching component, have been criticised for the lack of opportunity for the trainee to transfer the theoretical knowledge that they have gained into observable practice. As Freeman (1994:16) points out:

> most of teacher education does not transfer from knowing into doing. We have operated for too long from a naive notion that *knowing* better ways to teach will somehow be transformed into *doing* classroom practice in better ways. The time has come to question that premise. Knowing does not convert by some mysterious means into doing; knowing arises out of doing.

It may be queried whether the time lag in even the New Zealand Colleges of Education is too long. Spada and Massey (1992) found that student teachers who had daily opportunities to try out what they were learning in their methods courses did much better than those who did not have the same opportunity. This would suggest that, in this respect at least, the four-week courses may rate better than some other preparation programmes, albeit for a very short time. However, it has been pointed out that while they are practical, they go too far in that direction and "never stop to think about the assumptions, hypotheses and principles - in effect "the theory" - on which the practice is based" (Duff, 1988).

The impetus for the current research came from the researcher's personal involvement in several different types of teacher preparation programmes. As a student at the Auckland Teachers' College (secondary division), she underwent a one-year course to prepare teachers for foreign language teaching in secondary schools. After teaching for some years, studying for and being awarded a Diploma in Second Language Teaching, and taking up some ESL teaching as the demand arose following the arrival of the South-East Asian refugees, she was then more closely associated with the Diploma in Second Language Teaching as a tutor. At present, the researcher is employed by a private tertiary institution, catering for mainly overseas students at both sub-degree and degree level, which also offers the Trinity Cert. TESOL, a four-week initial training course, which integrates both theory and practice. Obviously, the three courses with which the researcher has been associated are very different, with the four-week course appearing to be minimal in contrast with the other two, yet also offering the advantage of learning the theoretical and practical aspects of ESL simultaneously. The final impetus came at the

1996 CLESOL Conference in Hamilton, where Professor Jack Richards gave a keynote address on teachers' beliefs, which prompted the researcher to investigate the topic more thoroughly, and then to use this as a basis for investigating trainees on four-week courses.

Relatively few studies have been published on the four-week courses and those that have seem to have as their subjects, trainees who already had some experience of teaching, whether it was ESL or another subject. Therefore, such trainees were likely to have already developed certain beliefs about teaching, which may or may not have been an advantage. As Harmer (1988:13) points out, the experienced teachers find that their beliefs are challenged, they are forced to reconsider them in the light of a new approach and their competence is brought into question. While trainees at the researcher's institution have included some experienced teachers, few have taught ESL prior to undertaking the course and they have made up only a small percentage of the trainees. In fact, more of the trainees have been complete newcomers to both ESL and teaching. Therefore, a representative sample from these courses would obviously not replicate studies carried out already as far as subject selection is concerned. In addition, it seemed that this would also give the possibility of comparing the development of experienced teachers (in other fields) and complete novices, both in terms of basic teaching skills and the beliefs surrounding teaching decisions.

Published studies on four-week courses all seem to have investigated the RSA Certificate courses, which traditionally had little preparation before the course and expected the trainees to begin teaching on the second day of the course. This increases the stresses on the course, which are acknowledged in nearly all studies on the four-week courses (Harmer, 1988; Rinvolucri, 1991; Wajnryb, 1991). The course which is the focus of the current study is the other internationally-recognised short course, the Trinity Cert. TESOL. This study does not set out to evaluate the relative merits of the two courses but some comparison is inevitable as the research is discussed. For example, some of the stresses which are reported on the RSA courses have been alleviated for the course associated with this study, by the instigation of a distance learning component, which must be completed before the on-campus course is commenced. It seems that some RSA courses have recently taken this approach also, as reported in Parker (1991) and Wajnryb (1991). However, stress remains a major factor on all short courses and it has not been investigated as to whether certain trainees are more susceptible, although it has been suggested that only certain personality types should undertake such intensive courses (Harmer, 1988). Trainees on the focused course are led rather more gently into their teaching practice, beginning with peer teaching, video and class observation, before being expected to perform. Wajnryb (1991) sets out her reasons for an even more gradual

introduction to the practice teaching, pointing out the degree to which stress is consequently reduced.

The present study attempts to analyse the beliefs about teaching that may be developed by trainees on the four-week courses. Because it has been shown that such beliefs can be influenced by existing role models (Johnson, 1994; Lortie, 1975; Weinstein, 1989), trainees were encouraged to disclose their role models, so that they could be examined to determine whether they were appropriate role models and how they could be improved during the four-week course. These results are reported in Section 6.2 and discussed in Section 10.3. Throughout the study there is an emphasis on the source of the trainees' beliefs about teaching and the extent to which they influence the many decisions that the trainees must make, especially during practice teaching. Because the subjects of the study include both complete novices and experienced teachers of other subjects, it is of particular interest to investigate whether there are major differences between these two groups of subjects. The findings relevant to this point are discussed in Section 9.2.2.

It is also extremely important to ascertain to what extent the trainees develop teaching skills during the limited teaching practice that they undertake. These findings are presented in Chapter 8 and discussed in Section 9.3. In addition, it is of interest to examine whether there are individual differences in the development of trainees, and, if so, whether there appear to be any specific factors which may cause such differences. Similarities among all trainees are discussed in Section 9.2.1 and individual differences in Section 9.2.3. The case for the acceptance or rejection of the four-week courses as valid teacher preparation programmes, albeit with caveats pursuant to a period of teaching and/or further distance learning attached, could be strengthened by the above findings. The study utilises an ethno-cognitive approach to track trainees' development during the pre-course distance learning components and the on-campus course, with a particular focus on the teaching practice sessions.

CHAPTER TWO

TEACHER PREPARATION

This chapter introduces some major concepts in teacher preparation which are relevant to the current study. First of all, the terminology used is discussed, showing the different interpretations given by various authors. Following that, the focus moves to the role models that the trainees may bring with them to the preparation process, then the place of reflection in teacher preparation programmes is examined.

2.1   TERMINOLOGY AND THE TEACHER PREPARATION PROCESS

Several terms (training, education, development and preparation) are used for the process which uninitiated teachers go through before they can be seen as being professionally ready and competent to stand in front of a class and thus recognised as a teacher.

Training is often associated with what Richards (1990:218-9) describes as low-level skills, such as how to use the board, how to stand, how to give instructions, which he claims could lead to the assumption that we know how to produce effective teachers by training and that one method is both suitable and infallible for all. However, while some skills, techniques and routines can be passed on through training, the higher-level skills of decision-making and responding to ongoing events in the classroom cannot be learned in the same way. Educating has, therefore, been used by some as a more comprehensive term.

Larsen-Freeman (1992), however, does not see training and educating as two distinct processes. Instead, she feels that training can be subsumed under educating. "Teacher trainers need to see themselves as teacher educators who promote in their trainees the ability to generate their own learning as needed". This can be aligned with the ideas of Zahorik (quoted in Cruickshank & Metcalf, 1990:470), who points out that "one goal of teacher preparation must be to help teachers become more skilful and thoughtful about their work". While Richards (1990) sets out what he understands to be the differences between teacher training and education, he nonetheless appears to be arguing for the strengths of both to be joined together and the weaknesses discarded, which is exactly Ur's (1998) conclusion. Lange (1990:250), Parker (1991:141) and Pennington

(1990:134) are in agreement with the former two but go to even greater lengths to stress the continued growth of teachers throughout their career.

Others prefer the term *development* as being indicative of a more long-term growth which begins in the initial teacher preparation programme and continues throughout a teacher's career. In addition, the term development moves the emphasis from learning **the** method and places it on the importance of developing the strengths of the teacher, thus demonstrating the complex, cognitive role that the teacher has to play. There is general agreement in the literature on the differences between *training* and *development*, which is summed up by Ur (1998:21):

> Teacher training refers to the preparation of teachers for professional practice through formal courses, usually university or college-based, and usually resulting in accreditation (BATEFL, PGCE, RSA Dip. TEFLA, etc). Teacher development, on the other hand, is learning carried out by practitioners working in the classroom and implies informal learning either individually or in collaboration with colleagues.

Table 2.1 represents what Ur describes as being the main traditional differences between teacher training and teacher development.

Feature	Training	Development
Timing	Preparation, pre-service	In-service
Syllabus	Set systematic syllabus	Topics decided by participants
Length	Time limits	Ongoing, maybe lifelong
Assessment	Often external, strict criteria	No assessment
Information	Taught by tutors, no choice	Shared by colleagues, needs-based
Expectations	Trainees expected to learn	All discuss, take what they want
Development	Cognitive	Whole person
Flexibility	Little	Extremely
Tone	Authoritarian	Democratic
Effect	Disempowering	Empowering
Organisation	Well-organised	May become disorganised
Sources	Professional input	No professional input

Table 2.1   Differences between teacher training and teacher development

Richards (1990) is rather more prescriptive than others of exactly what he expects to see in a programme which will encourage teacher development.

> Teacher development is discovery oriented and enquiry based. (The focus is on) decision making and planning processes; .... concepts, value systems, knowledge,

beliefs and attitudes that form the basis of teachers' classroom actions; teachers' views and perceptions of themselves; teachers characterisations of their own approaches to teaching and understanding of effective teaching; roles of teachers and learners in the classroom and the effects of these on teaching and learning (p. 221).

In the current study, the neutral term *preparation* is used to refer to the initial programmes undertaken by those entering teaching for the first time. Whether, as Larsen-Freeman (1992) insists, there is still room for a training segment, is beyond the specific scope of this study, although it does touch on Brumfit's (1987) edict that a training course should be an integrated course where "theory will be explicitly related to the need to solve practical problems (and) ... should lead direct to practical activities" (p.2).

Further items of terminology are encountered in the literature on the approach taken during teacher preparation. Wallace (1991) describes these as three models, namely the 'craft' model, the 'applied science' model and the 'reflective' model. The craft model relies on a type of apprenticeship where a master craftsman is observed and skills are learned. This has been allied to the training approach above and is consequently seen as being rather limited and dependent on finding the best method of teaching, with the result that change will not occur after the initial training. In discussing the approaches taken by experienced teachers, however, Freeman and Richards (1993) point to the strengths of teachers who follow a craft conception of teaching and thoroughly examine each situation before choosing the appropriate approach. For this to happen, however, such teachers must be exposed to many different approaches and encouraged to see them all as valid at certain times.

The 'applied science' model suggests that scientifically proven theories can be used to provide the answers to all teaching problems, but it also tends to "downgrade the value of the classroom teacher's expertise derived from experience" (Wallace, 1991:16). While the value of theoretical knowledge should not be discounted, this model has not yet been able "to deliver a 'scientific' solution to very complex professional dilemmas" (Wallace, 1991:17). In addition, trainees often feel that "theory seems too unreal" and "criticise their training courses for being too theoretical" (Grenfell, 1998:11). Wallace suggests that the 'reflective model' is a good compromise which accounts for the strengths of the two former models, namely, the importance of experience and a theoretical background. As can be seen in Section 2.3, there are some concerns about the applicability of a reflective approach in teacher preparation programmes, especially the short courses on which this current study is based. Freeman and Richards (1993:211) believe that a developmental view of teacher preparation is the best solution, with trainees and teachers following the conception which is appropriate to the current stage of the "evolution of their practice".

Grenfell (1998:19) suggests that all the previous approaches to teacher preparation need to be combined as he shows in diagrammatic form, which is reproduced in Figure 2.1. He sees the 'craft' approach as being the apex of the triangle, the 'applied science' as the left-hand side and the reflective approach as the right-hand side. All three approaches are seen as being equally important but interrelated, which is signified by the double-ended arrows. In his view, trainees need elements of all three approaches, with individual differences being at least partly determined by the extent to which they take more or less from any one of the three.

Practice

Tacit
Knowledge

Educational
Theory
Principles

Fundamental
Educational
Theory
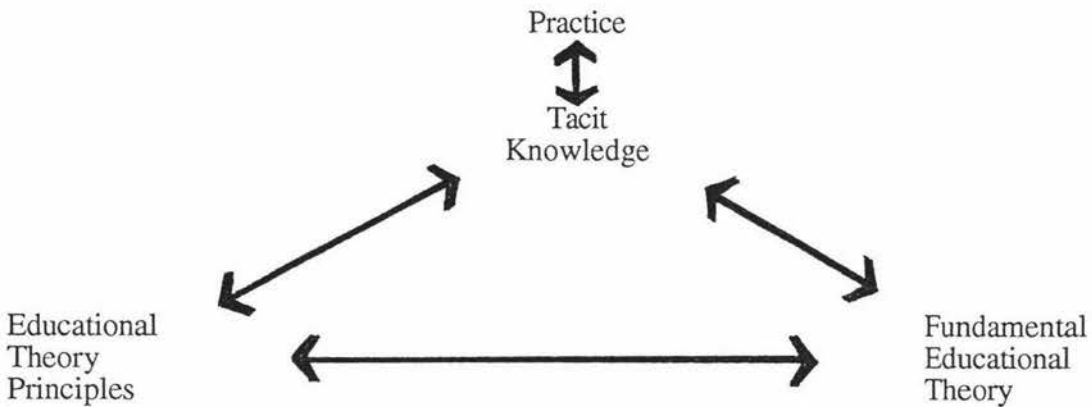
Figure 2.1 Grenfell's relationships between theory and practice

2.2 ROLE MODELS

The question of what beliefs teachers hold, and how they are built up, has been debated for several decades. Since Lortie (1975) claimed that student teachers have already served "an apprenticeship of observation" because "the average student has spent 13,000 hours in direct contact with classroom teachers by the time he graduates from high school" (p.61), the value of teacher education has been questioned on the grounds that trainee teachers already know a great deal about teaching. As outlined in the following section, various researchers have investigated the role models that preservice trainees bring to the preparation programme, the effect that these have on their uptake of information, whether they are valid models and the new role models that are encountered, especially during practice teaching.

2.2.1 *Who are the role models?*

A very important role model is provided by former teachers. Lortie (1975:117) points out that there are many different types of models in terms of age, sex, personality etc. He found that these different models could, however, be grouped in two separate categories, one relating to instructional factors and the other relational factors. In fact, one person

sometimes described quite different people as equally valid role models. Johnson (1994) pointed out that the four preservice teachers she studied all had "lasting images of their teachers", while Goodson (1992b) was given reports of favourite teachers being the instigator behind the choice of teaching as a career. Weinstein (1989) found that most preservice teachers in her study recalled a female teacher at either upper elementary or high school level, in particular recalling the personal qualities of taking a "warm and personal interest" in their students. In general, teachers have been found to delve well back over the years for their teaching models, although Martinez (1987), cited in Knowles (1992), did find evidence of those who specifically recalled one of their university teachers.

Whereas most respondents seem to focus on the positive models of teaching, some have also portrayed quite negative role models, as exemplifying the type of teacher they did not wish to be (Calderhead, 1991, Knowles, 1992). In the case of negative role models, preservice teachers were quite confident that they would create classrooms and learning situations that were better than average and could approximate what they perceived as the ideal teacher (Knowles, 1992).

Role models do not come only from the trainee's personal "apprenticeship of observation". Family members or friends who are teachers may encourage teaching as a career, in either a role model capacity or they may actively encourage teaching as opposed to other occupations as being "middle-class and reputable work" (Lortie, 1975:44).

2.2.2   *The effect of role models*
Not only are teachers' personalities recalled, but it seems that many details have been recalled of actual materials and activities they used, classroom management and overall organisation of the teaching process. It has been suggested that the many details gathered mainly from teachers but also from other life experiences over the years lead to preservice teachers building up a teacher role identity (Knowles, 1992). This identity provides a repertoire of teacher actions, which preservice or novice teachers tend to fall back on during early teaching experience, especially at times of stress. It also acts like Goodman's (1988) "intuitive screen" as a means of interpreting information passed on during teacher preparation courses. If the information and the teaching images or role identity that they had, either consciously or subconsciously, built up, did not concur, then the new information was likely to be rejected. As Holt-Reynolds (1992) discovered, preservice teachers used their life histories to test their lecturers' principles and arguments, rather than examining their life histories from the point of view of the lecturers' principles and arguments.

2.2.3 *Concerns with role models*

As convincing as these arguments are, some concern has been expressed about some of these models being used by preservice teachers, as is summarised in Table 2.2.

Concern about role model	Effect of role model
Role models seen through student eyes	Teacher's point of view not appreciated Limited view of teaching Rejection of ideas that do not conform
Role models not language teachers	May not be suitable for language classes

Table 2.2   Concerns about trainees' role models and their effects

First of all, the "apprenticeship of observation" has taken place from the other side - everything has been seen through the eyes of the student, rather than being in the teacher's shoes, thinking about things from the teacher's point of view (Calderhead, 1991; Johnson, 1994; Lortie, 1975). This may lead trainees to not fully appreciate the complexities involved in teaching and learning. They may therefore use a deficient model of teaching for their "intuitive screen" during teacher preparation programmes, with the result that they resist ideas presented (Calderhead & Robson, 1991, Eggleston, 1985). To prevent this happening, "the tendency for a beginning teacher to view teaching in light of past student experiences needs to be replaced as quickly as possible with a pedagogical perspective" (Tom, 1997:135). Whereas the students' model of teaching is largely based on one set of data - their own, teacher educators have access to many years of research and a large data pool (Holt-Reynolds, 1992). Such findings led Kagan (1992:163) to call for teacher educators to vigorously investigate their trainees' images of themselves as teachers, fearing that only when they had carefully examined such images could they find success as teachers. Thornbury (1991) refers to this as confronting their "ghosts", so that they can develop a meaningful teacher model and set about achieving it. If this can be done, trainees may have more realistic understandings of the time and energy that teaching can demand, so that it may be possible to prevent them finding that teaching is more difficult than expected (Lortie, 1975).

The preceding concerns are applicable to all preservice teachers but this study concerns preservice ESL teachers. The question must be asked whether the role models which the trainees possess and develop are those of language teachers or other content teachers. As Richards (1987:214) points out,

the goals of instruction in language classes are different from those of content classes..(and) the strategies adopted by teachers to achieve these goals will vary.

Whereas Almarza's (1996) study of foreign language teachers showed how they could use their experiences as foreign language learners in building up role models, none of the studies on ESL teacher trainees discuss whether the effect on ESL teachers is, or should be, similar. In fact, there is no mention of whether the trainees enter with any models at all of ESL teachers.

The foreign language component of many of the short courses is designed to fulfil two functions. First of all, it provides some modelling of specific language teaching techniques, which may be lacking in trainees' current role models. In addition, this experience also gives the trainees first-hand exposure to the various stresses and strains of being a language student. Some researchers (eg Barnard, 1997) have called for this component to be longer than the current average of five hours because of the positive effect that it may have on the trainees' beliefs about good teaching practices.

2.2.4   *The associate role model*

Whatever role model the trainee has had on entering a teacher preparation institution, their associate teacher during teaching practice is likely to have a profound effect on them because they are consciously looking for teaching models at this time. In other words, they subconsciously favoured the "craft" approach to teacher preparation. Many teachers report that it was teaching practice that had the greatest effect on them (Lortie, 1975). In Berliner's (1987:80) words,

> it is accepted by many that it is the co-operating or supervising teacher who makes the greatest impact on the career development of the novice during the student teaching experience. The supervising teachers are supposed to be the models for expertise, who lead the novice to a high level of competency in teaching.

Unfortunately, there is no guarantee that all associate teachers will be equally skilled or conscientious or indeed that they will have the ability to explain or pass on their knowledge in easily comprehensible terms (Berliner, 1987; Livingston & Borko, 1989; Lortie, 1975). Associate teachers often simply do not have the necessary time to discuss their beliefs in enough detail with trainees for the trainees to fully comprehend the beliefs in such a way that they can incorporate them into their own developing beliefs (Berliner, 1987:80; Livingston & Borko, 1989:40). Therefore, associate teachers should be carefully selected so that trainees can have access to those who can act as true mentors (Cochran, DeRuiter & King, 1993:269).

2.3   REFLECTION IN TEACHER PREPARATION

Teachers are increasingly being urged to engage in reflection and given guidelines as to how to go about this (eg Richards & Lockhart, 1994). Wallace (1991) points out that, whereas teachers can develop self-confidence by simply teaching day after day, to actually develop as a teacher requires change "and fruitful change is extremely difficult without reflection" (p. 54). Bartlett (1990:205) defines critical reflectivity as the point at which teachers

> transcend the technicalities of teaching and think beyond the need to improve ...
> instructional techniques. This effectively means ... to move away from the 'how to'
> questions, which have a limited utilitarian value to the 'what' and 'why' questions,
> which regard instructional and managerial techniques not as ends in themselves but
> as a part of broader educational purposes.

Although Shields and Janopoulos (1995:14) found that MATESOL students, many of whom already had teaching experience, reported that reflective teaching was very useful "as a strategy for professional growth and development", there are questions as to the extent to which student teachers are able to engage in reflection. Indeed, Grenfell (1998:17) is of the opinion that trainees and experienced teachers reflect differently and their reflection may "perform a different purpose". Calderhead (1989:46) points out that "student teachers' reflection generally remains at a fairly superficial level even in teacher education courses which purport to be encouraging reflective teaching". He suggests that this is due to a variety of reasons, most of which are linked with inexperience, as summarised in Table 2.3.

Reasons for trainees reflection problems
Insecurity of student teachers
Lack of experience to identify weaknesses
Lack of alternatives to substitute for identified weaknesses
Lack of time for quality reflection

Table 2.3 Why trainees find it difficult to reflect

Student teachers may not be sufficiently secure as teachers to engage in potentially threatening self-criticism. On the other hand, they may not have the ability to recognise what is happening in their classroom because they are concentrating on the basics of teaching or they may lack experience of other ways of doing things and are thus unable to see where improvements could be made. Nonetheless, several researchers point out that teacher preparation programmes must encourage the "spirit of inquiry" so that trainees "have the chance to cross the line from training to development" (Wajnryb, 1992:23).

Zeichner (1994:11) leaves no doubt about the responsibility of the teacher educator for setting trainees on the road for the future.

> Reflection as a slogan for educational reform also signifies a recognition that the process of learning to teach continues throughout a teacher's entire career, a recognition that no matter what we do in our teacher-education programmes, and no matter how well we do them, at best we can only prepare teachers to begin teaching. With the concept of reflective teaching there is a commitment by teacher educators to helping prospective teachers internalise during their initial training, the disposition and skill to study their teaching and to become better at teaching over time, a commitment to take responsibility for their own professional development.

One method of encouraging teacher trainees to reflect is the practice of journal keeping which is advocated by many (eg Bailey, 1990; Numrich, 1996; Parker, 1991) as "a reinforcer of experience" (Parker, 1991:141). Although journals can give teacher educators interesting insights into trainees' thoughts about either current information or teaching experiences, the most important facet is that it "requires involvement in critical reflection on practice during the preparation program" (Bolin, 1990:10). Bailey (1990), in particular, sets out strict guidelines as to providing time for trainees to write as well as the freedom about what to write and how the teacher educator can help the trainee to benefit from this activity. Researchers have presented cases of perceived advantages and disadvantages of journal-keeping. The extent to which the advantages and disadvantages of journal-keeping are balanced can be seen in Table 2.4

Disadvantages		Advantages
Time-consuming	**BUT**	encourages reflection
Trainees need to be shown how	**BUT**	can work through problems

Table 2.4   Advantages and disadvantages of journal-keeping

If trainees are not convinced about the advantages of writing journals, they are not likely to "connect the journal with (their) professional development as a teacher" (Bolin, 1990:14) but rather to see it as "a pain" and nothing more than something else that has to be done. In fact, Kerr (1994) suggests that trainees merely play the game, with the result that journal-writing "often encouraged the opposite of what I wanted it to achieve" (p.21). On the other hand, there have been extremely encouraging reports of trainees, particularly those on long-term preparation programmes, who have found the writing of a journal to be very useful for resolving problems (Kettle & Sellars, 1996). Since it has been reported by Ho and Richards (1993:20) that "teachers differ in the extent to which they can write reflectively and some initial training in reflective writing may be necessary", such training during a teacher preparation programme may well prove beneficial in future professional contexts.

2.4   PREPARATION FOR AN UNKNOWN FUTURE

It is becoming increasingly difficult to predict where exactly our trainees may end up and what type of work they may be involved in. Therefore, it is extremely important to ensure that trainees leave courses with flexible views of teaching, an expectation that they still have much to learn and that they may develop in many unexpected ways (Bailey, 1992:258). This is particularly true for New Zealanders, many of whom are undertaking ESL training to enable them to work overseas in a wide variety of countries where conditions vary enormously. For example Fradd and Lee (1998:769) point out that ESOL teachers in the United States are now expected to carry out a wide range of teaching, from specialist ESOL teaching to content area instruction for ELL students to acting as commentators on cultural differences and their effect in schools.

2.5   SUMMARY

This chapter located the overall setting for the current study by examining some general concepts affecting all teacher preparation programmes. First of all, the different terms used to describe the various approaches to teacher preparation were discussed, as were the implications of each term.

The role models that trainees bring with them to the teacher preparation process and the effect that these models may have on material presented during courses were examined. The appropriacy of the role models was then discussed as were some of the implications that this has for preparation programmes, especially the short courses that are the focus of the current study.

The chapter concluded with an examination of the place of reflection in teacher preparation and its importance for future development. Conflicting evidence as to whether trainees are capable of reflection or not was considered and an attempt was made to find a compromise, showing how the advantages and disadvantages can be balanced.

CHAPTER THREE

NOVICE TRAINEES

This chapter introduces the trainees who undertake preparation programmes, especially those who are novice trainees. This leads into the sections on subject matter knowledge and the problems that the trainees may face in practice teaching. It concludes with suggestions from the literature that have been put forward for teacher preparation programmes.

3.1 EXPECTATIONS OF TEACHER TRAINEES

When trainees first come to teacher preparation programmes they bring with them a large store of knowledge about teaching based on their apprenticeship of observation (Lortie, 1975:61). They also frequently possess both positive and negative images of teaching, knowing (either consciously or subconsciously) what sort of teacher they want to be and do not want to be (Calderhead & Robson, 1991:4; Lortie 1975:117). While the resultant role models are discussed in the previous chapter, the important feature here is the effect that such prior knowledge has on the novice trainees' approach to teaching preparation programmes. A number of researchers have called for trainees to be encouraged to consider very thoroughly their existing conceptions of teachers and teaching (Calderhead & Robson, 1991:7; Feiman-Nemser & Buchmann, 1986:255; Johnson, 1994:445; Kagan, 1992:162). If this is not done, they will have difficulty building up a strong image of themselves as teachers with the result of likely failure (Kagan, 1992:162). They will also find it difficult to appreciate the strengths of new information because each trainee will be judging it against their own personal beliefs, the veracity of which has not been challenged (Calderhead & Robson, 1991:7; Feiman-Nemser & Buchmann, 1986:254-5). It may be necessary to provide trainees with a range of different alternatives for them to both judge their beliefs against and to act as substitute role models (Johnson, 1994:449). How teacher preparation programmes can do this is discussed in more detail below.

In addition to their own beliefs about teaching, trainees also begin a teacher preparation course with quite strong ideas about what they will gain from the course. Most do not realise that learning to teach is much different from the learning that they have experienced

in the past (Calderhead, 1991:533; Francis, 1995:235). Indeed there are many different conceptions of what leads to learning to teach, from personality, to learning from experience or learning from being told how (Calderhead, 1991:533). A common feature, however, is that trainees "expect on-the-job training and supervised teaching to be the most valuable sources of professional knowledge" (Book, Byers & Freeman, 1983:10). Kagan (1992:162) points out that this is a feature of wanting to know first of all what works well and why because they perceive this as a gap in their knowledge, which needs to be filled. An important goal of teacher preparation programmes is to encourage trainees to recognise the limitations of some of their previous concepts. Calderhead (1991:532) found that they visualised teaching as being a matter of telling and showing, while they thought that learning was a matter of memorising. This has led Grenfell (1998:60) to advise, "There are limits to what is and is not possible in the classroom; training to teach is partly learning what they are and how to work within them".

3.2   FACTORS AFFECTING NOVICE TEACHERS

3.2.1   *Relationships with students*

The novice trainee's lack of experience with students in teaching situations can be seen in
- the way that they visualise students
- their inability to predict what will be difficult
- their inability to cope with unexpected responses and
- their concerns about student control rather than what the students are learning.

Kagan (1992:129) found that novice trainees had "a critical lack of knowledge about pupils". As a result their image of pupils is usually inaccurate because they presume that pupils will "possess learning styles, aptitudes, interests and problems similar to their own" (Hollingsworth, 1989, cited in Kagan, 1992:145). Not only do experts have a far more realistic image of what pupils are like (Calderhead, 1981, cited in Clark & Peterson, 1986:279), but they can judge very quickly the level of a class (Berliner, 1987:68). Trainee teachers often want to be liked by their students at first, but Kettle and Sellars (1996) found that this becomes less important after the second session of practice teaching (in a longer preparation course).

Another vital skill which seems to be gained through experience is that of predicting what learners will find difficult; Holten and Brinton (1995:26) found this was lacking in new teachers. Novices often think that it is more important to create "a good learning environment" than to maximise student achievement (Book, Byers & Freeman, 1983:12). Creating a pleasant environment may mean also that the trainee did not want to embarrass

shy students or to be seen as being unfair but rather wanted to get to know the students and help them as much as possible (Berliner, 1987:70).

A major factor for the novice is being in control of the class, a feature that has been highlighted by a number of researchers (Berliner, 1987:78; Calderhead, 1981, cited in Clark & Peterson, 1986:279; Goodman, 1988:124; Kagan, 1992:142). Part of being in control is anticipating what the students will find difficult, which has been shown to be a rare skill for novices to possess. Johnson (1992) found that trainee teachers appeared to judge their effectiveness on the basis of the student responses, but sometimes students have unexpected responses to the trainees' teaching which they do not have the instructional routines to respond to. As a result, novices may restrict their lessons to activities that students cannot interrupt so that they can feel in control (McNeely & Mertz, 1990, cited in Kagan, 1992:142). This need for control is not reflected in the attitude of experienced teachers, who seem to have no doubt that they can manage a class (Berliner, 1987:71).

3.2.2 *Confidence*

It has been found that novice teachers feel quite confident about their ability to teach and motivate their students in the guise of "a guide and a friend" (Weinstein, 1989:12). In fact, it has been suggested that trainees have an "unrealistic sense of optimism about the type of teacher they would like to be and what their initial teaching experience would be like" (Johnson, 1994:445). Despite the fact that their knowledge of classroom practice is rather scant (Calderhead, 1991), their confidence is so great that they believe that they will have a lot less difficulty than the average first year teacher (Book, Byers & Freeman, 1983; Weinstein, 1989). However, those who undertake a longer practicum may discover that they "had no idea of the amount of work involved" (Kettle & Sellars, 1996:18).

3.2.3 *Stages of understanding*

Kagan (1992:129) points out that during teacher preparation and the first year of teaching there are three major tasks to be achieved. Firstly, trainees must "acquire a knowledge of pupils", then they must "use that knowledge to modify and reconstruct their personal images of themselves as a teacher" and thirdly, they must "develop standard procedural routines that integrate classroom management and instruction". Citing Anderson's (1984) work, Kagan (1992:144) delineates the three stages that novices progress through as they attempt to develop their understanding of classrooms and how they work (shown below in Figure 3.1).

rote knowledge of classroom strategy (a teacher can talk about an instructional strategy but cannot perform it, performs it poorly, or performs it with only a superficial understanding).

↓

routine knowledge (the teacher can talk about the rationale underlying the strategy and can apply it but only with much effort and thought and in a specific context).

↓

comprehensive knowledge (the teacher can talk about the strategy and can apply it across contexts automatically, thus freeing mental space to focus on pupils).

Figure 3.1 Stages in classroom understanding

This seems to concur with Richards, Ho and Giblin's (1996:250) finding that

> by the latter part of the course, a more holistic view of teaching was beginning to emerge, one in which the trainees were focusing less on the "mechanics" of the lesson, and more on such dimensions as structuring and cohesion, and student participation in lessons.

3.3   NOVICES VS EXPERTS

It is generally recognised that novice trainees lack a schemata for instructional decision-making and pedagogical content knowledge. This leads to novices not understanding what happens and why in classrooms, needing to make many decisions in each class, relying on other people, not being able to separate unimportant from important matters to address in the classroom, making decisions based solely on student reaction and experiencing planning problems. The major differences that have been found between novices and experts are summarised in Table 3.1.

One of the basic tasks in teaching is class organisation and management but, because this is a learned skill, novices do not know much about it in contrast to experts who have

> a set of understandings about what considerations (are) most important for getting on with the task of running a class (Berliner, 1987:65).

As a result, novices may approach a class quite differently and may seize upon the textbook as a starting point rather than first establishing what students know or stamping their own authority on the class. They are also more likely to attempt to replicate model lessons without realising the adaptations that are necessary for students of different ages, abilities and interests (Calderhead & Robson, 1991:6). When novice teachers are given information about a class that they are to teach, it seems that they have no means of identifying the most important information from the irrelevant, whereas the experts look only at that which will be of instructional significance. In addition, novices take more notice of what a previous teacher has said about a class in contrast to the experts, who wanted to judge for themselves (Berliner, 1987:66-8). While teaching, this lack of ability to identify and concentrate on key aspects means that trainees feel overwhelmed by all the different things that are happening and to which they feel obliged to react (Johnson, 1992:509). This may result in them falling back on their old models, and teaching as they were taught (Johnson, 1994:450).

Novices	Experts
Start with the textbook	Start with the students
Use an unadapted model lesson	Adapt lessons to suit the class
Fall back on old role models	Have more alternatives to choose from
Need a long time to plan	Can plan quickly
Worried about class control	Confident about class control
Cannot predict problems in either knowledge transmission or student behaviour	Can predict problems in both knowledge transmission and student behaviour

Table 3.1   Major differences between novices and experts

Before teachers get to the classroom they must decide what they are going to teach and how. Novices may face a double barrier. Not only does their lack of classroom experience make it difficult to pass on concepts and ideas to their learners (Cochran, DeRuiter & King, 1993:264; Livingston & Borko, 1989:37; Richards, Li & Tang, 1995:4), but if, in addition, their subject matter knowledge is limited (as discussed in Section 3.5), then they will face additional problems in trying to use their pedagogical reasoning skills (Richards, Li & Tang, 1995:4). One result is that they may rely on unmodified subject matter knowledge without a coherent framework for presenting the information (Carpenter, Fennema, Petersen & Carey, 1988, cited in Cochran, DeRuiter & King, 1993:264). When planning time for novice trainees is compared with that of experts, there is a huge difference presumably caused by experience, as shown below.

Because experts have well-developed and easily accessible schemata for aspects of teaching such as instructional activities, content, and students, they are able to plan quickly and efficiently. Novices, on the other hand, often have to develop, or at least modify and elaborate, their schemata during planning. Their schemata for pedagogical content knowledge seem particularly limited. While experts' knowledge structures include stores of powerful explanations, demonstrations and examples for representing subject matter to students, novices must develop these representations as part of the planning process for each lesson (Livingston & Borko, 1989:39).

In addition to planning what to teach and how to make it most accessible to their students, teachers often consider what the potential problems will be during the class, but this is something that trainees, in particular the weaker ones, do not seem able to do (Borko, Lalik & Tomchin, 1987:88). Therefore, when things do not go according to plan, because they have neither anticipated it nor have the schemata available to construct explanations or examples on the spot, novices become acutely aware of their weaknesses.

3.4   EXPERIENCED TEACHERS IN A NEW SUBJECT AREA

In TESOL preparation courses there are frequently a few teachers who are making the transition from teaching other subject areas to becoming an ESL teacher. As has been seen above, experienced teachers enjoy a number of advantages over novice trainees. For example Calderhead (cited in Clark & Peterson, 1986:292) points out that,

> the maturing professional teacher is one who has taken some steps toward making explicit his or her implicit theories and beliefs about learners, curriculum, ... and the teacher's role. This teacher has developed a style of planning that has become more streamlined and automatic with experience. Much of this teacher's interactive teaching consists of routines familiar to the students, thus decreasing the collective information-processing load. .... They reflect on and analyse the apparent effects of their own teaching and apply the results of these reflections to their future plans and actions.

With so many strengths, one must ask what exactly, then, do such teachers need to gain from a TESOL course? Cochran, DeRuiter and King (1993), citing Hashweh (1985, 1987) point to the obvious problem area for such trainees - that of subject matter knowledge and the corresponding pedagogical content knowledge.

> Outside their fields, experienced teachers often showed a less organised understanding of information and held misconceptions that they directly integrated into their plans for teaching the content (p. 264).

3.5   SUBJECT MATTER KNOWLEDGE

One of the first requirements of any teacher is that they have an in-depth knowledge of the content to be taught. In the narrowest sense this is what Shulman (1986a) refers to as

subject matter knowledge and defines as "that comprehension of the subject appropriate to a content specialist in the domain" (p. 26). Bennett (1993:6) underlines the importance of subject matter knowledge, asking, "How can teachers teach well knowledge that they do not fully understand?"

The most important subject matter knowledge for ESL teachers is an in-depth knowledge of the intricacies of the English language but

> many teachers and potential teachers arrive on training courses with no basis of linguistic understanding or insight derived from their general education (Bolitho, 1988:72).

Whereas a common public misunderstanding has been the belief that any native speaker can teach English, it is now realised in some places that native-language status is no guarantee of proficiency in the English language (Bolitho, 1988; Johnson, quoted in Long, 1990; Lewis, 1993). As Pugsley (1998:17) points out, many native speakers "have had neither the opportunity nor encouragement to study the structure of language". Nor is a degree in English any guarantee of proficiency in the type of English required for teaching either ESL or English.

> To get an undergraduate degree, students do not have to take classes in reading, vocabulary, dramatic activities, grammar and literature. Yet as English teachers, that is the content they are expected to teach (Grossman, Wilson & Shulman, 1987:24).

Not only must prospective ESL teachers have a good personal knowledge of the English language, but they must have "an explicit knowledge of how the Language works" (Foster & Mercieca, 1998:13) so that they are able to explain it to students who do not share their background. In other words, not only must they understand the basic information but also the how and the why surrounding that information (Shulman, 1986b:9) Training courses can deepen a trainee's personal understanding of subject matter knowledge as can the experience of teaching it to a class (Wilson, Shulman & Richert, 1987), but they must have a basis before beginning the course (Grossman, Wilson & Shulman, 1987:27). If trainees arrive on a course without this knowledge, it is impossible to develop it in four weeks, at the same time as trying to pass on a perfect version of what is for the trainee an imperfect knowledge (Lewis, 1993:191). If they have only a weak command of the subject matter knowledge, trainees will spend a great deal of their planning time in learning the content, rather than in planning how best to impart that content knowledge to students or planning suitable activities to reinforce the content (Livingston & Borko, 1989:40).

There are likely to be dire consequences if trainees complete a training course without an adequate subject matter knowledge. "A lack of content knowledge may mean that teachers

try to avoid teaching certain areas eg English grammar" (Grossman, Wilson & Shulman, 1987:28) or they may present a very narrow view of the subject, based on the latest textbook, or teach in such a way that questions are discouraged to disguise their lack of competence. While they may have gained "a basic range of teaching techniques" (Foster & Mercieca, 1998:13), they may have problems imparting knowledge because of their weaknesses in subject matter knowledge. In a survey of some English language schools who employed RSA CTEFLA graduates, Davis (1990:39) found that

> there was an emphatic expression of dissatisfaction with CTEFLA holders in the area of students' linguistic problems, grammatical structures and pronunciation,

which would seem to be indications of a lack of subject matter knowledge.

There has been a call for greater emphasis to be put on subject matter knowledge in any teacher training courses to right the previously over-balanced emphasis on teaching processes (Bennett, 1993; Shulman, 1986b). Numrich (1996:138-139) specifically recommends that "novice teachers ... take a grammar course prior to or in conjunction with their first teaching practicum" so that "they might have more security facing their students' questions". Foster and Mercieca (1998:15) voice even greater concerns about trainees' competence in subject matter knowledge and the long-lasting effects of this lack of knowledge.

> We feel that on many courses, trainees may reach the end still unclear about what constitutes "grammar". Frequently, they have gained the impression that it is a knowledge of the tenses. Unfortunately, this often carries over into trainees' initial teaching and they never become aware of the existence of other aspects of language.

3.5.1 *Pedagogical content knowledge*
This term has been attributed to Shulman (1986b:9) who defines it as

> the dimension of subject matter knowledge for teaching .... in a word, the ways of representing and formulating the subject that make it comprehensible to others.

The need for pedagogical content knowledge directly addresses the situation where it has been presumed that once content knowledge has been acquired by anyone, they will be able to teach it to students (Bennett & Turner-Bissett, 1993; Calderhead, 1987). It is pedagogical content knowledge that may be of paramount importance for prospective teachers to gain on any teacher training course. Not only do they have to be able to manipulate content themselves but they must be able to explain the changes that they made in words that others can understand (Wray, 1993:51). In short, they have to learn "how to communicate that knowledge effectively to many kinds of students" (Grossman, Wilson & Shulman, 1987:28). As Ball and McDiarmid (1990:437) point out, communicating subject matter knowledge entails many different tasks,

such as selecting worthwhile learning activities, giving helpful explanations, asking productive questions, and evaluating students' learning, all (of which) depend on the teacher's understanding of what it is that students are to learn.

Figure 3.2 shows the relationships between subject matter (or content) knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge. The double-ended arrow between subject matter and pedagogical content knowledge shows the deeper awareness of subject matter that is obtained in the planning process whereas general pedagogical knowledge has a one-way influence.
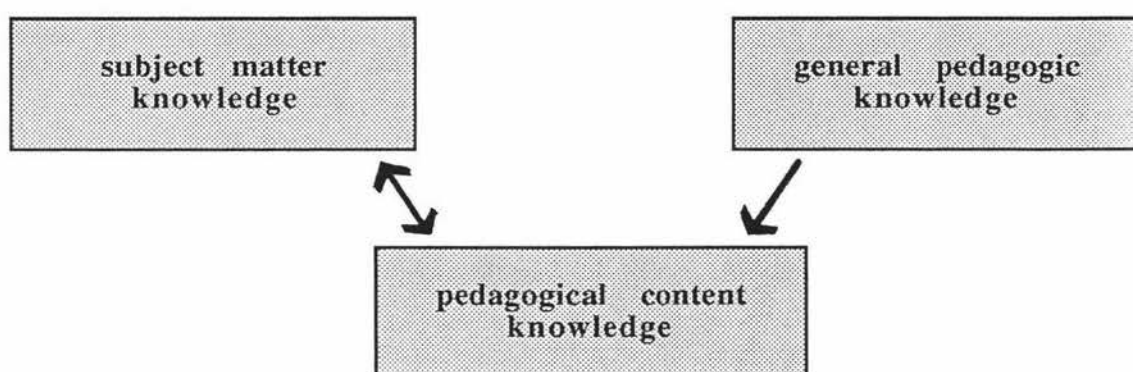
Figure 3.2   Relationship between pedagogical content knowledge factors

Concern has been expressed in teacher training courses that the required knowledge for the development of pedagogical content knowledge is gained partly in teacher education courses and partly in content courses without trainees necessarily making the connection between the two (Wilson, Shulman & Richert, 1987:194). In terms of figure 3.2, this could result in the arrows being only one-way or non-existent.

An important source of pedagogical content knowledge for language teachers is their own experience in learning a language. Barnard (1997:52) points out that,

> if ELT teachers are monolingual then their view of English is both partial and ethnocentric. It may be useful for teachers of English to know the language of at least some of their learners and apply their knowledge for pedagogical purposes.

Even if they do not know the language of any of their students, the very experience of having been a learner of another language should help them to empathise with their learners and develop awareness of what may need to be explained and how.

3.6   PRACTICE TEACHING

A great deal of what has been written on teaching practice is based on the longer practica associated with a year-long teacher training course, such as the British PGCE, or the

semester-long practicum associated with BA (TESL) or MA (TESL) degrees. Although the conditions under which practice teaching takes place on these programmes are significantly different from those of the short course, it is nonetheless pertinent to examine the experiences of student teachers on all courses from the point of view of the development of beliefs about teaching as they were tempered by the teaching practice process. Practice teaching must be viewed very seriously since "for most preservice teachers, the TESOL practicum is considered to be one of the most important experiences in learning to teach" (Johnson, 1996:30). It seems that this is mainly because it is practice teaching that gives the trainee the feeling of moving towards his/her goal of teaching.

3.6.1 *Timing of practice teaching*

One major difference in the various research articles on this topic concerns when teaching practice takes place, for how long and what has preceded it. At one extreme are the four week courses where teaching (often beginning with peer teaching) begins very early. There are those who attack the expectations of some short courses that trainees will teach as early as the second day of the course because there are not sufficient opportunities "to be exposed to, and absorb, 'teaching' without being pressured to produce" (Wajnryb, 1991:52). At the other end of the spectrum are the BA (TESL) and MA (TESL) courses during which teaching may not occur (if at all) until the end of the programme, so that it is very difficult for trainees to appreciate the relationship between theory and practice (Lewis, 1993; Pennington, 1990). In the shorter courses, as little as six hours of teaching takes place interspersed with the other parts of the course, whereas for the degree courses the practicum or internship is spent exclusively in a teaching environment and may last for twelve weeks or more (Gebhard 1990; Johnson, 1996). Between these two extremes are many other variations, both within a country and its institutions and internationally (Morine-Dershimer & Leighfield, 1995).

3.6.2 *Relationship between coursework and practice teaching*

A major advantage of the short courses can be seen in the intertwined nature of what is taught during the course and what the trainees are doing during practice teaching. This stands in stark contrast to the longer courses where there is widespread criticism that compulsory courses during training seem to have little relationship with or transferability to the practice teaching situation (Johnson, 1996). There may be several reasons for this. Some feel that the types of changes being instigated by the training institutions are being resisted by the schools. Since the trainees are under the influence of the schools during teaching practice, they have little choice but to teach in the way demanded by the schools (Dunne, 1993; Spada & Massey, 1992). Others feel that trainees are not given a realistic

appreciation of what schools are like - in fact, it may seem as if their course-work instructors and their associate teachers are using quite different frameworks (Winitzky & Arends, 1991). This lack has been acknowledged by some staff involved. Spada and Massey (1992:30) quote a professor who was concerned that he had not equipped his students with the right "tools" to survive their first year of teaching. In this case the staff involved felt responsibility but it seems that in many cases, although trainees see one of the prime objectives of the practicum as being to "apply instruction from their theory courses" (Richards & Crookes, 1988:11), that application often seems to be left entirely to chance and the practicum is run as a self-contained and independent component of the student-teacher's teacher-education program. Figure 3.3 represents this situation.
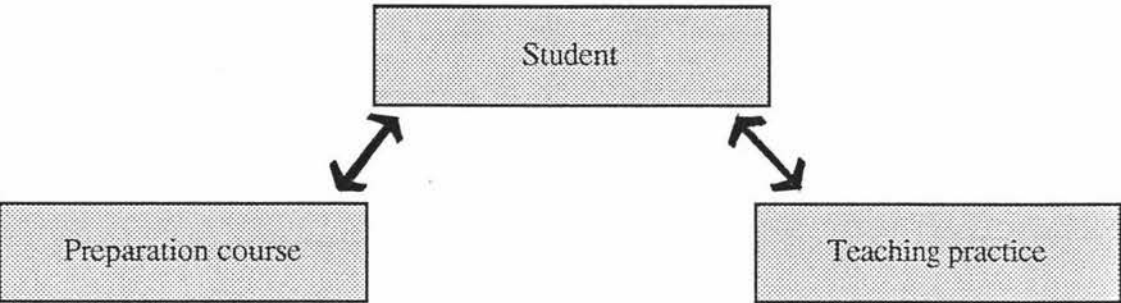
Figure 3.3 Undesirable relationship model

Conversely, Spada and Massey (1992:30) describe how two teachers from a methods course, who had almost daily opportunities to practise what they had learned in their methods courses, did much better than those who had not had the same opportunity. Livingston and Borko (1989:41) envisage an ideal situation in which the associate teacher and the university supervisor work together to assist in the development of trainee teachers. Cochran, DeRuiter and King (1993) have no doubts that it is absolutely essential for trainees to have "early, continued and authentic field experiences with opportunities for real teaching and followup reflection and feedback" (p. 269). Not only must field experiences be frequent but they must be well-planned and meaningful, with students knowing in advance who their students will be and what they will be teaching them (Livingston & Borko, 1989:40). Wallace (1994) argues for a partnership in ELT preparation between a teacher preparation institution and co-operating schools, as is shown below in Figure 3.4. He points out that this should have a positive effect on all concerned as there should be no discrepancy between the two institutions and the formal recognition of the school's role can bring a rise in its status. In addition, supervising teachers undergo a form of staff development as they counsel the trainees and must reflect on their own beliefs.
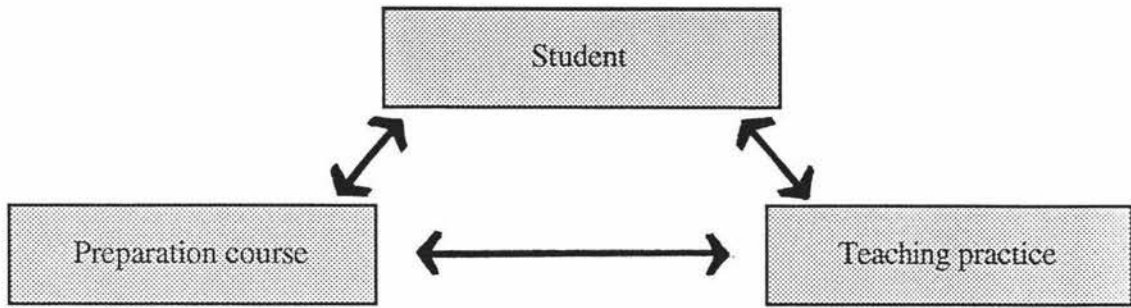
Figure 3.4 Desirable relationship model

In fact, Grenfell (1998:27) explains how a similar system has been instigated in initial teacher training (for school-teaching) in Great Britain, under which courses have become "comparatively more school-based" and "the practical, 'non-theoretical' elements of teachers' professional knowledge and competence" have been emphasised.

3.6.3 *Feedback during practice teaching*

One of the problems associated with a lack of continuity between the courses and the teaching practice is that it creates ambiguity for the trainee. Co-operating teachers do not always know what is the best way to help their trainee teacher (Winitzky & Arends, 1991). Only the trainee knows both what is being taught at the training institution and what the teaching practice situation is. Therefore, the trainees are left to make the vital links between the two by themselves. Thus, trainees feel under stress as they realise that there are many different ideas about what constitutes good teaching (Martinez, 1998). This stress may be further exacerbated by the feedback given to the trainee following his/her teaching. As Calderhead and Robson (1991:534) point out, "students may need considerable support to learn effectively, including assistance to reflect on their experience".

It seems, however, that associate teachers sometimes have neither the time nor the ability to provide such a role (Livingston & Borko, 1989:40). Is it advisable, then, for trainees to teach without supervision? Richards and Crookes (1988:16) raise some concerns about unsupervised teaching, claiming that "such experiences provide few opportunities for diagnosis or evaluation of teacher performance". Gebhard (1990:125) states this in even stronger terms:

> If an activity is available that allows them to further consider their teaching experience, such as a discussion with their supervisor who observed their lessons, they have the chance to process their experience one step further ... the more activities that are made available to the student teachers, the more steps they can make towards an understanding of themselves as teachers and their teaching behaviors.

Martinez (1998) suggests that the solution for these problems is to change the teacher education programmes so that all those involved in a practicum (trainees, institution staff and teachers) are aware of what has been taught, what is expected and what the reality of the classroom situation is. In fact, this is what normally happens during the short courses. Gower (1988) explains that

short courses of four to five weeks (full-time) ... usually blend "language work" with methodology in a very tightly organised programme, which combines instruction from course tutors with practice teaching by trainees (p.20).

In some short courses, such as the one that Richards, Ho and Giblin (1996) describe, tutors (or associate teachers) and trainees meet after every teaching practice session for feedback purposes. This certainly overcomes Richards and Crookes's (1988) concerns but some suggest that this, in turn, is very stressful and that it is important that some lessons on short courses are not observed (Gower, 1988:25).

3.6.4   *Learning by practice teaching*

No matter which course trainees are following they all go through similar experiences during the practical teaching component. To begin with, they normally "focus ... on the mechanics of presentation and on engineering students' language learning and practice" (Brinton & Holten, 1989:345). During this time they are trying to find the 'right' way to teach, how to manage a class and assert themselves in the classroom (Shulman (1987). At this stage they want a lot of guidance because they lack confidence in their teaching. Therefore, a primary consideration is the ability to get through a lesson. Indeed, Bolitho (1988:73) seems to be advocating peer teaching before actual class teaching when he suggests that initial trainees need a safe framework which will allow them to "blunder about" for a time while they make their first attempts at teaching. A secondary concern is on working out appropriate relationships with their pupils, that is changing from being a friend to a teacher (Brinton & Holten, 1989:345; Dunne, 1993). Hollingsworth (1989), cited in Kagan (1992:144-5), found that

general managerial routines had to be in place before novices could focus on pedagogy and content knowledge routines that integrated managerial and academic strategies had to be in place before the novices could focus on what pupils were learning from academic tasks ... Regardless of their extent of subject matter knowledge, all novices who failed to routinize and integrate management and instruction failed to reach a point of understanding what pupils learned.

Trainees are seen to be grappling with (in Shulman's (1987) terms) both general pedagogical knowledge (such as basic classroom management and organisation) and pedagogical content knowledge (how to translate specific subject matter knowledge into a

form that students can understand). In addition they are building up their personal knowledge of learners and their characteristics. Shulman (1987) points out that one method by which this knowledge is developed is by "wisdom of practice itself" and this is what is seen slowly developing during practice teaching. Early practice teaching is seen by Sacks and Harrington (1982, quoted in Shulman, 1987) as being a period of trial and error where the trainee is trying to find the "right way" to teach. Cochran, DeRuiter and King (1993:266) believe that two important additional facets of early practice teaching are that trainees develop an understanding of students and the environmental context of learning. The reasoning process adopted by trainees is represented by Figure 3.5 (Bennett, Carre & Dunne, 1993:217)
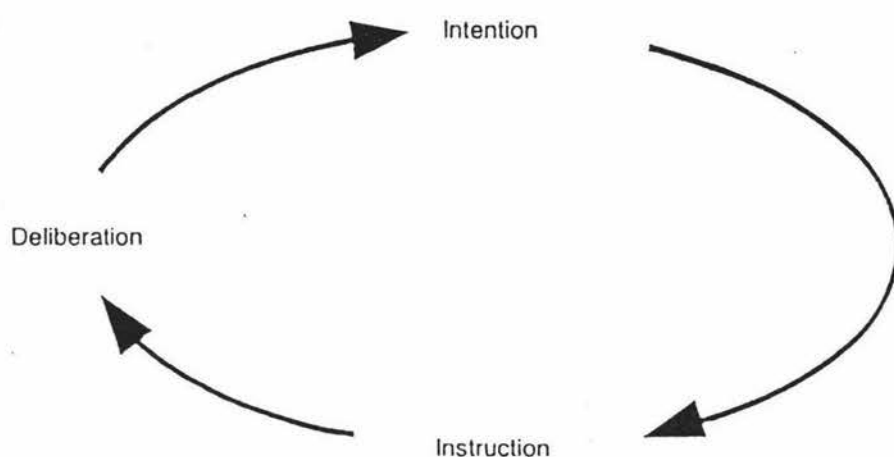
Figure 3.5   Model of early pedagogic reasoning
(Bennett, Carre & Dunne)

A recurrent finding has been that trainees tend to focus on their own concerns as they struggle to:

　　1. behave like a teacher

　　2. think about exactly what it is that they are trying to teach

　　3. think what exactly it is that their students are learning

(Kagan, 1992:155; Numrich, 1996:135-6). It is not clear whether the very limited amount of practice teaching on a short course is enough for trainees to make such a transition, although Fullan (1985) suggests that most preservice courses are too short to have long-lasting benefits while Zeichner et al (1987:28) are more cautious, pointing out that there appears to be a differing impact on different trainees and that the result is far from certain. The results of Richards, Ho and Giblin's (1996) study of five trainee teachers on a short course would suggest that some of these trainees made the full transition but this cannot be used as a true test case since none of these trainees was completely inexperienced in teaching. Figure 3.6 represents the pedagogical reasoning that is expected of experts (Bennett, Carre & Dunne, 1993:218).
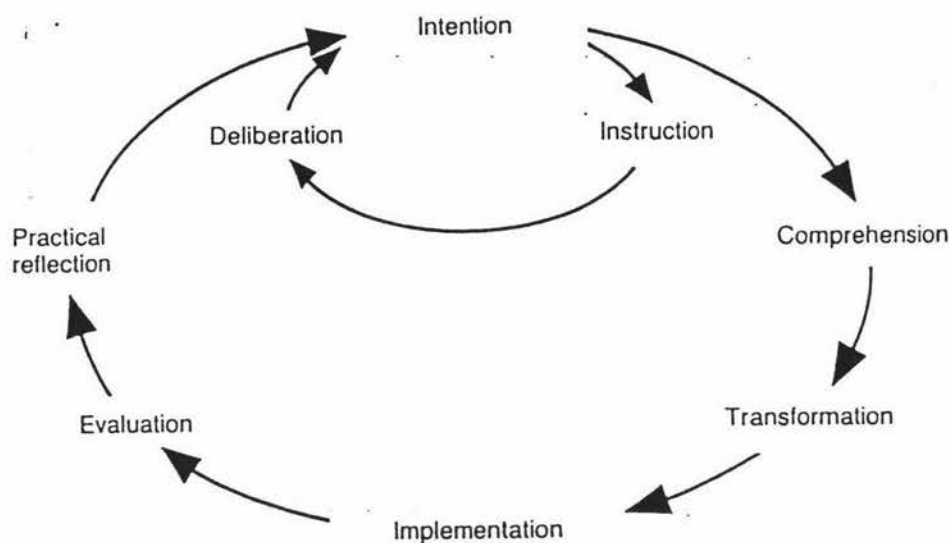
Figure 3.6   Model of the second stage of learning to teach
(Bennett, Carre & Dunne)

3.6.5   *Error correction in practice teaching*

Error correction is an area that trainee teachers take some time to come to grips with (Gebhard, 1990; Numrich, 1996). There seem to be several reasons for this. Firstly, the trainees report memories of disliking being corrected when they were students. Secondly, they were not sure if their own explanation would be correct, which demonstrates the importance of subject matter knowledge for these trainees. It is evident that some of these prejudices were strong enough for trainees to resist students' demands for explanations but, in time, they seemed to realise that they had to come to grips with this weakness (Numrich, 1996). One study showed that by halfway through the sixteen week practicum most of the students had developed several strategies (Gebhard, 1990). Although Johnson's (1992:522) report on how her pre-service trainees handled error correction suggests that it might not be such a problem for some trainees, the number of instances of error correction does seem to be much smaller than the numbers of other types of instructional decisions. Therefore, they could still have been at the stage of largely avoiding error correction.

It has been reported that it seems to be quite important for the trainees to have the opportunity to change class halfway through the practicum, so that they can make a fresh start and try to avoid all the mistakes they had made at first (Gebhard, 1990; Johnson, 1996). In Gebhard's study, it was after the change to a new class that the trainee instigated error correction much more, whereas in Johnson's study the major factor in the success of a practicum which had not been going particularly well at that stage was not so

much the change of class as the fact that the trainee took over the class completely and had the opportunity to plan and teach in a style that she felt more comfortable with.

3.7   SUGGESTIONS FOR TEACHER PREPARATION PROGRAMMES

A number of studies (eg Johnson, 1992; Kagan, 1992; Livingston & Borko, 1989) have made various suggestions for teacher preparation programmes following their findings. These suggestions include such areas as:
- the need for gradual development of novice teachers
- the place of ideas on a preparation programme
- the difficulty for novices of learning from their own practical experience
- the difficulty of adopting skills demonstrated by experts
- the supervising teacher's role.

Firstly, at the beginning of a teacher preparation course, novice trainees have difficulty in linking events in the classroom to their rudimentary knowledge structure. This means that guidance in observation is essential and, in fact, videos of expert teachers may be preferable to the live experience as these can be replayed as necessary, allowing discussion between all those watching them, and permitting a tutor to focus trainees' attention on different features so that their knowledge base can grow through concrete examples (Livingston & Borko, 1989:41). If live observations are introduced too soon and with no guiding principles, learning to teach may actually be inhibited (Livingston & Borko, 1989:39). Johnson (1992:530) points out that trainees can also gain benefit from watching videos of themselves.

There is a fine balance when supporting trainees. For example, novice teachers need time to develop their teaching skills which suggests that they should not be expected to do a lot of teaching at once, as they need time to reflect on what has happened and the implications for their future teaching (Livingston & Borko, 1989:40). Gebhard (1990) suggests that not only should trainees reflect on their own teaching, but they need to be able to observe others teaching and discuss it with them so that they can make changes to their own teaching. There may be added value if trainees teach the same content more than once so that they have time to refine their ideas and try them out a second time.

Care must also be taken with the selection of an associate teacher, as is discussed in the previous chapter. One interesting point that Kagan (1992:154) makes is that it can be of value to have an associate with different values from the trainee, as their beliefs are then challenged which forces the trainee to examine those beliefs carefully and reformulate them if necessary. This may also provide the alternative models that Johnson (1994:450)

calls for to provide other images of language teachers. However, as she goes on to point out, such models can only be developed in a supportive practicum environment. Livingston and Borko (1989:40) suggest that an associate should be

> able and willing to explicate the routines and strategies they use, provide systematic and constructive feedback, and engage with the student teacher in joint problem solving about pedagogical issues. They should also model pedagogical thinking to student teachers by demonstrating and then explaining how they transform subject matter into pedagogically powerful forms.

3.8   SUMMARY

This chapter has examined the case of the novice trainee in teacher preparation programmes, commencing with the expectations that trainees bring with them as they enter the various programmes. Several facets which have been shown to be particular to novice trainees are discussed, leading to a comparison between novices and experts.

The vexing question of subject matter knowledge and its relationship to pedagogical content knowledge and the related field of practice teaching were then examined. A number of factors pertinent to practice teaching - timing, relationship with coursework, feedback, learning and error correction have been discussed, culminating in recommendations that have been made for teaching preparation programmes.

CHAPTER FOUR

THE FOUR WEEK CERT. TESOL COURSE

The shortest, internationally-accepted training courses for TEFL/TESL are the four-week intensive courses, offered in many different countries throughout Africa, Asia, Europe and America by RSA/Cambridge (UCLES/CETFLA/CILTS) and Trinity College, London (Cert. TESOL). RSA/Cambridge claim that their course is an "initial training course" (Cambridge syllabus, quoted in Richardson (1992:29) and Trinity's Cert. TESOL is described as being "a first qualification for teachers of English" (Trinity Cert. TESOL brochure, front cover). Many international ESL/EFL teaching institutions require either of these certificates as the basic TESL/TEFL qualification that their staff must possess.

4.1   BACKGROUND

The first short courses (of only two weeks) were set up by International House "in order to provide properly prepared staff for the school of English which they (John & Brita Haycraft) set up in London in 1959" (Duff, 1988:1). These courses were later taken over by RSA. In an article which explains the setting up of these courses, John Haycraft (1988:1) makes the point that "training is most effective when urgently needed and when the reasons for urgency are clear". He further clarified that, at that time, there was no practical classroom-based course for those people wanting to be involved in teaching the many ESL students who were starting to come to Britain. The fact that such courses have been found to have some validity is attested to by the fact that they have been followed all over the world and are internationally recognised. "The RSA/UCLES Certificate is the most widely recognized entry level qualification for TESOL jobs in Europe" (Lindstromberg, 1991:8). Although the initial objective was "to give trainees as much practical grounding and exposure to classrooms as possible", those who completed the course were strongly advised that they would need to continue developing as they had only been started in the right direction. Opponents of the short courses argue, however, that the acceptance of a certificate from a short course as the minimum qualification to teach in a language school, does not encourage Certificate holders to pursue such development (Lewis, 1993:189).

4.1.1   *Aims of the short course*

> Most pre-service ELT training courses have two aims: to try to create an awareness of language and to try to acquaint trainees with some basic classroom skills, a few techniques and methods currently in use (Gower, 1988:20).

These two aims are met by closely intermixing instruction from tutors with practice teaching. While Gower conceded that the training courses do indeed meet the two aims, he questions whether there is time on such courses to consider deeply matters pertaining to teaching and also makes the observation that trainees can view their students as a "stage army" on whom to practise their teaching skills with the consequence that they do not develop an interest in them, which is so important in teaching.

Ten years later these two aims remain the most important, although controversy arises about the mix of the two given the limited time frame. As de Ravin and Murray (1992:40) point out, "In the design of a certificate course time is always insufficient and some of the most difficult planning decisions concern what is to be included or omitted". Roberts (1998:206) agrees that four weeks is an extremely limiting factor with the result that "the CELTA is an ... almost survival-oriented form of training". Indeed, whereas trainees in other teacher preparation courses sometimes complain that they get too much theory, the opposite has been mentioned in reference to the short courses:

> We are so busy being practical that we never stop to think about the assumptions, hypotheses and principles - in effect "the theory" - on which the practice is based (Duff, 1988:Introduction).

These concerns were reiterated by Davis (1990) in his analysis of the RSA CTEFLA (which has now been replaced by the CELTA mentioned by Roberts above).

4.1.2   *Relationship with other preparation programmes*

It must be noted that one of the aims of these short courses, as mentioned earlier, is to provide an "initial training course" or a "first qualification", not to produce fully-developed teachers. This point seems to have been misunderstood with the result that short courses are sometimes seen as posing a challenge to other training establishments, a challenge which is typically met by comments such as "you're arrogant enough to think you can train a teacher in four weeks" (Richardson, 1992:28). It seems that there may be unrealistic expectations on the part of employers of those who have completed a short course and that they may be expected to be far more fully developed as teachers than is the case. "DOS (Director of Studies) replies to my surveys left me with the suspicion that what they'd like from a Certificate level teacher is what I, as a teacher trainer, would expect from a Diploma level teacher" (Richardson, 1992:29). Roberts (1998), however,

has no doubts that a "minimum experience of six hours' practice could be nothing else" (but initial training).

Not surprisingly there is discussion on many fronts about the relative value of a four-week Certificate as opposed to other more time-consuming qualifications. Not only is there discussion as to the comparative time required but also over the emphases of the different courses. Goodchild (1987:88) points out that,

> argument rages over ... whether the RSA Cert TEFL is preferable to a PGCE or an MA in Linguistics more desirable than both. ... the mere possession of a paper called a degree or Certificate offers no guarantee in practice that its owner will produce quality performance in the classroom.

It would seem, however, that graduates from the various programmes have their own criteria for judging the different courses. It has been reported that "the vast majority of trainees described the course (RSA Cert TEFL) as a totally stimulating experience especially those who had also undertaken MA courses in TESL and had found them to be rather disappointing" (Duff, 1988:12). It seems that the TESOL Association itself realises that the short courses have something to offer many of those who have undertaken the more academic courses and they have suggested that, in certain cases,

> the program might consider linkage with the RSA/Cambridge CTEFLA (Certificate in the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language to Adults) .... Faculty advisors might require or at least strongly encourage their teachers-in-training to participate in this certificate program, with its focus on teaching techniques, problem solving in adverse conditions, and practice (Reid, 1995/6:3).

4.1.3   *Stresses of short courses*

It is acknowledged that the short courses are quite stressful and trainees often complain of fatigue and stress, a lack of time to digest everything, a lack of time to get to know students, problems with meeting expectations in lesson planning, the need for perfection and the worry about whether they would pass (Rinvolucri, 1991:11-13). While some of these problems may be unavoidable, means, such as the addition of a distance learning component as is required in the course on which the present study is based, have been found to alleviate at least some of them. Wajnryb (1991) and Roberts (1998) both suggest pre-course guided observation of (preferably several) ESL teachers as a way of orienting the novice trainees to the different styles of teaching and learning. Table 4.1 summarises the stresses encountered on short courses and some possible solutions.

Stress	Possible solution
Information overload	Distance learning modules and tasks
Too little time	Prepare trainees for intensive nature of course
	Careful selection of course components
	Pre-course observation of ESL classes
	Give up everything else for the month
	Complete at a later date
Personality misfit	Suggest alternative career
	Expect to take longer to complete

Table 4.1   Stresses and possible solutions on short courses

It has been suggested that only a certain personality type is suited to the stress of a short course and that "quiet teachers weren't really up to it" (Harmer, 1988:18). In fact, one of Grenfell's (1998:64) subjects suggests that this is true of all teaching, when she states that "the real key to success for teachers is individual personality and appeal". There appear to be at least two answers to this problem. Lindstromberg (1991:7) takes the realistic point of view that "not everyone should be an English teacher", whereas Wajnryb (1991:52) prefers to take the pressure off her trainees by suggesting that they "need 'a silent phase' at the start of their training courses to allow them to be exposed to, and absorb, 'teaching' without being pressured to produce". For this to be possible, however, trainees have to undertake observation of classrooms prior to undertaking the main coursework, which lengthens the time required.

The problem of information overload has been addressed in some cases by the addition of a distance learning component which trainees complete before being accepted on to the course and which, in some cases, continues after the course (Parker, 1991:151-2). The benefits of a combination of distance learning and a face-to-face programme are lauded by McGrath (1995:74) as not adding much cost but providing flexibility and convenience. As such distance learning normally includes a large component of English language awareness, which constitutes a major subject matter gap for many younger native speakers (Pugsley, 1998:17), it also allows prospective trainees to thoroughly prepare at their leisure. Another possibility, which is occasionally used on the course on which this study is based, is to allow trainees to complete some parts of the work at a later date. If the work required is minimal and if the trainee's teaching practice has been of a sufficiently high standard, then the course director may be given the authority to notify Trinity London when the trainee has completed all requirements. In other circumstances trainees may be advised to delay moderation until the next course, by which time they will

be able to meet all requirements. Such lessening of stress allows for the longer-term development of trainees rather than the shorter-term training effect (Parker, 1991).

4.2 THE TRINITY CERT. TESOL COURSE

The following sections outline relevant details of the course which formed the focus of the current study. It explains regulations imposed by Trinity College and the actual course as offered by International Pacific College (IPC).

4.2.1 *Selection of Trainees for Courses*

Trainees must meet certain requirements set by both Trinity College and the institution offering the course. The requirements include a minimum age requirement, "educational qualifications sufficient to gain entry to higher education" and "have English language competence equivalent to a native speaker" (Trinity Cert. (TESOL), 1998). Candidates must complete a written task (which is normally a 500 - 1,000 word profile of themselves including their reasons for wishing to teach English to speakers of other languages). This task not only gives important background information about the candidate but normally gives a good indication of their written English, language ability being an important facet of a person who wishes to train as an English teacher. Candidates should also be available if required for an interview.

In most cases initial enquiries are dealt with over the phone or by letter, which gives the Course Director the opportunity to impart full information on the course as well as to form an initial impression as to whether the candidate will be suited to the course. The intensive nature of the course is repeatedly stressed both orally and in writing.

4.2.2 *Course Components*

The Trinity Cert. TESOL was first offered at International Pacific College in May, 1995. During the first two years that the course was offered, changes were made to the presentation of the programme, the most significant of which was the introduction of a distance learning component to be completed prior to the commencement of the on-campus course.

During the four week Trinity Cert. TESOL course, trainees receive instruction in a large number of areas related to practical teaching, as required by Trinity College (see Appendix A). Although theoretical studies are referred to, the bias is undoubtedly on what trainees will need almost immediately in the classroom. In many areas trainees are

also given examples to try out the activities and techniques, so that they can feel (to a very limited extent because of their superior language skills) what their students would be going through when doing such exercises. Trainees are given some exposure to rather more realistic examples when they are having their unknown language lessons and tutors often remind them of what they went through at that time in an effort to assist them to transfer this learning to the expectations they have of their learners. The various components that make up the IPC Trinity Cert. TESOL course are summarised in Table 4.2. Details of each phase are given in the subsequent sections.

Time	Topic/Activity	Means
Pre-course	Language awareness Second language theory Phonology	Distance learning modules tasks
Campus course	• Observation • Teaching techniques Methodology • Practice teaching • Student awareness • Assessment	Video Classroom Seminars, discussions, unknown language learning, tasks Peer teaching Class teaching Student profile Teaching journal, tasks and profile examined by Moderator

Table 4.2   Components of the IPC Trinity Cert. TESOL course

It could be claimed that the title, "The four week course", is a slight misnomer as trainees are required to complete a distance learning component (which, according to the IPC Course Director, commonly requires approximately sixty hours) before joining the four week course. In reality, most trainees spend at least a month (and sometimes considerably more) on the distance learning before joining the on-campus course. The distance learning component ensures that trainees have a basic knowledge of what is entailed in learning a second language, what TESOL is, language awareness and phonology. Each section of the distance learning comprises several study guides (which mostly refer to core text books) with exercises to be completed and submitted for marking. The exercises pick out the key points of each area but sometimes also require trainees to transfer the information to a TESOL situation, such as "find(ing) a text in a magazine or newspaper and describ(ing) how it could be used" (TESOL: an Introduction 6, p.5). The last study guide

of each component is a glossary where the key terms have been noted and it is recommended that trainees write in their own definitions as a handy revision guide for the test on the Distance Learning modules which is held usually in the first week of the four week course. If a trainee fails the test they are given an opportunity to resit later in the course. Further details on the Distance Learning can be found in Appendix B.

Although this distance learning does not necessarily give trainees an in-depth theoretical knowledge, it does ensure that they start the course with a basic subject matter knowledge. The first Cert. TESOL course offered at International Pacific College did not have a distance learning component and those without a good grounding in the English language in particular found that they were trying to learn new material themselves, then immediately having to teach it to students before completely assimilating it, which was not an easy situation for either them or the course tutors.

In the first few days of the course, trainees watch several video clips from the series *Language Teaching and Learning* (British Council, 1993). Each segment of the video observation focuses on a certain area such as error correction. Trainees watch several different approaches to the topic in question, then groups will discuss their observations of certain features in the video with the tutor guiding the discussions rather than giving a definitive viewpoint. The individual trainees then write an analysis of the video following a guide which accompanies the video. The most telling part of the analysis comes in the specific techniques and general comments at the end where variation between the trainees is at its greatest. Trainees also normally observe classes before they teach them so that they have a chance to, at least superficially, get to know the class. Each of the class observations is both longer than the video clips and covers more because it is a real lesson as opposed to clips, all of which are focusing on one topic. After observing the class, the trainees write up what they observed following a set format (see Appendix C).

Since this preparation programme is one where a native-speaker will teach their own language, Parker (1991:141) points out that "the learning of a foreign language gives all the rest of the course a firm reference point". Although the unknown language lessons take up only a few hours of a course, they have two very important foci. First of all, the trainees are shown (or reminded) of what it feels like to be a beginner student of a new language so that they can identify with possible future students. Secondly, trainees have the opportunity to observe language-learning techniques in use in a 'real' teaching situation.

As the foreign language lessons usually come at the beginning of the course, it is possible that trainees will not have been instructed in all the techniques before being exposed to

them. There is also no guarantee that they will actually notice what they have been instructed in. As shown later when trainees were required to write reports on the observational videos, they commented on different features and in varying amounts of depth, despite their attention being drawn to certain features and there being a certain amount of group discussion about points in the video. It would seem likely that this discrepancy would be even wider were they were to write down their own observations without the benefit of group discussion.

Both the weight of the assessment and the sheer hours spent on it make the teaching practice the most important part of the course. Included in the teaching practice journal are trainees' analysis of video observations, teaching observations of classes which they will later teach, lesson plans of peer teaching, feedback from group members and their own analysis, lesson plans of their classroom teaching, feedback from an observer and their own analysis of their teaching. It is required that trainees pass all assessable areas but, because the teaching practice component accounts for 50% of the marks, it must be seen as the most important part.

The teaching practice (at least six hours) begins with micro-teaching, which Wallace (1991:95) recommends as "a technique for professional reflection". All trainees are given a point to teach (often a grammar point linked to the language awareness) in ten minutes. The teaching is done in groups of approximately four trainees. The three who are the 'class' are often given roles to reflect the types of students who are met in everyday teaching eg the slow but determined, the extrovert. Trainees thus practise lesson planning, their classroom management and coping with the unexpected (or rectifying their mistakes) in the relative security of a small and (hopefully) supportive group. Richards and Crookes (1988:17) point out that, although microteaching has been criticised as being "an artificial activity", "there are still aspects of classroom methodology that can be practiced in a microteaching format". These lessons are videotaped so that trainees can look at them by themselves to help analyse their lesson. In the current study trainees noted how they looked "in teacher role" and used the video to "see what I really look like". Feedback comes from the group rather than the tutor although the tutor will comment on the video if requested and does make suggestions on both their lesson plans and their written reflection on the lesson.

The classroom teaching is normally carried out with classes that the trainees have already observed. Normally the trainee has consulted with the class teacher to establish what to teach and they negotiate a time for teaching (nearly always in the morning) which is acceptable to both. Lessons are often planned with suggestions from one of the course tutors or other course members who have already taught something similar but the final

decision is always left up to the trainee. The lesson is written out on a Lesson Planning Sheet (see Appendix D). The lesson is observed by either the normal class teacher or one of the course tutors, who provides written feedback according to a Teaching Practice Lesson Observation sheet (see Appendix E), which should be given to the trainee only after they have written their own analysis of the lesson and have discussed the lesson with the observer. In their own analysis trainees follow a self-evaluation guide (see Appendix F) according to which they are expected to comment on the lesson itself, the success of the materials used, preparation and planning, constraints, things they would change, things that went well and overall feelings about the lesson. Thus, trainees are gently encouraged to develop a reflective mode of teaching, although because of the intensive nature of the course, trainees sometimes find it difficult to make the time to do so in depth, which concurs with Bowker's (1998:19) finding that reflection is not necessarily easy and it may end up being rather superficial.

Trainees carry out their practice teaching at at least two different levels and often in two different institutions. By using several local institutions, it is normally possible to cater for trainees who require experience with ESOL in schools (either with adults or teenagers), Polytechnics and language school situations, which meets Haycraft's (1988) requirement for "a genuine work environment". As he explains further, "the usefulness to a person starting work of this awareness of the world of work is not to be underestimated" (Haycraft, 1988:15) It must be acknowledged, however, that one of the greatest difficulties for the trainees is teaching a class that they have only just met.

Another major component of the course is in developing a profile of an ESOL student showing:
- the student's background including personal, cultural and linguistic aspects
- characteristics of the student's spoken and written English, accompanied by samples which (the trainee has) analysed
- Needs Analysis, including a recommended future programme of study (Course Handbook, p.6).

4.2.3   *Assessment*
Assessment is based on a variety of tasks namely, the Distance Learning test, the unknown foreign language journal, the learner profile, a materials compilation project (which must include an information gap activity, a speaking skills activity, the oral evaluation of a textbook, and an authentic materials task), and the teaching practice journal. A pass in each component of the course is required before a trainee can gain their certification. All courses are subject to moderation at the end of the course which involves

a visit by a Trinity College appointed and trained moderator. Therefore, the ultimate decision to pass or fail a candidate rests with Trinity College rather than the institution offering the course. Completion of the course does not in itself guarantee certification.

The developmental process that the trainees undergo before, during and after the course is presented below in diagrammatic form, adapted from Wallace's (1991) model.

Prior Concepts
- apprenticeship of observation
- prior teaching experience
- confidence-building experience

↓

Pre-course
- Distance learning + Tasks
- Feedback ⇨ Reflection

↓

In-course
- Input from tutors
- Teaching practice ⇔ Planning discussions
  Feedback discussions
- Reflection

↓

Goals
- Initial Certification
- Further professional development
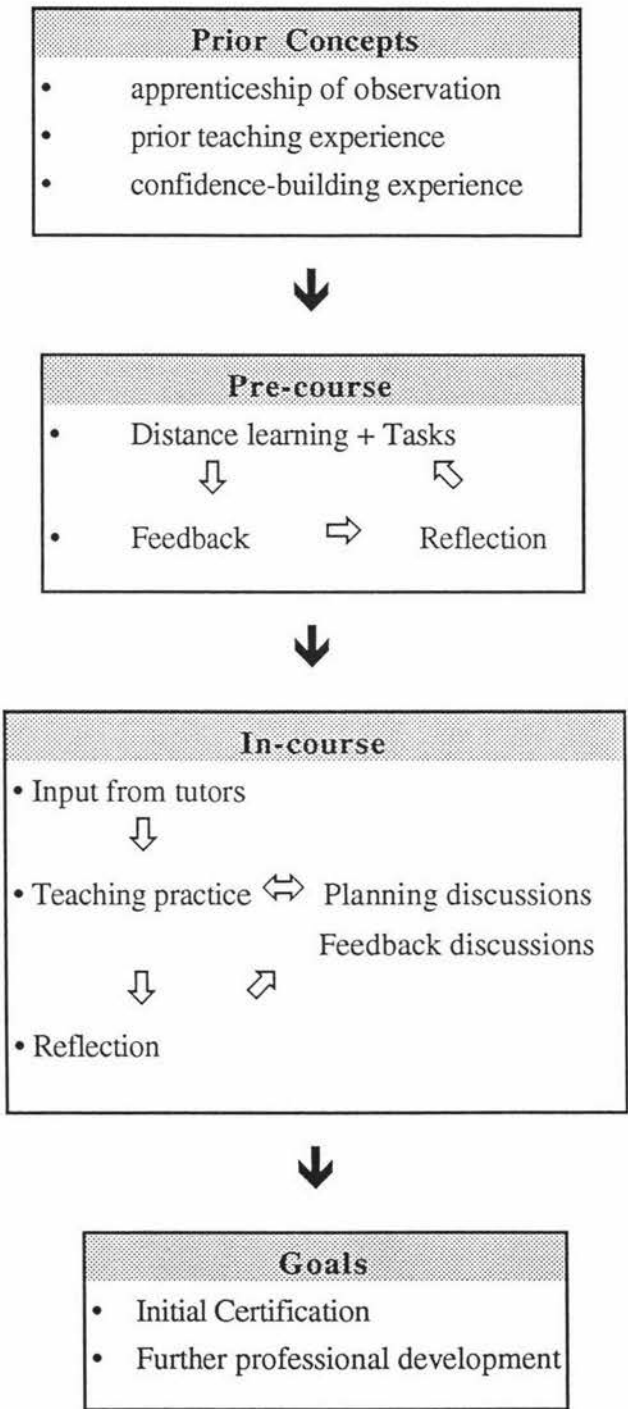
**Figure 4.1   Professional education development
model of Cert. TESOL trainees**

4.3 SUMMARY

In this chapter the international four-week courses were outlined. The first section dealt with the reasons for setting up short courses, how they relate to other teaching preparation courses and the extra stresses inherent in such a short preparation period.

The second section focused on the course on which this study is based. It showed the components of that course, the various activities that the trainees must undergo and how the trainees are assessed. Finally, a diagram of the course and how it fits within professional educational development was presented, commencing with the trainees' existing beliefs before undertaking any study, moving through the pre-course material, then progressing on to the experiences during the course, leading (if successful) on to certification and a longer-term development.

CHAPTER FIVE

METHODOLOGY

In this chapter the methodology used in the research is described, looking first at the key issues that are under investigation, followed by an examination of the overall approach taken and finishing with an explanation and justification of the data collection techniques used. The four major types of instrumentation for data collection are reviewed according to the relevant literature and an explanation is given of their application in the current research. The next section deals with the setting from which the sample group is drawn, then moves on to individual subject selection and a brief introduction to those subjects. Finally, the method by which the data was analysed is discussed.

The principle focus of this research is on investigating the development of beliefs about teaching developed during a short ESL teacher preparation course. It was important to ascertain existing beliefs about teaching, either from an observer's or practitioner's viewpoint, since they could influence the acceptance or otherwise of material presented on the course. Of some interest was the comparison between trainees with no previous teaching experience and those with teaching experience in other subject areas. In particular this study seeks to examine:

1. What were the major areas in which trainees developed beliefs during the course?

2. Are there individual differences in the extent to which trainees develop during the course?

3. To what extent did the trainees acquire teaching skills during the course?

5.1   THE RESEARCH DESIGN

5.1.1   *The Research Approach*
This study falls in to Woods (1996:22) category of being ethno-cognitive in that it is "ethnographic in orientation with regard to its research methodology - attempting to use

informants as a source of information .... The study is cognitive in terms of what it is seeking to describe - the cognitive processes" which develop in teacher trainees.

An ethnographic approach is "both qualitative and naturalistic" (Watson-Gegeo, 1988:576). Ethnography has been shown to be a valid research method in education because the classroom is now seen as a place with its own cultural characteristics (van Lier, 1990). While there have been arguments against the use of ethnography in education on the grounds that it is not scientific enough and does not employ the use of statistical methods, these have been largely discounted because it has been argued that such scientifically-quantifiable methods are not appropriate for educational research. Indeed, there is a feeling that by pre-establishing criteria, the findings are restricted and do not present the holistic picture that is possible by the use of ethnographic methods (van Lier, 1990; Watson-Gegeo, 1988). As detailed in section 5.4 an attempt was made in the present research to combine the qualitative, ethnographic approach with the more scientific, quantitative approach.

An important feature of an ethnographic approach is that it is naturalistic, which "implies that the researcher conducts observations in the natural, ongoing environment where people live and work" (Watson-Gegeo, 1988:576). As the present study focused on trainees as they underwent their teacher preparation programme, it was essential that the approach chosen could follow them as closely and in as much depth as possible. The fact that the present study relies on language, which represented what the trainees were doing and thinking, can also be seen as naturalistic. As Freeman (1994b:81) points out,

> language provides the key ...... The teacher could tell, explain, confirm, reflect, and thus represent her thoughts, judgments, decisions and ideas in public words to the researcher, who could then in turn study and analyse them in order to make sense of that internal world.

The superiority of qualitative research for investigating teachers beliefs and decision-making is attested to by a number of authors (Erickson, 1986; Hammadou, 1993; Kagan, 1990; Nunan, 1992b; Shavelson & Stern, 1981), many of whom point out that a major drawback with a quantitative approach is that all variables must be identified and defined before the study begins (Hammadou, 1993). Therefore, when carrying out qualitative research, "one approach to data collection in the field is to make it as intuitive as possible" .... (so that there are) "no prior expectations that might limit openness to uniqueness of experience in the setting" (Erickson, 1986:139). Once data has been collected, it must be interpreted. Neuman (1997:335) points out that there are three levels of interpretation. *First-order interpretation* is carried out by the people who are being studied, while *second-order interpretation* is the researcher's interpretation of that specific data and

third-order interpretation is at a broader level of interpretation in which the researcher assigns a more "general theoretical significance".

As has been pointed out a number of times (eg Erickson, 1986; Nunan, 1992a; van Lier, 1990), the problems with qualitative research are usually at the data analysis stage. Nunan (1992b:162) was particularly concerned about the risk of data distortion which could affect the internal validity, external validity, construct validity, internal reliability and external reliability of his research on teachers' interactive decision-making. While researchers will do everything they can to prevent such distortion, such as spending many hours analysing the data from different angles, it may be that such risks will always remain a worry if *real* voices are to be heard in research in *genuine* classrooms. Much qualitative data is analysed by means of grounded theory, which is "based in and derived from data and arrived at through a systematic process of induction" (Watson-Gegeo, 1988:583). *Representative* examples are then chosen to demonstrate central tendencies or typicality as well as variance in the data. While researchers from the quantitative viewpoint deride the lack of statistical analysis in qualitative studies, such analysis "is usually not necessary or appropriate" (Erickson, 1986:151), partly, at least, because "readers of qualitative research usually place more trust in the researcher's integrity and interpretations" (Neuman, 1997:333).

Many qualitative studies counteract threats to validity by the use of triangulation, which is "the application and combination of several research methodologies in the study of the same phenomenon" (Denzin, 1997:318). The basic reason for using triangulation is that "measurement improves when diverse indicators are used" (Neuman, 1997:151). The present study used data triangulation in using a number of subjects over a period of time and in different situations, investigator triangulation by the use of self-reports, researcher data and tutor data, and methodological triangulation in that there were several different methods used in the data collection phase. Because there is more than one type of triangulation involved, it qualifies as what Denzin (1997) refers to as *multiple triangulation* . It also fits what Hammersley and Atkinson (1983, cited in Denzin, 1997:319) refer to as *reflexive triangulation* insofar as different sorts of data are related. In fact, Kagan (1990:459) points out that

> the use of multimethod approaches appears to be superior, not simply because they allow triangulation of data, but because they are more likely to capture the complex, multifaceted aspects of teaching and learning.

5.2   INSTRUMENTATION

Timing	Instrumentation
Pre-course	Written questionnaires
On-campus, Day 1-2	Initial interview
Week 1	Written observations
Mid-course	Textbook evaluation
Weeks 2-4	Practice teaching evaluations
Week 4	Stimulated recall
Last day	Final group interview
Post-Moderation	Final individual interview

Table 5.1   Instrumentation used in study

As shown in Table 5.1 there were four major types of instrumentation used in the present study: questionnaires, interviews, stimulated recall and written journal entries. This section describes why each tool was chosen, how it was developed and administered in the study.

5.2.1   *Questionnaires*

The two questionnaires (Appendices G and H) were sent to trainees together with the introductory letter as soon as they signed up for the course. The primary purpose of these questionnaires was twofold. The first questionnaire (Personal Information Questionnaire) was designed for the purpose of gathering information on a number of demographic factors. Biographical data on age and gender allowed a possible comparison regarding these two factors; educational background, previous teaching and other work experience may have accounted for some trainees coping rather better with some parts of the course than others; questions on countries visited and languages learned were designed to ascertain trainees' knowledge of factors which could affect their learners; finally, their reasons for studying for a Cert. TESOL provided data both as to the immediate relevance of such a course and at the end of the course, it was hoped that it would be possible to judge the extent to which the course had fulfilled the trainees' expectations.

The second questionnaire (Initial Questionnaire), which focused much more closely on the teaching situation, sought information on trainees' pre-Cert. TESOL beliefs. An open-ended format was deliberately chosen for these questions so that the researcher could not influence the trainees' responses. As discussed in the results, this also has a negative

effect, in that, depending on the circumstances under which the questionnaires were completed, there could be information lacking. In addition, the results from an open-ended questionnaire are much more difficult to tabulate because there may be many more small categories. First of all, trainees were asked to give a description of teachers that they remembered well, then they were asked about the attributes of a good teacher to discover if trainees attached similar characteristics to 'good' teachers and their former remembered teachers, which led to why they thought they, themselves, would make a good teacher. The questions on whether it was important for ESL teachers to have learned another language and what trainees thought were the characteristics of a successful student both sought information on the trainees' thoughts on key factors in the learning of languages. Finally, it was of interest to know if the trainees realised that this initial qualification should not be the end of their teacher development but rather the beginning and, if so, did they know what the alternatives in the road ahead were. The second questionnaire was trialled with the researcher's colleagues to check the comprehensibility and interpretation of questions.

5.2.2   *Interviews*

5.2.2.1 *The Initial Interview*
The initial interview sought information about three main areas: the impact of the pre-course material on the trainees; their expectations of the course and their predictions of major learning that they personally would have to undergo; their current feelings about teaching. During the first days of the four-week course each participant was interviewed for approximately fifteen minutes, usually at the course venue but once or twice at a private home, and the interview was audio-recorded. A schedule of lead-in questions (see Appendix I) was followed for each interview but, depending on the individual participant's replies, whether or nor the researcher needed to follow up on any aspects of their questionnaire data, and availability of time, various pieces of information were followed up in more detail than others, with the result that some interviews were much longer than others.

5.2.2.2 *Final Group Interview*
At the end of each of the two courses all subjects on that particular course were asked to participate in a group interview which was audio-recorded. Each member of the group was given a copy of the lead-in questions (Appendix J) at least twenty-four hours before the interview. A group interview was chosen to give trainees the opportunity to share the burden of response but also to allow the exploration of different issues together in the

hope that this might lead to a deeper level of response. On the other hand, it did also allow at least one individual to not volunteer any information, something which was not foreseen. As this was the day before Moderation, there were both advantages and disadvantages with the timing. Since the trainees had completed all their required work and their folders containing all their work were with the Moderator, they were relieved of the constant pressure of the previous four weeks to prepare the next piece of work and, therefore, it could be hoped that they would be able to focus completely on the interview. The relief from the constant pressure did, however, with the second group produce a lethargic, anticlimactic atmosphere which, although a common reaction at the end of a course, was not conducive to gathering optimal data.

A very short individual interview was conducted after moderation with the first group but, due to time constraints, could not be arranged for the second group.

5.2.3 *Teaching Journals*

During the four weeks of the course all trainees had to keep a teaching journal, in which were recorded their observations on teaching videos and regular classroom lessons that they had observed, as well as lesson plans, personal reflectional comments and tutor comments on micro-teaching practice and classroom teaching practice. The researcher had access to these journals and was able to photocopy all relevant pages for future reference. The availability of such a wide range of data made it possible to identify at what stages of the course different factors became important. Body language, for example, which was commented on widely in the observation stage, especially because one of the video segments dealt specifically with this issue, was carried through by some trainees to the teaching stages but was not mentioned by the end of the course.

All reflective comments, whether they came after observations or teaching practice, were required to be the trainees' personal responses to situations. Parker (1991:148) points out that reflection is unlikely to take place if feedback occurs immediately after a lesson as "immediate feedback is a signal to the teacher that a complete product has been evaluated and a line drawn under it". Wallace (1991:54) agreed with this direction, commenting that "fruitful change is extremely difficult without reflection". Therefore, trainees were required to complete their reflective comments before discussing their lesson with the observer. Francis (1995) points to two other factors which may have an effect on the comments: trainees either resist such writing as taking up valuable time, which, in the present course seems to have resulted in some very short comments, or they are most concerned with giving the 'right answer' rather than what they really think.

When writing the reflective comments trainees followed a given format (Appendix F), which had the positive effect of guiding their comments, so that, during observations, they were thus freed from forming an opinion or evaluating the teacher (Wajnryb, 1991). This is similar to Maingay's (1988:121) view of observing as providing a scaffolding for trainees, which is gradually dismantled "so that the teacher can stand on their own". When trainees were carrying out self-evaluations, the purpose of the guide was to direct their thoughts to points which may have contributed to successful or problematic lessons. The observing tutors also followed a fairly set format (Appendix E) which ensured that they considered all the key elements of the trainees' performance, while the freedom to write appropriate comments allowed them to differentiate between trainees.

5.2.4 *Textbook evaluation*

During the four-week course, one of the tasks was to give an oral evaluation of a coursebook. Although Numrich (1996) points out that trainees do not have the necessary experience to choose a suitable text, the evaluations made by the trainees in this study showed, nonetheless, some aspects of their current beliefs. This session was under the control of the researcher, who took notes during that session to be used as additional data where appropriate.

5.2.5 *Stimulated recall*

Near the end of each course the researcher video-recorded a lesson by each participant, then used the video in a stimulated-recall session within twenty-four hours. The resulting stimulus-recall interview was audiotaped and later transcribed. Stimulated recall was chosen as being a particularly relevant method for "bringing to the surface and exploring some of the values and beliefs underpinning a teacher's instructional practices" (Murphy, 1994:17). As Nunan (1992a:94) explains,

> *Stimulated recall* is a technique in which the researcher records and transcribes parts of a lesson and then gets the teacher (and, where possible, the students) to comment on what was happening at the time that the teaching and learning took place. .... This technique of inviting the teacher to reflect on the lesson and comment on it in retrospect provides insights into aspects of teaching which would be difficult to obtain in any other way .... when used in assocation with other techniques the results can be both reliable and valid.

The marriage of the portable videorecorder and teacher skills training in approximately 1962 led to the use of self-confrontation in teacher training (McAleese, 1984). The use of videorecorded recall has been suggested by a number of researchers (eg Kagan, 1984; Marland, 1984) as a means of gaining richer data, because it gives access to human

thinking by providing a specific visual image of exactly what the subject is to discuss. This overcomes one of the major complaints about cues in other methods used to access information being too general and therefore giving related information, rather than that which was actually sought (Ericsson & Simon, 1980).

There have, however, been some reservations as to the acceptability of stimulated recall, such as the subjects' and/or students' reaction to the presence of a video camera and the reliability of the data on a number of grounds, as shown in Table 5.2.

Possible problem	Resolution
Fear of being videoed	Peers help to create good atmosphere
	Adjustment to presence of camera in peer teaching
	Use of unobtrusive camera
Worries about appearance Evaluation based on video	Trainees found it beneficial to see selves
	Several reassurances that this will not happen

Table 5.2   Possible problems regarding the use of videos and
                 their resolution

Firstly, there is the teacher's fear of being videoed, particularly so for nervous trainees as discussed by Cooper (1993), Day (1990) and Marland (1984). This can be overcome in several ways. In the present study trainees were videoed during peer teaching, which concurs with McAleese's (1984) suggestion that peers can help by creating a warm, socio-emotional climate during the training period. It also gives them experience with having a camera focused on them while they are teaching as well as later having "time to get to know their video selves" (Cooper, 1993:10). McAleese (1984) points out that the trainee "is experiencing a process of self-discovery" when seeing him/herself as a teacher, possibly for the first time if this is a raw trainee. Fuller and Manning (1973, cited in Calderhead, 1981) suggested that teachers viewing videotapes of their lessons can be distracted initially by seeing themselves and how they look on the screen. Shulman (1987:22), on the other hand, reported a far more positive reaction: "Debbie thanked me for videotaping. She said that it gave her confidence that she was on the right track". Trainees in the present study also made several comments as to the benefits, rather than the disadvantages, of being able to see how they looked in teacher mode during the peer teaching phase and did not mention the disadvantage of seeing themselves in raw footage rather than a nicely cut segment as seen in 'real' television (Cooper, 1993). This corresponds with McAleese's (1984) finding that, in general, trainees respond very favourably to self-confrontation, although he suggests that the "novel" approach may

cause this favourable experimental effect. When videoing the lesson to be used in the stimulated recall, a further attempt was made to negate any remaining fears of being videoed by utilising a micro-camera which was not overly intrusive. (A trial of the camera to be used was carried out during the course prior to the commencement of data collection.) Another fear, particularly for teacher trainees, is that the video footage will be used in their evaluation at the end of the course, so it is vital that they are reassured, as happened in the present study, (both orally and in writing), that this is completely divorced from any formal evaluation and that the results will be anonymously written up.

It has been suggested that there are several possible threats, such as inaccuracies due to time delays, the researcher's instructions or a desire on the part of the trainee to promote themselves well, to the validity of data when stimulated recall is used. The depth of possible feedback using stimulated recall is seen as being one of the greatest benefits of this technique, with Kagan (1984:93) reporting that if one is "shown the recording immediately afterwards, the person can recall detailed thoughts and feelings in depth". However, apart from Bloom's (1954) assertion (quoted in Marland, 1984) that the "ability to recall would probably decline significantly after 48 hours", which does not appear to be specifically related to stimulated recall, there appears to be no absolute time limit before which stimulated recall must take place. Nevertheless, all stimulated recall interviews in the present study took place within twenty-four hours of recording.

There is also a possible problem, particularly in a preparation course such as this, that the trainees have discussed the lesson with others and will not be completely honest about their personal reasons for making certain decisions. However, the researcher did not find evidence of this - in fact, if anything, trainees were rather frank about revealing, for example, that they had realised during a subsequent input lesson that they had planned incorrectly. During the stimulated recall interviews, then, the researcher kept in mind Marland's (1984:163) warning that the interviewer should "check frequently that the interviewee is differentiating between *a priori* thoughts and feelings, those experienced during the study session, and those subsequently experienced". In the final analysis, in any research there is room for incorrect reporting and it was decided to follow Calderhead's (1981:215) lead that "the extent to which retrospective reports of thoughts reflect real thoughts at the time may have to be taken largely on trust", although it is possible to watch for "internal consistency and the degree to which comments appear to match observed classroom practice".Had the comments been influenced by any of the tutors, it is likely that it would have shown up in other data on that lesson - either in the tutor's feedback or in the trainee's own self-evaluation.

Any interviewer's instructions to subjects must always be phrased with some care so that the subject will not be given hints of the direction that the researcher hopes that the interview will take, leading to what Mann (1982), quoting Kintz et al. (1965), identifies as the 'expectancy effect'. In the case of stimulated recall, Marland (1984:161) comments that "a simple general request to the interviewer such as that they report what was going on in their minds is now recommended". Consequently, the researcher followed this approach and other guidelines as suggested by Marland (1984:163), such as asking "questions that facilitate full disclosure" where it seemed that further explanation was necessary for richer data.

Trainees were asked to view the recording of their teaching with the researcher. During the viewing they were asked to talk about their thoughts as they were teaching. Although the trainees were encouraged to lead this session themselves, the interviewer would sometimes ask the reasons for them taking particular actions. While they were describing each particular thought or decision the tape was paused by the researcher, while the trainee explained their thoughts in as much depth as they wished, so that they could concentrate on the particular incident without fear of overload or contamination from following incidents. The interviews were audio-recorded and later transcribed for analysis.

Because of the frequent pauses demanded during stimulated recall, it takes approximately double the time to review a lesson as the length of the lesson itself, with the interview becoming less productive towards the end. This leads Marland (1984) to suggest that videos be limited to 30 minutes and the recall interview to one hour. In the current research it was difficult to unobtrusively stop recording during the lesson, but the length of the recall interview was limited by fast-forwarding through certain sections of lessons which the trainees identified as being of little interest. However, if either the researcher or the trainee saw anything during the fastforwarding that they particularly wanted to discuss, it was agreed that the tape would be stopped.

While a large amount of data was collected, the extent of the data differed between subjects. This was largely as a result of the differing amounts that were written. Some trainees were rather more succinct than others which suggested (perhaps somewhat unfairly) that some saw the reflective comments as an additional burden, which should be written up as quickly and as briefly as possible. Likewise, in the interview and stimulus recall situations, some trainees spoke in far greater volumes than others.

5.3 SUBJECTS

In this section an outline is presented of how subjects were selected. In addition, a brief description of various characteristics of the individual subjects is given, followed by a thumbnail sketch of each of the subjects. It was hoped that the characteristics might help to explain the trainees' responses to specific parts of the course.

5.3.1 *Selection*

The nine trainees who formed the subjects for the present study were completing either the May - June (first course) or the August (second course), 1997, Trinity Cert. TESOL course at International Pacific College, Palmerston North. The Course Director informed the researcher when new people had signed up for each course and the researcher then approached all prospective trainees through a letter. This letter (see Appendix K) explained the purpose of the research and the form that it would take. It reassured the prospective trainees that, although the researcher was one of the tutors for the Cert. TESOL course, their participation or non-participation in the research would have no effect on their results. It was felt that this letter met the first of Erickson's (1986) two basic ethical principles, that "those studied as focal research subjects, need to be as informed as possible of the purposes and activities of research that will occur, and of any burdens (additional work load) or risks that may be entailed for them by being studied" (p.141). No pressure was put on those who did not wish to take part.

The researcher felt that by approaching all prospective trainees, there could be no suggestion of a biased selection. Each course can (but does not always) contain a mix of trainees in terms of gender, age and prior experience. As it happened, there were more young, recent university graduates on the first course and more trained and experienced teachers on the second course, but this fairly reflects the unpredictable mix of trainees on the courses. The mix of subjects also gave the researcher the opportunity to consider whether any of the different aspects, such as prior teaching experience, appeared to have an influence on the trainees' development as ESL teachers and, if so, to what extent.

5.3.2 *Characteristics of Subjects*

Although the few studies that have been carried out on such short courses nearly always include as their subjects those who have already had experience of ESL teaching, this was not the case with the present study, save that one of the trained teachers was currently working in Shanghai at an English-medium pre-school institution and another had taught English 20 years earlier in a one-to-one situation in Europe. It could be argued, however, that the ESL instruction in those situations was somewhat different to the ESL instruction

they undertook during teaching practice in New Zealand and was therefore of no more advantage than the other teaching experience that some trainees had had. Consequently, it can be claimed that this study focuses primarily on trainees with no previous experience in teaching ESL, which is an important factor for this study.

Relevant characteristics of the subjects, including age, qualifications, previous teaching experience, contact with teachers, other work experience, languages learned and contact with other countries and people are summarised in Table 5.3. There were three male and six female subjects, ranging in age from 21 to 60 years of age, the males representing three of the four youngest subjects. Two of the males were on the first course and the other one was on the second course.

Only one of the trainees had never learned another language, but there was a great deal of variety among the others in the number of languages learned and the depth to which they had been both studied and used in real-life situations, as was also the case with overseas travel. Whereas some of the trainees had visited only English-speaking countries for short periods, others had lived in non-English-speaking countries for more extended periods and had learned what it was like to be compelled to communicate in a language other than their native tongue. A knowledge of other languages and their associated cultures was identified as an important strength by several subjects.

A number of the subjects brought various types of professional experience to the course. Three of them were trained primary or pre-school teachers, two of whom had had extensive experience and one of whom had taught for one term only, although she was also the only one to have EFL experience, having taught at language schools in Europe for eighteen months twenty years previously. A fourth subject had taught music both privately and in schools while another had taught special needs pre-school children for four years. A successful business background gave another trainee the confidence that, if she addressed her weaknesses, she could succeed as a teacher.

The anonymity of the subjects in this study is safeguarded by the designation of a letter to refer to them. Throughout the study they are referred to as trainees A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H and I. Trainees A, B, C and D participated in the Trinity Cert. TESOL course which took place over four weeks in May-June, 1997, and trainees E, F, G, H and I participated in the Trinity Cert. TESOL course which took place over four weeks in August, 1997.

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I
Age	21	21	47	22	22	46	51	60	44
Gender	M	M	F	F	M	F	F	F	F
Previous teaching	None	Music	None	None	None	18 mthTEFL	15 years	4 yrs SNeed	18 yrs
						3 mth Prim		2 mth HK	
Previous tutoring	School		None	a little	None				
Know teachers	None	Several	None	Several	Several	Several	Several	Several	Several
Ed qualifications	BA	(BMus)	None	BA	BA	MA Hons	BEd	Near BA	Dip Tchg
		Near BA		Postgrad	Postgrad		EDAD(2)	Early Child	
Other experience		Musician	Business				Clerk	Nurse	
Languages learned	Japanese	French	Hebrew	Maori	French	German	None	7	Chinese
	German		Turkish	Japanese	Spanish	French			Maori,
Years learning	8	2	1	2	3	12	None	5	3
Countries visited	Japan	Australia	various	Malaysia	Australia	Germany	UK, China	13	UK, USA
		Canada		Singapore		Italy,France	Canada		China
- holiday					√		√		
- meeting new people	√		√	√		√		√	√
- new experiences	√	√	√	√		√		√	√
- study	√	√							
- visiting friends			√	√		√			
- lived there	homestay	√	a little			√	√	√	√

Table 5.3   Characteristics of Subjects

5.3.3 *Why Study Cert TESOL?*

Table 5.4 shows the different reasons that each trainee undertook the Cert. TESOL course. It was compiled according to the responses that trainees gave to an open-ended question in the Personal Information Questionnaire, as detailed in section 5.2.1. One of the advantages of giving trainees a free response is that the researcher does not influence their response but the corresponding disadvantage is that the trainees may not have thought of some relevant points at the time of filling in the questionnaire. It would be expected that this would have no influence on the major points shown but there may have been more agreement on some of the minor points, had all points been available for choice. For example, *like meeting foreign people* is almost certain to have been chosen by nearly all trainees based on various comments that they made during the course, whereas only three actually mentioned it in the open-ended format.

As can be seen, a majority of trainees hoped to find a job overseas in the future. This has major implications for these short teacher preparation courses as the unpredictability of the type of work available in other countries means that "a precise match between all early teaching events during an initial course and the future working circumstances of each future teacher is then quite impossible" (Parker, 1991:151). As most of the older trainees were undertaking the course as retraining for a possible career change with the exception of Trainee I, for whom it was a type of self-imposed in-service training, it could be concluded that there was very strong instrumental motivation for these trainees.

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I
learn how to teach ESL	x			x	x				
get a job (qualification)	x			x					
be able to work overseas	x	x	x	x				x	x
was asked to teach English			x						
career change / retraining						x	x	x	
enjoyed teaching TEFL in past						x			
like meeting foreign people		x			x	x			
enjoy teaching (not Primary)						x			
want to do my job better									x
to improve own knowledge							x		

Table 5.4   Reasons for studying Cert. TESOL

5.3.4 *Individual Details*

Relevant details about each trainee are now presented.

Trainee A was a 21 year-old male who had recently finished a BA in History and Japanese. None of his family or close friends were teachers. His only previous teaching experience was two stints as a peer tutor - one when he was in Form 2, helping a younger student with reading, and the other in his final year at Secondary school, when he helped a younger student with Mathematics. He had studied the Japanese language with the aim of one day becoming an English teacher in Japan.

Trainee B was a 22 year-old male who had spent three years in Australia, where he both worked and completed two-thirds of a B.Mus. He then spent a year in Canada and studied French there before deciding to return to New Zealand, where he was studying French to complete a BA. He had taught music both in schools and privately since 1995. His main purpose in undertaking the Cert. TESOL course was to enable him to live in other countries for prolonged periods of time while doing something he enjoyed.

Trainee C was a 47 year-old female with a successful business background. She was the only trainee without a university education. Neither friends nor family had taught but she had been asked to teach English to people while travelling overseas. Her reason for doing this course was, then, to get the professional training necessary to teach English while continuing to indulge her passion for experiencing totally different cultures and living with the locals.

Trainee D was a 22 year-old female who had completed a BA in History and Education eighteen months earlier and had subsequently completed a Post-Graduate Diploma in Humanities (English). She knew several people who were teachers and had tried her hand at several different types of tutoring. While at university she had tutored a hearing-impaired student, in volunteer work with the Manawatu Museum she assisted school groups who were visiting the museum and, at the time of the course, she was a volunteer tutor for the Adult Learning and Reading Assistance organisation for whom she was tutoring an adult (native-speaker) with reading and spelling problems. She hoped to teach ESL either in New Zealand or overseas in the future.

Trainee E was a 22 year-old male who had a BA in English and Philosophy and had recently completed a Post-Graduate Diploma in Humanities in Classics. Although he, personally, had no teaching experience, several relations had been or still were teachers in various subject areas. Not only did he see the TESOL course as giving him a qualification

to teach ESL either in New Zealand or overseas, but he also saw it as a means to learning more about other cultures and people.

Trainee F was a 46 year-old female who had completed a Masters degree in French and German more than twenty years ago. After graduating, she travelled in Europe and taught EFL for a private TEFL company who gave her training on the spot for the very specific type of lessons they wanted taught. More recently she had completed the College of Education primary teacher training course, then taught new entrants for a term before deciding that this "was not her cup of tea" and looking for another type of teaching to get involved in. She felt that she had enjoyed the EFL teaching she had done 20 years earlier and also enjoyed meeting people from other cultures.

Trainee G was a 51 year-old female who had spent nearly 20 years in various sectors of the teaching fraternity from primary through secondary to Polytechnics. She had visited a number of other countries, working in Great Britain and Canada for some time and being a tourist in both China and India, all of which gave her valuable insights into other ways of living. She had learned no other languages which made her unsure of the value this had in teaching ESOL. She was confident about her own teaching ability and, on hearing about ESL teaching while in Australia, she felt that she could do it as well as those she knew who were already doing this type of teaching. It could be suggested, however, that her very experience in teaching made the actual four-week course a challenge for her, especially as the pre-course module had exposed her weakness in subject matter knowledge.

Trainee H was a 60 year-old female who had 25 years experience as a nurse as well as several years teaching special needs pre-schoolers. Although older than many of the other trainees, she shared with them the experience of having in recent years undertaken university study, by studying extra-murally for a number of years. During one of many sojourns overseas she taught 'Conversational English' at a tertiary school in Hong Kong for two months as an untrained native speaker, which awakened in her the desire to obtain the appropriate skills and qualifications to pursue this interest either in New Zealand or overseas. She had also learned the basics of a number of different languages including Mandarin and Arabic which utilised some different sounds and also had very different writing systems from English, which she felt would be beneficial when teaching ESL.

Trainee I was a 43 year-old female who had completed 10 years pre-school teaching and 8 years at secondary level and with adults. A number of family members were teachers. At the time of the course she was teaching in an English-medium pre-school centre in

Shanghai where she had spent ten months and was returning for another year. She had found this both fascinating and frustrating. She had met people of many different nationalities, but found the new culture quite a shock and was having difficulty in learning Putonghua, although she had previously learned some other languages for a while in New Zealand. She had been encouraged to do this course both to do her present job better and to increase her possibilities of gaining employment overseas in the future.

5.4   DATA ANALYSIS

The process followed during the data analysis phase is summarised in Figure 5.1.
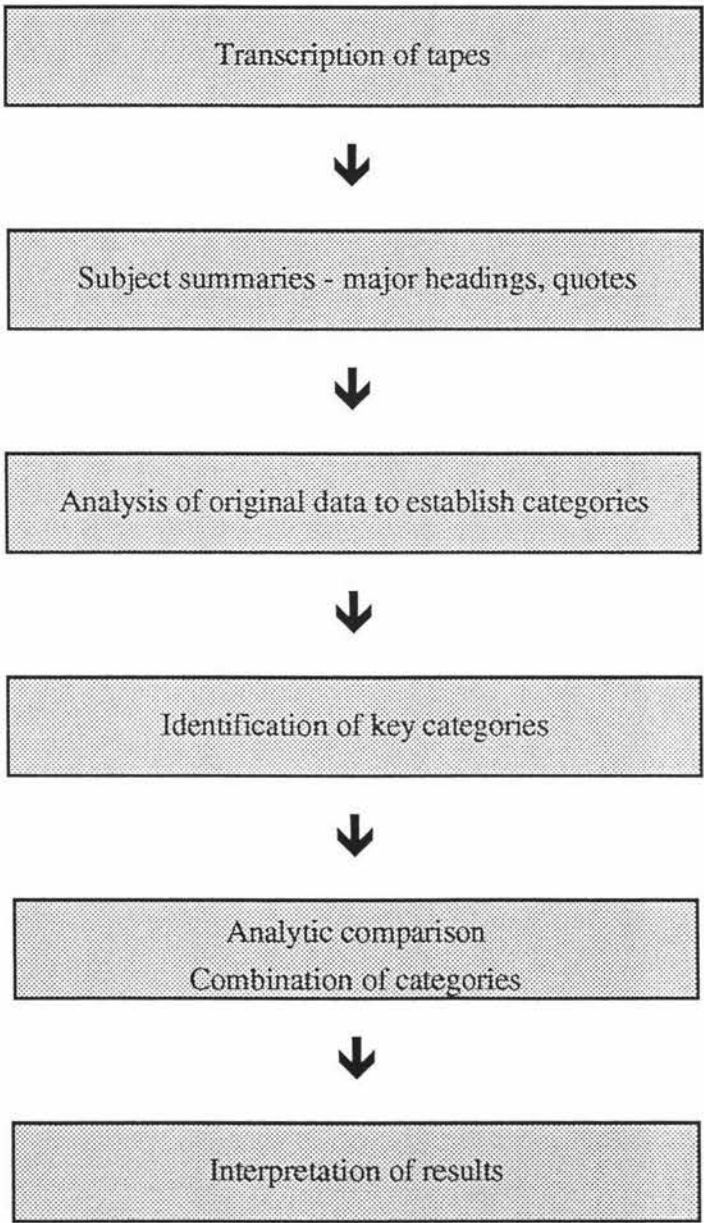
Figure 5.1 Data Analysis Procedure

Before data analysis could proceed, all interviews, including those from the stimulated recall sessions, were transcribed. All written data relevant to each subject was placed in a folder, roughly following a time sequence. A summary for each subject, including some preliminary categorisation but mainly identifying what seemed to be major quotes, was then written up in an attempt to produce a more easily accessible data source. This also proved to be invaluable at the writing-up stage because most of the evidence was gathered in one place. In addition, it reassured the researcher of the *adequacy* of the data (in this case measured in pages of typed data), which "refers to the amount of data collected, rather than to the number of subjects as in quantitative research" (Morse, 1994, quoted in Neuman, 1997:419).

The original data was then read as a whole, as suggested by Neuman (1997:421) so that it could be "organis(ed) ... into categories on the basis of themes, concepts or similar features". During this process two simultaneous activities were taking place: "mechanical data reduction and analytic categorization of data" (Neuman, 1997:422). It is suggested that the coding process can be broken into three separate steps, namely open coding, axial coding and selective coding (Strauss, 1987, cited in Neuman, 1997:422). These three steps are similar to the process known as successive approximation. In the initial *open coding* phase, at least, many of the categories, such as *lesson planning* or *materials*, were taken from the forms that the trainees and tutors filled in during practice teaching, while others, such as *confidence*, were suggested by words given by the subjects during interviews.

In the second coding phase, described as *axial coding* by Neuman (1997:423), some of the initial categories were combined and then all were quantified following Allwright and Bailey's (1991:67) recommendation that it is useful to "combine objective and subjective elements, (and) quantify only what can be usefully quantified". Brinton and Holten (1989:349) acknowledged that one of the limitations in their study was that "no attempt was made to assess the comments *qualitatively* ...... (so that) two comments on a given topic, regardless of their length, were counted equally, with no attempt to judge the varying quality of their content". In the present study, the data was quantified by not only counting the number of comments made but also showing the depth of the comment. This was felt to be particularly important given that both the trainees and tutors often filled out forms which forced them to comment about certain areas. If an area was more important to them, then their comment would be both more detailed and more complex. Therefore the numbers in all tables in the results are presented as a series with the first number representing the lowest depth of comment and the last number the highest, as is shown in Table 5.5.

A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I
8,3,1,1	11,2,1,0	15,2,0,1	13,2,1,0	2,3,2,0	1,0,2,0	8,0,1,0	3,2,0,0	7,4,0,0

Table 5.5   Explanation of data analysis

In the example in Table 5.5 four figures are shown for each trainee. The first figure represents the most shallow comments (ie 8, 11, 15, 13 etc) and the last figure represents the most detailed and complex comments (ie 1, 0, 1, 0). In this example, Trainee C's 1 at the highest level could be much more meaningful than the 15 at the lowest level because it is obviously something that she explained in great detail, suggesting that it was much more important to her. While it could be argued that there was some subjectivity as to the exact dividing line between one level and the next, there can be no doubt that even a slightly subjective measure is far superior to one that does not take into account such differences.

The quantitative coding was carried out for each subject at each data collection point, so that it could be seen whether, at a specific point during the course, there was an effect on a certain category, such that some factors dwindled or, conversely, grew in importance. This also showed what happened during a particular phase, such as observations or practice teaching, whether there was a carry-over from one phase to another and whether tutors tended to pick up the same issues, that is, whether there were areas where the subjects did or did not make progress.

Selective coding is seen as being the third of the three steps in coding. According to Neuman (1997:424)

> *selective coding* involves scanning data and previous codes. Researchers look selectively for cases that illustrate themes and make comparisons and contrasts.

It was at this stage of the current study that the researcher especially sought confirming or disconfirming evidence on several factors such as the difference between novice trainees and experienced teachers or the role that the goal-orientation of the subjects might be playing. Dependent on the amount of evidence available, some categories were dropped or combined with others. It was also decided to present all tables in their total format, rather than presenting each individual piece of data. Thus, whenever a figure for observations is given, this is the figure for all observations, whereas the comments were chosen to represent a specific piece of data, often pertaining to one observation only. The explanations then clarify any apparent difference that could be seen between the two.

The process of exploring the different factors that were playing a part in the results was one of analytic comparison. This necessitates using the method of agreement and the

method of difference, as originally developed by John Stuart Mill (Neuman, 1997:428). This method was particularly important when comparing the novice trainees with the experienced teachers, as it showed very clearly where the major similarities and differences lay.

The final step in the process was the division of the results into three major sets of constructs, as is shown in Section 6.1. Again, this was achieved by a type of analytic comparison in which the major categories that had emerged were re-examined to see where the points of agreement, in particular, lay. It became obvious that one group of results was largely present at the beginning of the course and this forms the first major set of constructs. The second two sets of constructs, although separated for the purpose of reporting the results, are closely intertwined but reveal some interesting differences between experienced teachers and novice trainees.

5.5 SUMMARY

The internationally-recognised initial ESL teacher preparation courses offered by RSA and Trinity, London, have been offered in increasing numbers during the past ten years. While they have specifically catered for the short-term practical preparation of ESL teachers, which was not offered by any other institutions, the extremely short time-frame of the course has raised questions about the extent to which the development of teaching beliefs is possible. Therefore, it was important to ascertain what actual development took place, starting from when the trainees first signed up for a course and following them throughout the course. An ethno-cognitive approach was deemed most suitable for the current study because it was set in specific surroundings and was primarily concerned with the cognitive development of the trainees.

A variety of means was used to gather appropriate data, to ensure that triangulation of data could be carried out, thus giving more validity to the research. It was believed that the stimulated recall of lessons would yield the greatest quantity of data on an area that has been recognised as fraught with difficulties as "belief does not lend itself easily to empirical investigation" (Pajares, 1992:308). Stimulated recall is also carried out in a manner which puts the trainee in the prime position, rather than merely answering predetermined questions. In fact, all of the interviews were expected to yield better quality data than the written sources because of the possibility of immediate verification and feedback. An important restriction on data collection was that, because of the severe limitations of time on the four-week courses, the researcher had to ensure that the trainees were not put under further stress by participating in the research.

CHAPTER SIX

RESULTS - PERSONAL CONSTRUCTS

6.1   INTRODUCTION

This is the first of three chapters dealing with the results of the current research. Although all three chapters deal with interacting factors, each can also be isolated for research purposes. Each chapter deals with a separate set of constructs (personal, planning and classroom) which accounts for the skills that the trainees were found to be developing in certain areas and their emerging overall beliefs about teaching.

During the course, trainees could be clearly seen to be developing microskills, such as how to use the board effectively or how to give instructions clearly. At the same time, they were developing teaching beliefs that guided their decision-making, such as when to correct students' errors or when to change their lesson plans. Because these beliefs were largely inside their minds, they were not so visible and neither were the various influences on the formation of those beliefs nor any changes taking place within them. In teacher preparation programmes, trainees are exposed to many different ideas, both theoretical and practical, according to which they form their own individual general beliefs about teaching. These beliefs can be broken down into different sets of *constructs*, which can be defined, in psychological terms, as "an object of perception or thought, formed by a combination of present with past sense-impressions" (The Oxford English Dictionary, Vol III). Because of the combination of past and present factors, no two trainees develop identical beliefs, but these beliefs can all be categorised into similar sets of constructs. The term *construct* is also used by MacLeod and McIntyre (1977), cited in Wallace (1991:94), to describe "certain basic but powerful ideas which teachers relate their teaching behaviour to". During the teacher preparation process, various skills and beliefs can be seen to emerge as the trainees form their own individual ideas on which to base their teaching behaviour, in response to a combination of input and teaching practice during the course and prior experience which they bring with them.

Figure 6.1 shows that the many beliefs that teachers develop can be organised in to different sets of constructs, which, in this study, are represented by a set of personal constructs, a set of planning constructs and a set of classroom constructs. Each construct

is, in turn, broken down into individual components, namely subject matter knowledge, role models and confidence for the personal set of constructs. The set of classroom constructs includes, as components, many of the individually observable microskills, such as how to use classroom aids, which are both necessary for successful teaching as well as being highly visible, and are therefore focused on quite overtly in most short courses.
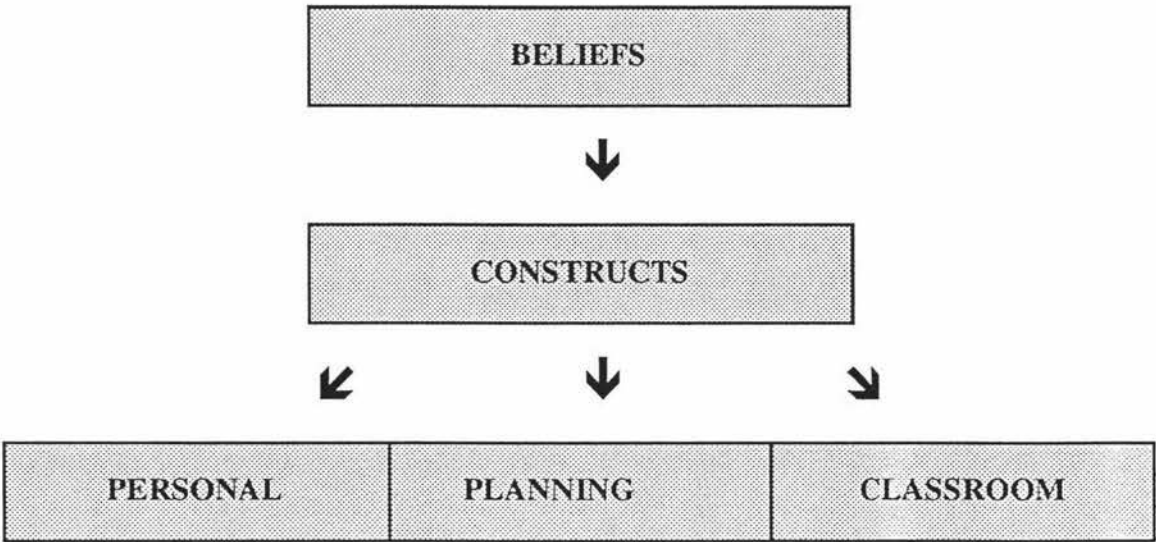
Figure 6.1   Relationship between beliefs and constructs

As shown in Table 6.1, this chapter deals with the personal constructs of teacher role models, confidence and subject matter knowledge, which are largely factors present as the on-campus course commenced. However, as is described in this chapter, subject matter knowledge underwent a great deal of development during the pre-course module for most of the trainees, so that the emphasis on the four-week course was on the refinement of this factor for classroom teaching. Therefore, the development of this component, in particular, is traced back through the initial interviews to what happened during the distance learning modules, and is then followed through its application in practice teaching when subject matter knowledge must be converted into what Shulman (1986b) terms *pedagogical content knowledge*.

PERSONAL CONSTRUCTS		
Subject Matter Knowledge	Role Models	Confidence

Table 6.1   Components of personal constructs

6.2   TEACHER ROLE MODELS

A recurrent theme in literature on teacher education is on variations of Lortie's (1975) "apprenticeship of observation", whereby a student teacher is estimated to have spent at least one thousand hours observing teachers before s/he commences the teacher preparation process.

6.2.1   *Role models identified by trainees*

All of the subjects in this study were asked in the initial questionnaire to give details of a teacher (or teachers) that they remembered well and reasons for remembering them. As this was an open-ended question (to avoid researcher influence), there were many, varied responses which were difficult to tabulate. Trainees were not specifically asked whether the teachers identified were male or female, or what subject they taught and at what level, although in many cases this information was given incidentally. It cannot be assumed that, because one of the subjects did not list an attribute such as patience or being an excellent teacher, they did not feel that way about the particular teacher, but rather that it was not the first factor to come to mind. One trainee revealed in an early interview that he was already realising that his initial concepts might be deficient, when he mentioned that he had thought "it was only going to be a group of one nationality with me at the front of the room".

Table 6.2 summarises the information given about the teachers that trainees specifically remembered. An attempt was made, where more than one teacher was mentioned, to separate out the information about each individual teacher. Therefore, where 'x' is given in the table, it refers to the first teacher, ø to the second and ≈ to the third. It was interesting to find that not even half of the teachers identified were language teachers, let alone ESL teachers, and reasons for remembering them were often personal characteristics, such as whether they were friendly or patient rather than their teaching styles or abilities. As there was an almost equal number of male and female role models cited, it would suggest that gender alone is not an important issue. Whereas most role models were positive, suggesting that this was someone to emulate, there was also one very negative one.

At the beginning of the course trainees gave quite widely varying reasons as to why they would be a good ESL teacher, the most agreement coming on the assertion that they got on well with people. In fact, when a comparison was made between the trainees' stated reasons about why they would make a good teacher with either the teacher(s) that they remembered or what they thought were the attributes of a good teacher, there was surprisingly little congruence.

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I
male		x ø	ø	x	ø	x	x		x
female	x		x			un	ø	x	un (2)
subject	Jap	Music		Eng		French	Primary P	French	6/7For
subject (2)		ø Hist	ø Geog		ø Class	ø Russ	ø Maths P	ø Eng	ø PE
subject (3)									≈ Bio
Experience	x	x ø							
cared about students, friendly	x	x		x				ø	≈ x
varied, creative & energetic				x		x		≈	
fun classes	x	ø		x					
gentle, determined, calm, patient			x ø						x ≈
makes students want to learn			x			ø	x	ø	ø x
strong discipline						ø			
praise, anger, humour		ø			ø			ø	
excellent /bad teacher					ø	ø x	ø		
Accent, clothes, appearance								x ø	

Table 6.2   Characteristics of teachers identified as role models

6.2.2 *The associate teacher as role model*

As Berliner (1987) suggests, several of the trainees identified very strongly with at least one of their co-operating teachers, seeing them as a strong role model, which they were perhaps lacking at the beginning of the course. This may also have led to criticism of others who did not measure up. Trainee C stated at the beginning of the course, "I will learn by watching other teachers, especially experienced teachers, to see what they do". At the end of the course that same trainee spoke in glowing terms of one of her associates, noting that she was extremely organised, had everything written down and constantly referred to her notes. However, she also advocated observing several teachers because "you need a balance, so you see how you don't want to be and it gives you something to aim for". It should be noted that, at the same time that this gave her a good role model, she also felt that it influenced her own teaching because "I felt that I had to produce a good lesson". One of the other trainees, Trainee B, concurred with these thoughts, taking them even further as he agreed that

> "it helps with good models - you aspire to that, but with bad models you feel that maybe this is what I could get away with... I always found if I saw a good teacher I was quite inspired and wanted to teach myself - I thought, 'This occupation could be for me, it's really enjoyable', whereas if I saw a bad teacher, I came away thinking, 'This is kind of depressing if you have to teach like this' - it didn't really inspire me at all".

Trainee A showed the effect that associate teachers could have on a trainee's confidence, when he commented after an observation, "This is a boring lesson. I can do much better than this. And I actually went in there with that confidence - she gave me that confidence". He later revealed, however, "If I had seen a really good teacher to start with, I might not have been so confident".

6.2.3 *The importance of language learning*

Table 6.3 shows why trainees thought that it was important for an ESL teacher to have learned a language. Again this data was obtained by means of an open-ended question, so it cannot be assumed, for example, that all trainees did not think that they would use ideas from their own language learning, but rather that they may have felt that other factors were more important. All those who had learned a language pointed out that it made them aware of the difficulties and frustrations that face language learners. Some had gained ideas for activities and techniques as well as experiencing some differences in grammar and pronunciation. It was very obvious that the one trainee who had never learned another language was the only one who was not sure if having learned another language would be an advantage.

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I
aware of difficulties & frustration	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x
use ideas from own learning	x	x	x						
have activities ideas already	x								
might help communication	x								
help relate to students			x	x	x				x
not sure							x		
aware of pronunciation								x	
different grammar rules								x	
know some lang tchg techniques		x	x					x	

Table 6.3   Why trainees thought language learning was important

It may be important to consider whether the length of time spent in language learning, the intensity of that experience or living in a non-English-speaking country has any effect on the development of beliefs about ESL teaching. Table 6.4 shows that, although nearly all of the trainees had learned another language at some time, only a third had learned for more than three years. Yet, this may not be a really valid comparison since three of those who had learned languages for a shorter time had actually learned them in the country as a second rather than a foreign language, and therefore had experienced what it was like to be completely surrounded by the new language.

Trainee	Language	Time	Language	Time	Lived in	Time
A	Japanese	8 yrs	German	1 yr	Japan	4 weeks
B	French	1 yr			Fr Canada	1 yr
C	Hebrew	3 mths	Turkish	5 mths	Turkey	6 mths
D	Maori	6 mths	Japanese	3 mths		
E	French	3 yrs	Spanish	3 mths		
F	German	10 yrs	French	12 yrs	Germany	6 mths
G	None					
H	French	5 yrs	Mandarin	2 yrs	Hong Kong	2 yrs
I	French	3 yrs	Mandarin	1 yr	China	1yr

Table 6.4   Trainees' language learning and overseas experience

6.3 CONFIDENCE

For nearly all trainees, confidence (or lack of it) was an issue at the beginning of the course. Table 6.5 indicates both the number and depth of comments for each trainee. Although the actual number of comments was not great, this subject was discussed at some length by the first group of trainees during their final group interview.

Trainee	Initial	Teaching	Tutors	Final
A	2,1,0,0	1,2,0,0		4,0,0,1
B	2,1,0,0	1,0,0,0	1,0,0,0	3,2,0,0
C	0,1,0,0	1,0,0,0	1,0,0,0	0,2,1,0
D	0,2,0,0	1,0,0,0	1,0,0,0	0,1,1,0
E	1,0,0,0			1,0,0,0
F	4,0,0,0			0,1,0,0
G	2,0,0,0		1,0,0,0	1,0,0,0
H	2,0,0,0			
I				

Table 6.5 Trainees' confidence

The trainees could be divided into three groups - those who were confident about teaching for several reasons, those who were distinctly unconfident, and those who felt that they had some reasons for confidence but were not sure if they would be sufficient. These reasons are summarised in Table 6.6 below.

Confident	Unconfident
Successful life experience	Uncertain of success
Experienced teacher in other areas	In teaching English (but has taught other)
Used to speaking to groups	Anxious about being in front of groups
Completed confidence course	Various fears
Seeing bad teaching	Can't be as good as associate

Table 6.6   Reasons for confidence or lack of it

Confidence, for several trainees, came from the knowledge that they were trained teachers and, once they had gained control over the subject matter, they felt that that experience would carry them through. Others were confident in one area but not so sure

about whether they would be able to teach English. Trainee B explained, "I am quite confident in teaching music but English is a wee bit more complex". Trainee C's experience in other areas of life gave her the feeling that, if she worked at her weaknesses, there was no reason why she shouldn't succeed:

> "I'm feeling quite good about it - quietly so .... I'm quietly confident but not stupid. This comes from my experiences in the past - it doesn't daunt me to get up and make a speech in front of others".

The necessity to stand in front of a class definitely worried several of the trainees. As Trainee A commented, "My confidence in front of a classroom is something I have been worrying about for quite a long time now ..... am I going to be able to communicate my knowledge with them effectively?" Trainee D was even more worried about "overcoming her nervousness and gaining self-confidence" as she wasn't "confident at public speaking". However, she felt that she "could deal with individuals easily because it is more relaxed and informal but the classroom seems more formal and threatening". It is probable that her lack of nervousness with individuals could be attributed to her experience of one-to-one tutoring.

6.3.1 *Confidence during practice teaching*

During practice teaching, although confidence or the lack of it was obviously important, trainees often concentrated on other issues as is seen by the paucity of comments. Trainees were most worried about whether their lessons were successful and the worrying tended to erode their confidence. Their main reasons for worry were:

- Lasting out lesson
- Not getting too nervous
- Getting point across
- Meeting expectations

A typical early comment, which concurs with the literature on student teaching, was Trainee A's, "I lasted it out". For one of the trainees in particular, nerves got the better of her and affected various aspects of her teaching. After her first peer teaching session, Trainee D wrote: "Next time I would try not to get nervous beforehand. I don't think I was very effective at getting my point across". Such a lack of confidence also meant that she had difficulty seeing herself as an expert:

> "I've never been in the situation before where I have more knowledge than they have and ... the first time I got up in the classroom and I had all these eyes looking at me expectantly, as if I was supposed to impart some pearls of wisdom, I just thought, 'I hope I can fulfil what they expect of me'. I suppose it's doubts in my ability to impart the knowledge - how well can I get across what I know to these people - will I be effective?"

Making mistakes would be expected to dash a trainee's confidence but these trainees dealt with them in various ways, such as:

- seeing positive aspects in making a mistake
- blaming themselves for not preventing a mistake
- minimising the mistake

Trainee C almost relished the fact that she had made a mistake and proved to herself that she could survive it.

> "I'm pleased that a glitch appeared and I'm happy with the way I handled it. This is positive and a valuable experience - how to get out of trouble if and when necessary."

Others castigated themselves for allowing this to happen (as when Trainee A wrote, "Although I corrected my mistake well, it should not have needed to happen"), while others consoled themselves with the thought that it was not a major mistake:

> "This is the mistake part. I just didn't think about it. But it didn't really bother me that I made a mistake - it wasn't as if I got the whole grammar point wrong" (Trainee D).

6.3.2 *Did confidence develop during the course?*

At the end of the course, most of the inexperienced trainees still had some doubts whereas those who had taught classes in schools previously were much more confident. Problems for the less experienced were related to their own ability to stand in front of a class and dispense knowledge, partly because in the few practice teaching sessions, they really didn't get to know the class well enough. Trainee B revealed:

> "I am still self-conscious in front of the class - you've really got to lose that, but that's difficult. .... I was always aware that I was a practice teacher .... It's just being the centre of attention - you've got all this stuff in your mind and the lesson plan's still not 100% sure, so it's hard to relax and be yourself".

Others were aware of the progress that they had made, but realised that they needed further experience to add to their confidence. Trainee D put it like this:

> "While I'm finding it easier to get up in front of a group to speak and I have started thinking more about instructions and my speed of speech and choice of words, there's still a lot of room for a lot of improvement - I still feel like I'm the novice. I wasn't expecting instantaneous progress .... it's given me the taste and what I do with it from here is up to me. Right now I just want to get a job to get some experience .... If I felt more confident of my own ability, it would make life a lot easier".

However, there were a few inexperienced trainees who really felt quite confident at the end of the course. This was partly because they felt that, during the course, they had learned what they were lacking in. As a result Trainee C reported,

> "I'm confident that as a teacher I am only going to get better. Where I go, they're going to be lucky to get me, too."

Trainee A even went so far as to tell the other group members, "I always had confidence in myself that I was going to be good", which is very reminiscent of Johnson's (1994) finding that preservice teachers are very optimistic. He continued:

> "My confidence was on a high when I went into the classroom ... Teaching was the easiest part - it was relaxing to get in there and get feedback from the students .... I was so active and enjoying it".

6.4   SUBJECT MATTER KNOWLEDGE

Table 6.7 shows the number and depth of comments trainees made pertaining to subject matter knowledge at the beginning of the four-week course, while carrying out teaching practice and at the end of the course. There is also an indication of the number of comments that tutors made to the trainees, usually in written feedback following their teaching practice. Initially, trainees' comments focused on language awareness matters but, as they began practice teaching, the focus changed to pedagogical awareness. While the experienced teachers had no advantage over the inexperienced trainees in this area, they did seem more likely to be aware of the necessity for a thorough knowledge of a point before teaching it.

Trainee	Initial	Teaching	Tutors	Final
A		1,1,0,0,0	3,0,1,0,0	1,1,0,0,0
B	1,0,1,0,0	3,0,0,0,0	1,0,0,0,0	
C	0,0,0,1,0	3,0,0,0,0	0,1,0,0,0	
D	1,1,0,0,0	4,1,0,0,0	0,2,0,0,0	
E	2,1,0,0,0	1,0,0,1,1	4,0,0,0,0	
F	2,0,0,0,0	4,1,0,0,0	2,0,0,0,0	
G	0,0,2,0,0	1,0,0,1,0	1,1,0,0,0	1,1,0,0,0
H	2,2,0,0,0	0,1,0,0,0		
I	2,1,0,1,0	1,0,1,0,0	1,0,0,0,0	

Table 6.7 Trainees' comments on subject matter knowledge

6.4.1 *Pre-course knowledge of English grammar*

At the time of applying for the Trinity Cert. TESOL course, unless trainees have undertaken a course in linguistics or have already tried to teach English, they are unlikely to have an appreciation of the intricacies of the English grammatical system. As Bolitho (1988:72) reported:

> More and more initial trainees are arriving on courses without even a basic working knowledge of the systems of their own language.

Indeed, some of the trainees in the present study seemed blissfully unaware that teaching English would involve explaining English grammar. It is this very lack of awareness that has led to a major section of the pre-course work being based on language awareness, which for ESL trainees constitutes essential subject matter knowledge. Therefore, it is no surprise that Table 6.7 shows that most of the trainees discussed subject matter knowledge in some way, but at different depths, in the interview at the beginning of the course.

The most naive view came from Trainee D, who wrote in a self-report at the time of applying for the Cert. TESOL course, "My grammar usage is of a high standard". At the beginning of the four-week component, after she had completed the distance learning modules, she had to admit, "I didn't realise how many tenses there were - I only had a basic knowledge". The major difference between her and the other trainees was that she appeared to have given no thought at this stage to the fact that, not only did she need to come to terms with this knowledge but that she would also have to impart it to others. On the other hand, Trainee E, an English literature major, acknowledged his weaknesses but showed that he was far more prepared: "I know a reasonable bit about the English language itself, but there are lots of challenging things to learn with regard to the grammar". He then proceeded to discuss the complications of the grammar and finished up by saying, "I can understand it, but actually convincing a foreign learner how to understand it - I'm not too confident about that yet". It would seem that he has reached what Bolitho considers to be the minimum standard before joining the teaching profession.

> By the end of the course they must at least know how to look up grammar points when confronted with problems during lesson preparation (1988: 72).

The growth of personal subject matter knowledge, during the distance learning component, can be summarised in the following diagram (Figure 6.2), which shows the input through the distance learning modules, the application of that input to complete the exercises that they submit and the resultant feedback from the course tutor, which again augments their knowledge.
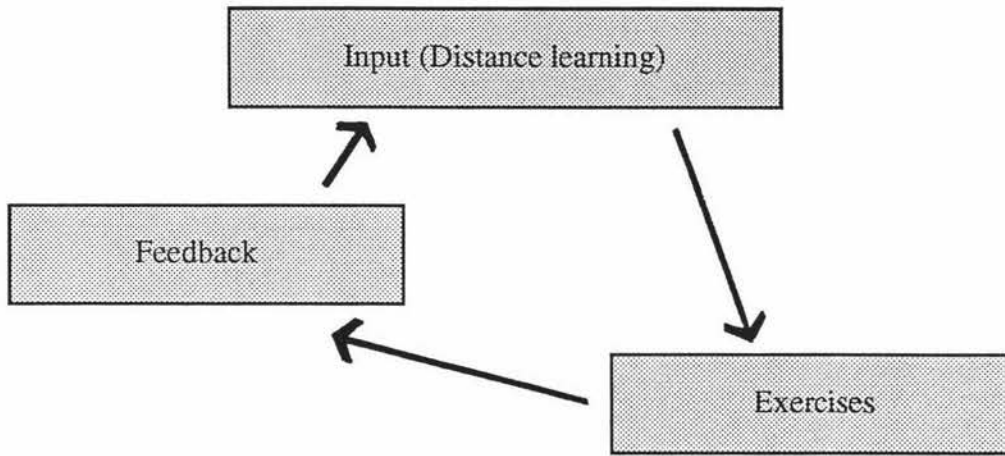
Figure 6.2   The process of subject matter knowledge growth

6.4.2   *Identification of personal weaknesses*

The two most experienced teachers in this study were very open in discussing their struggles with the necessary subject matter knowledge, but were equally strong in their belief that, without this knowledge, they could not expect to teach ESL. For example, Trainee G explained that in the pre-course,

> "I extended my knowledge in areas where I lacked knowledge especially phonology, tenses and verbs ... I know I need to get a grasp on subject knowledge to teach it and when I have an inadequate grasp of subject knowledge, I am an inadequate teacher".

Her sentiments were echoed by the other experienced trained teacher, Trainee I, who, while appearing to be even more critical of her own lack of knowledge, was also quite clear about what she had to do.

> "I definitely need to learn more grammar. .... I haven't got a clue about tenses, perfects and things. If I'm teaching a grammatical point I need to know in my own mind that I do actually know what it is myself, but if I'm asked a question coming in from a different angle, that I'm able to think, 'Yes, it's such and such, not, Oh no, I don't know.' I'll have to spend a lot of time if I'm teaching something specifically learning it myself, so I can recognise it myself - is this that part of speech or not?"

In fact, it seems that their previous teaching experience has taught them that you cannot bluff your way through classes if you do not have the necessary subject matter knowledge.

It must be pointed out, however, that awareness of the importance of knowing something thoroughly before teaching it did not come exclusively from the experienced teachers. Trainee C, an experienced business woman, was quite convinced that,

"If you're going to talk about a particular grammar point, then you must learn as much as you can about it prior to presenting it, so you can answer questions".

It could, therefore, be suggested that experience has taught her the necessity of understanding matters thoroughly before presenting them to other people. In addition, she, alone, expressed a personal fascination with the subject, akin to integrative as opposed to instrumental motivation,

"The more you know, the more you want to know..... The more you learn, the more you know you have to learn. The more you know, the more you know you have to know".

6.4.3 *Subject matter knowledge and classroom teaching*

During the face-to-face teaching components of the on-campus course, another cyclical process could be seen to be taking place. The cycle was comprised of input from the course tutors, followed by tasks which showed how well the trainees were coping with that input and the feedback that they received from the tutors as to how well they had carried out the tasks. This process is shown in diagrammatic form in Figure 6.3.
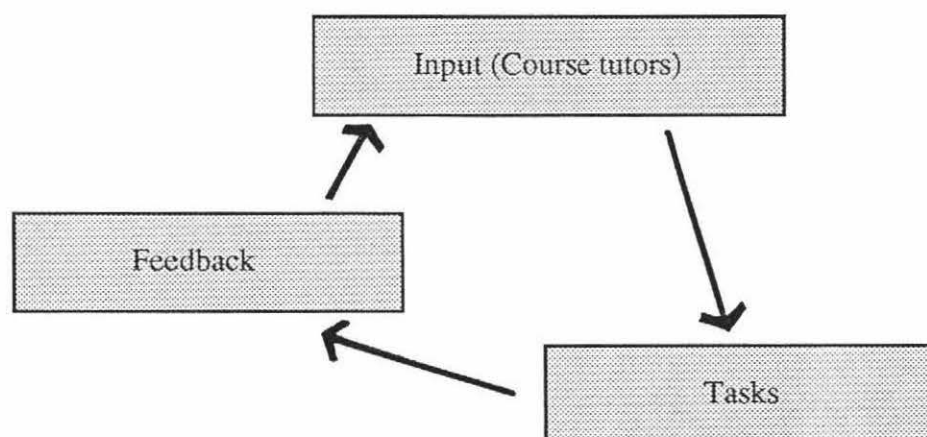
Figure 6.3   In-course subject matter development

In the early stages of the on-campus course, the trainees had a number of sessions entitled *Language Awareness,* during which they both revised their subject matter knowledge and began to learn methods to explain the subject matter knowledge to students and devise activities that would ensure that understanding. In other words they had to begin to develop what Shulman (1986b) terms *pedagogical content knowledge.* Not surprisingly, therefore, once the trainees began peer or classroom teaching, there were several different aspects to their comments about subject matter knowledge. The major difficulties they encountered, which are summarised in Table 6.8, could be

divided into problems explaining a particular piece of subject matter knowledge, dealing with questions from students, and what to do when students did not carry out tasks in the expected manner. The extent to which they could deal successfully with those problems was often intertwined with the depth of their planning and their ability to predict what might happen during the lesson.

Problem	Solution Suggested by Trainee
Inadequate subject matter knowledge	Pre-course material on language awareness Thorough preparation for lessons, especially reading up grammar books and preparing explanations Discussion with tutors, other trainees
Explaining grammar points	Thorough preparation for lessons, especially reading up grammar books and preparing explanations Trying out explanations in peer teaching Discussion with tutors, other trainees Learning how to simplify grammar points
Answering questions	Keep cool, think carefully before answering Prepare thoroughly, have a grammar book in your bag Promise an answer the next day and swot up overnight
Students not practising what trainee intended	Not sure what to do because it was grammatically correct

Table 6.8   Problems encountered and trainees' solutions

During the peer teaching phase trainees, especially the inexperienced ones, could be seen to be trying out their explanations of subject matter. It seemed that trainees had the comfort of knowing that this was a controlled environment and that the consequences were not too extreme if things went awry. Trainee I explained after an early peer teaching session,

> "I had deliberately picked that tense because I don't really understand it and I thought the preparation and presenting might help clarify it - it hasn't! However, a good group discussion ensued as we all tried to work out the logic! I wouldn't teach that tense to students unless I was sure about it".

There were also instances when trainees identified more precisely their difficulties with subject matter knowledge. Trainee H decided, "I need to actually know my topic better myself. Being still a little shaky on all the uses of the tense it was quite hard to keep it simple". One of those who felt most threatened by the intricacies of English grammar reported, "I felt partially in control with the grammar. I was glad that I'd tried the tenses".

Several solutions were suggested for the unanticipated questions which could arise during class. If the trainee could keep their cool and think carefully, they could follow the example of Trainee E:

> "With a couple of the questions at the end, I had to talk my way into what the answer was - I didn't know the answer straight away, so I talked, reminded myself until I got the answer rather than just standing there for a couple of minutes".

Some trainees prepared differently. Trainee A, for example, consulted a number of grammar books to make sure that he had the rules right, but also reported that, "I had a grammar book in my bag in case anything tricky came up". Trainee C recalled a trick that was suggested by a tutor on the course.

> "You should put a difficult question on the board and say, 'We'll learn about those things tomorrow'. Then you go home and learn all about it. It is quite good not saying, 'I don't know'".

Sometimes students did something unexpected, which left the trainee feeling a little confused about what to do or say. As Trainee B reported,

> "It actually sounded right using the passive, so I really couldn't fault it, but I thought, this isn't actually using the structure I have given them".

This incident is a rather interesting combination of many facets of classroom teaching occurring together which makes it very difficult for a trainee to know what to do. As the trainee has reported, from a grammatical point of view the students were not making errors. He must, therefore, explain to them why it is important for them to practise in the way that he intended while, at the same time, he is aware that they are communicating just as effectively and just as correctly using another construction. It could be suggested that, in this instance, his knowledge of subject matter is making it more difficult because he is aware that both constructions are equally valid, yet he must justify the reason for them to practise one rather than the other.

The subject matter and pedagogical content knowledge features of the teaching practice phase can be summed up in Figure 6.4. Again, this can be seen as having a cyclical

nature, with each point leading on to the next and the last point giving direction to the starting point for the next session of practice teaching.
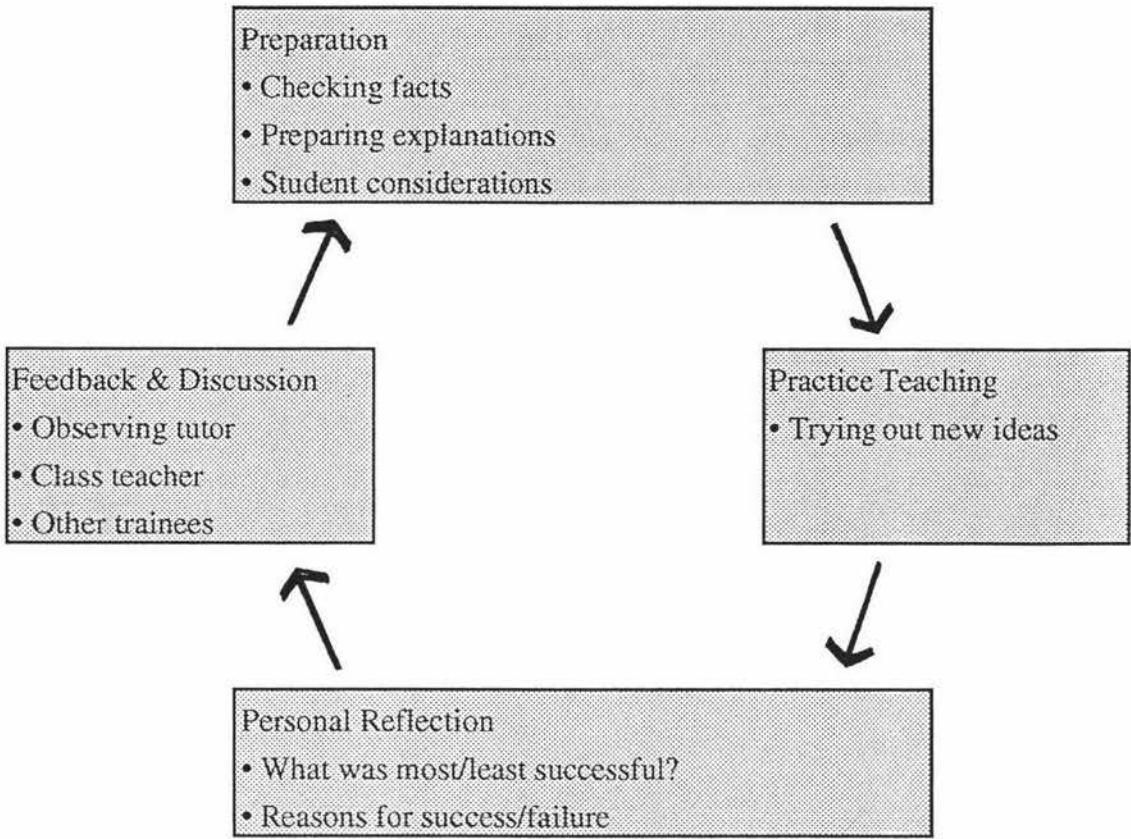
Figure 6.4   Subject matter/pedagogical content knowledge development cycle

6.4.4   *Tutors' observations*

Comments made by tutors who observed trainees during their teaching practice confirm that most of the trainees were coming to grips with the subject matter knowledge and, in some cases, had dealt quite successfully with some rather persistently difficult questioning from students. Not surprisingly, there were some instances when the trainee suddenly realised that what they were saying was not quite right, but usually they managed to extricate themselves from the situation. In most cases, in fact, the trainees were rather more critical of their slips than the tutors were, feeling that they had let themselves down through incomplete preparation, bad proofreading or allowing themselves to be distracted by something else.

6.4.5   *Final position*

By the end of the course, only two trainees could be said not to have found solutions for gaps in their subject matter knowledge. While others were explaining how they had

approached the task of augmenting their knowledge of grammar points before teaching, Trainee D seemed to explain reasons for her lack of knowledge: "I suppose I haven't really practised for very long ... Sometimes you've got into the habit of saying incorrect things" and occasionally betrayed a lack of depth in her preparation:

> "They asked me whether 'though, even though, although', they could use them in the same way and I thought about it, I suppose you could really".

It is interesting to note that this same trainee was the only one who neglected to mention grammar at all when completing the coursebook evaluation task.

Most other trainees were in a similar position to Trainee I who reported, "I was able to answer questions on grammar that I wouldn't have been able to answer four weeks ago", or Trainee G who said,

> "I gained more confidence in grammatical devices. I gained knowledge of what they are, what to do with them and how to teach them".

These are the two experienced teachers, who at the beginning of the course, acknowledged their weakness in the area of subject matter knowledge. Trainee A showed how the confidence engendered in him by his personal growth in subject matter knowledge would help him in the future.

> "I'm learning a lot of grammar. I'm learning how to explain that grammar which is the best thing, so I'll be confident when I'm in the classroom that I know what I'm talking about and I'll know some of the exceptions and I can deal with that."

6.5   SUMMARY

This chapter began by introducing the overall results and the framework within which those results were to be discussed. Trainees were described as developing interrelated general beliefs about teaching, which could be divided into three sets of constructs, each of which is further broken down into individual components.

The personal constructs which the trainees were found to be working within were examined in the light of their teacher role models, confidence and subject matter knowledge. The differences in individual teacher role models that were suggested were not as surprising as the general lack of congruence between role models, the trainees' descriptions of a good teacher and the reasons why they personally would make a good ESL teacher. Of additional interest was the role that previous language learning could play for an ESL teacher. An implication, for the short courses especially, is that trainees could be encouraged to consider what they know about teaching languages before arriving to do the four-week campus course. In addition, they could be strongly

recommended, if not obliged, to observe some ESL classrooms so that they arrive to do the course knowing exactly what they are aiming for. This is discussed further in section 10.3.

The development of confidence was found to be more important for the inexperienced trainees than for those who had already taught in schools, although the new subject area was of some concern for the latter. Even among the inexperienced, there were individual differences in the level of confidence which persisted until the end of the course, although all trainees had developed to some extent.

Subject matter knowledge development was traced through the distance learning modules to the end of the four-week on-campus course. An analysis was carried out into the problems regarding subject matter knowledge that trainees experienced during practice teaching and the solutions that they found for those problems. Trainees were found to have developed significantly, although some still needed to develop further, as was shown in the final section of the chapter.

CHAPTER SEVEN

RESULTS - PLANNING CONSTRUCTS

Results presented in chapters seven and eight are closely interwoven as one deals with planning before classroom teaching while the other deals with the actual classroom procedures. Therefore, although one precedes the other, they are interwoven as a cyclical occurrence in which the effect of one is felt on the other and vice-versa. Trainees were helped to separate the two by their self-evaluation sheets, which demanded that they comment specifically on the quality of their planning and what they would change if they were to teach that lesson again. Sometimes, in fact, they did have the chance to teach the same lesson twice, but to different groups of learners, which they found brought another factor into the equation. Planning constructs, as described in this chapter, comprises three main components, namely lesson planning, timing and materials as shown in Table 7.1.

PLANNING CONSTRUCTS		
Lesson Planning	Materials	Timing

Table 7.1   Components of planning constructs

7.1   LESSON PLANNING

One of the aspects of teaching identified as being important to learn at the beginning of the course, especially by the more inexperienced trainees, was that of how to plan lessons. In fact, this is also reinforced during the course by the requirement that trainees produce a detailed lesson plan before each lesson, a copy of which is to be given to the observer. Although the experienced teachers could be expected to be at an advantage in at least some aspects of lesson planning, this study would suggest that it is not impossible for inexperienced trainees to make up that difference in a relatively short length of time. There are, however, considerable individual differences in the progress that different trainees make.

Trainee	Initial	Teaching	Tutors	Final
A	3,0,0,0	17,8,0,2	4,1,0,0	1,5,0,0
B	2,1,0,0	14,1,0,0	1,1,0,0	3,1,2,1
C	3,0,0,0	6,1,0,0	2,3,0,0	
D	0,0,1,0	6,3,0,0	2,1,0,0	
E	0,0,1,0	10,2,0,0	1,1,0,0	0,0,1,0
F		5,1,0,0	3,0,0,0	1,0,0,0
G		10,0,0,0		0,0,1,0
H		16, 3,1,0	3,1,0,0	
I	0,0,1,0	6,3,0,0	0,2,0,0	

Table 7.2   Trainees' lesson planning comments

Table 7.2 shows the number and depth of comments made by trainees about planning at the beginning of the four-week course, during teaching practice and at the end of the four-week course as well as comments made by tutors about the trainees' planning. As can be seen while trainees were already thinking about planning at the beginning of the course and still commented at the end of the course, the great majority of comments were made during the practice teaching sessions. It must, however, be borne in mind that the trainees' reflective self-evaluation sheets did have one section that required them to discuss the quality of their preparation and planning. For some trainees the consequences of this requirement were comments such as, "much time went into planning and preparation". While this may, indeed, have been true, the lack of corroborating comments made some of these seem rather shallow. Therefore, the comments at the second level and beyond are probably far more revealing.

7.1.1   *Sources of input*

The trainees' comments about planning revealed that there were different sources of input into the planning process as follows:

- pre-course material
- friends who were teachers
- associate teachers
- experience

The comments also showed that trainees had thought in different ways about exactly what to plan, had different reasons for planning and identified different problems. While

some problems made planning difficult, others were actually revealed and solved during the planning process.

Knowledge about planning came from a variety of sources. Some trainees knew teachers and had heard that planning could be quite time-consuming, although as Trainee A reported, "I didn't think it would take a whole day just (to prepare) to teach for one hour! I'd heard all those warnings but I hadn't taken it in".

Others revealed that the pre-course materials "opened my eyes to what the teacher has to have planned before the lesson - a lot of things which you might take for granted" (Trainee B). An even more valuable source of information about planning came from teachers that the trainees observed.

> "When we observed C's class, she gave us a lesson plan, so we'd know what was coming up. I don't know if that was one that she followed or if she just gave it to us for something to look at. It was quite clear." (Trainee D)

This reaction would seem to be questioning whether teachers normally filled in lesson plans, something that was quite new to the trainees. Discussions about lesson plans may have led trainees to expect that all teachers would be working from a lesson plan, but when Trainee B was given no plan by either of the two teachers that he observed, he had two quite different reactions.

> "I didn't see a lesson plan but I could guess with some teachers that they knew what they were going to do. It seemed they had a lot of materials and, depending on how the topics went, they would stop or continue as they were, but another teacher .... looked surprised to see me - she didn't know I was coming and it was a terrible lesson - no planning at all ... basically she must have gone in with just no idea at all."

The final source of knowledge about planning was the actual previous teaching experience of some of the trainees, although this did lead one of them, Trainee I, to avow "I'm not good at planning or looking at the logic of it".

Whether or not the experienced trainees felt positively or negatively about their planning ability, they did seem more aware of why they were planning, (Trainee F compared it to "a crutch", while Trainee I saw it as "a prompt"), and exactly what they needed on their plan. It was noticeable that Trainees F and G, both trained teachers with some experience, tended not to write over-extensive planning comments but they seemed well aware of exactly which points, examples and clarifications it was important to have written down. As Trainee F wrote, "I need a structure like a lesson plan with reminders". In contrast to these two, the other experienced teacher, Trainee I, wrote very full planning notes. She explained that,

"It means that you're not in the classroom thinking, "What can I do next?" You have your prompt - you may not always follow it - things do come up - that's important, I'll deal with it now - but it's important to have it there as something to fall back on".

This attitude would seem to be a personal development in response to her worries about her lack of planning ability.

Even if the experienced teachers felt positive about their planning ability, they now had to think about a different type of teaching and subject matter than they had been used to. The most experienced teacher among the trainees, Trainee G, reported after the first peer teaching session that "it took about two hours to work out what to do".

7.1.2 *Why plan?*
Trainees themselves identified two major reasons for planning:
  a.   for psychological reasons
  b.   to anticipate possible problems,
neither of which appears to have been taken directly from course notes.

For the inexperienced trainees, there were two major reasons for planning. Firstly, there is a psychological reason which concurs exactly with the findings of Johnson (1993:77):

> For trainees, planning serves as an important psychological need in that it helps to reduce uncertainty and enables them to maintain a sense of control over and confidence in their instructional behaviour.

Several trainees reported incidents when they realised how difficult it was to keep everything that they had considered when planning to the fore of their mind when in front of a class. Trainee C recalled,

> "This is where I let myself down. I did not have complete notes on things I wanted to say and points I wanted to make. It was all in my head .... then it disappeared!"

Trainee A also realised very early that "it's hard remembering a lesson plan for an hour", which led him to write down very full lesson plans. He then knew that if a tricky situation came up, he could often "look quickly at his notes" or look at his lesson plan because "I know where to find it". He further developed this during his practice teaching, when he used the strategy of writing his verbal instructions for an activity on the wrapper that was around the copies he was going to give to the students.

Secondly, problems can be revealed at the planning stage. Borko, Lalik and Tomchin (1987:85) report that planning is "a tool for anticipating and solving instructional

problems in advance of the actual teaching episode". Trainee A fully concurred with this when he said,

> "I was aware of where problems could come in because I had thought so hard about how to explain it" and "I was prepared for that - that's why I handled it so well".

Unfortunately, trainees can overlook some items in the planning stage as happened to Trainee B with a grammar exercise, which was not all quite as easy as he had thought.

> "I hadn't seen that verb or I didn't realise there were irregular verbs in there, so I had to be quite quick to pick it up. I wrote out the first three just to make sure I had the structure in my head, then I left it but it was actually around 5, 6 and 7 that it got tricky."

The consequence of this was a self-reminder to check through exercises more carefully in future.

7.1.3 *What to plan*

Knowing what to plan comes into the realm of pedagogical content knowledge, which, for inexperienced trainees, is very difficult as they have little experience to base their planning on. Those who had learned foreign languages for several years may have been at a slight advantage, as they may have been able to transfer some of the activities, although they were now on the transmitting rather than the receiving end and were carrying out the very planning activities that a student has little knowledge of. Trainees had been told that each of their lessons should include both a language point and a topic, but as Trainee B commented at the end of the course, "That still eludes me". However, quite a few of the trainees were coming to grips with this notion even if, as Trainee C revealed, it took quite a long time. "I gave this a lot of thought to bring the language point and the lesson topic together". Even when they managed to get both elements in a lesson, they often had the feeling that Trainee D expressed: "I felt my lessons were a little too bitsy instead of flowing". One of the observers obviously felt the same way when she wrote, "Linking the tasks together on one theme might have helped".

Figure 7.1 summarises what, for trainees, were the main features of planning for practice teaching. Planning is placed in the centre of the diagram as it is obviously the key focus which leads on to all other aspects. Those other aspects, in turn, have an influence on, and are influenced by, each other.
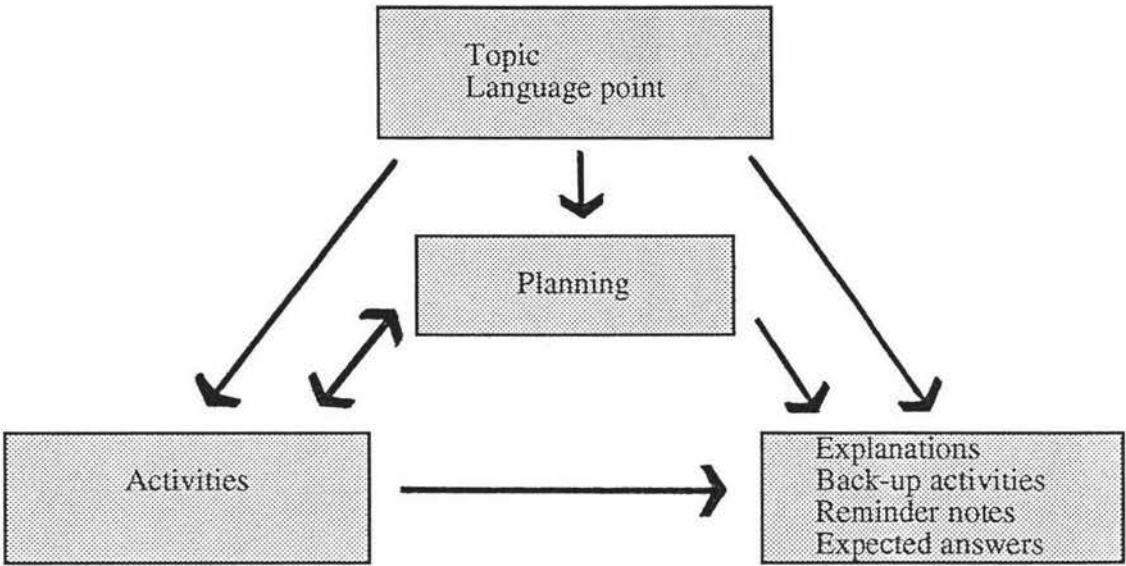
Figure 7.1   The interrelationship between planning and activities

Once the trainees had found suitable activities to reinforce what they were teaching, they needed to think about exactly how they would introduce the class to the activities, including the exact words they would use. Some of the trainees found it rather constraining to write down the exact words they would use. As Trainee E pointed out,

> "I like to plan but I don't like to have to say the exact words - I'd write them down but I'd decide if I'm going to say them in the classroom".

One of the experienced teachers, Trainee I, explained how her personal philosophy on being so exact had changed:

> "The thing we've done on these that I've never done before, is writing down the words you're going to use. I've never done that but in Shanghai the Chinese teachers do and we've thought, 'They really rehearse their lessons - they actually write every word', but now I'll be going back with far more empathy for that - we do have to have worked out what you're going to say".

Not only did they need to think about what to say, but also how to say it.

> "I had thought this was good. However, in the presentation I found I should have had a dress rehearsal of my own role. More attention to my vocal delivery and gesturing (ie. conscious / planned) would have been useful" (Trainee H).

Possibly the major problem in planning the activities, initially at least, was judging how long they would take. Trainees quickly learned that it was better to have extra activities in case things didn't quite go according to plan.

> "I liked to overplan. I'd think, this could be an hour but I'll put something else in just in case it's not, to avoid that situation of finding you had a quarter of an hour with nothing to do" (Trainee I).

"I found it was definitely good to overplan a bit. You could always take out certain activities or cut them short" (Trainee E).

Another tactic developed by Trainee A was to revisit his plans and consider whether they were realistic. "If the lesson was 45 minutes, I would go back and think, this could take longer and extend it to 55 minutes".

Once the trainees had decided on the various activities to be used, the order in which they would proceed, the approximate time that they thought each would take, and had identified which to leave out if necessary, they realised that they had more than ever to remember. Consequently, more and more notes appeared on the lesson plans concerning:

- the explanations that they needed to give a class
- the exact words that they would use
- examples to use in their explanation
- the instructions to precede activities
- expected answers to exercises
- what to do if students didn't understand.

There were also many notes written for their own benefit, reminding themselves of:

- what to write on the board
- what students needed
- who should work with whom
- the necessity to walk around the room and check that students were doing the work correctly
- what to do if students finished quickly.

As a consequence the length of planning notes tended to increase (in some cases dramatically). Many trainees began their first peer teaching with approximately half a page of planning notes and later wrote more than two - in fact two of the trainees wrote an average of five detailed pages of notes.

7.1.4 *Over-riding problems*

Trainees identified two major problems in lesson planning, as shown in Table 7.3. First of all, they did not teach the class enough to really get to know the students well enough to be able to plan completely effectively. As Trainee I revealed, it was in the last lesson that she felt that she was getting to know the class: "I felt today that I was just beginning to know my group and they were just beginning to know me". Comments such as Trainee A's, "My planning and preparation was thorough but not at the right level, so it took longer and needed more explanation", were made quite often. He did

point out, though, that when he taught the same class for several lessons, it got easier. "Now that I know the class better, I can use this to improve the next lesson".

Problem	Trainees' Solutions
Not knowing class	flexibility with activities alternative explanation flexible timing reflection to allow changes
No textbook	spend more time planning but feel happier because students' needs have been met and trainee feels creative

Table 7.3 Common planning problems and trainees' solutions

Another problem, faced by a number of these trainees in planning lessons, is that many of the classes that they taught did not use a course textbook. This problem is dealt with more fully in section 7.2 (Materials) which demonstrates the close relationship between planning and materials.

7.1.5   *Making changes*

Johnson (1993:75) points out that "trainees seemed to believe that if their lesson plans were not carried out, their lessons had failed". In the current study there were several points of view on the advisability of changing lesson plans during a lesson. The major points against changing plans cited restrictions (either real or imagined) of the course, whereas points in favour of making changes were nearly always instigated in response to the students' needs.

It has been suggested in the teacher preparation literature that student teachers tend to cling to their lesson plans until they gain the confidence to change them in response to class reaction. However, during the final group discussions these trainees were quite definite in their views that an observer tended to inhibit their desire to make changes. Trainee E pointed out that, "I felt obliged to stick to my lesson plan in my first lesson when H was observing". Trainee D agreed, saying,

> "If you hadn't followed your lesson plan, you would've known the first thing you would have got asked is, "Why didn't you do this?" I thought you had to stick to it".

One of the experienced trainees, Trainee F, seemed to draw on her experience when she explained, "I changed the lesson plan because I thought they'd been sitting listening for

far too long". In some cases experience did not seem to be enough by itself, but the associate teachers encouraged the trainees to make changes when it appeared beneficial for the class. Trainee I commented,

> "With J being flexible with time, I felt free to deal with some of the students' incidental queries as they arose, for example, the meaning and spelling of arrow, the pronunciation and meaning of ballet, so the session continued for one and a half hours".

This was corroborated by the associate teacher's comments after that class, "I am impressed with your ability to be flexible in the classroom - this allows you to meet the individual needs of the students".

Trainees also need to feel able to curtail something that is not going according to plan. Advice was given to Trainee C that "if you do feel uncomfortable, wind it up as soon as possible and tell the students that you'll return to it another time".

Plans were sometimes changed well in advance of the class. This revisiting of plans was strongly advocated by one of the experienced teachers (Trainee G), who recommended planning well in advance so that changes could be made if necessary.

> "It'll show up in your planning and if you've documented it at least 12 hours before you teach, it gives you that time to reflect in an ideal situation - when and what should be changed."

She had used this very advice (and her own experience) when faced with a difficult student in a class.

> "I had worked out quite deliberately where everyone was going to go. ... At 5am I decided to flip the lesson completely and keep her absolutely pinned because I knew it could be a disaster".

7.1.6   *Planning progress*

By the end of the course, the best of the inexperienced trainees appeared to be planning as thoroughly (if not more so) than the experienced teachers. They still had questions in their mind as to whether their plans were exactly right as Trainee C explained:

> "Because we haven't got the confidence of experience to know that what we've planned is really good and they're going to learn something, so you look at what you've got and you think, "Is this good enough? Is it going to extend them? Is it going to teach them what I want to teach them?" It takes a while before you find the all-round level - all the skills of each student. It probably comes with experience".

One of the most encouraging signs was that most of the trainees seemed to have realised that it was important to think of what the students were actually learning.

Trainee C told the others that "my best class was my last one. I'd planned for an hour but after an hour and a half the students were still learning from it".

7.2   MATERIALS

Part of the planning process is the selection of materials to be used in each lesson. While some courses rely heavily on textbooks, this was not the case in most of the situations in which the trainees in the current study found themselves. Consequently, there was a great deal of work to be done on creating appropriate activities around the selected materials so that their true value was exploited and so that the students being taught gained the utmost from the materials.

Trainee	Initial	Observe	Teaching	Tutors	Final
A	1,0,0	4,1,0	5,3,1,0,0	4,2,1	2,2,0
B		1,1,0	9,1,0,0,0	8,3,0	2,1,1
C			5,1,0,0,0	2,0,3	2,0,0
D			2,1,0,0,0	4,0,0	2,0,0
E			4,1,0,0,0	3,0,0	0,1,0
F	1,0,0	3,1,0	7,0,1,0,0	2,0,0	
G			11,0,0,0,0	2,2,0	
H	2,0,0		9,2,2,0,2		
I		5,0,0	1,3,0,0,0	1,1,0	

Table 7.4   Trainees' comments on materials

Table 7.4 shows that at the beginning of the course trainees were blissfully unaware of the major role that materials were to play later on. Even during the observation phase the comments were still few and at a low depth. However, practice teaching brought a sharp rise in both the number and the depth of comments, which was partly matched by the tutors' comments. The trainees' comments tended to concentrate on the amount of time that went into finding relevant materials, planning how to use them and how to exploit them to the greatest advantage. For several trainees these comments continued in some depth through to the final interview, where one group in particular had quite a detailed discussion on the place of the textbook.

7.2.1 *Using textbooks*

Borko, Lalik and Tomchin (1987:82) found that student teachers tended to supplement "the standard curriculum with creative activities" and that they felt it was "important to try out their own ideas rather than ideas thought of by someone else". Richardson (1992:26) made a similar point even more strongly:

> "The trainees tend to go to extreme lengths to avoid using the course books and commercially produced materials available" and they "find this very time-consuming".

During the course the trainees gave various views, both positive and negative, regarding the use of textbooks, which are summarised in Table 7.5 below.

Negative	Positive
Not always suited to class	Clear instructions for the teacher
Become outdated	Can get some good ideas
Don't solve all planning problems	Can save some planning time
Not learning from own mistakes	Good to take travelling
Difficult to find the perfect book	

Table 7.5   Trainees' views on textbooks

Several of the trainees in the present study commented on their personal dislike of using textbooks but for quite different reasons. Trainee H had learned from experience in Hong Kong that text books are not always suited to certain groups of people. There she found that, although the class 'knew' English, their pronunciation was awful and very hard to understand, so she "threw the book away". Trainee B also spoke from experience but it was his own experience as a student and, as a consequence, in the initial stages of the course he was very disparaging about French teachers that he had had at University who were bound to an outdated book. At the end of the course he had not changed his view - if anything it was strengthened. He explained it like this:

> "You could go into class with a textbook that basically covers everything but it's not really 'you' - you haven't formulated the ideas in your head or you always feel unsure of yourself because you haven't thought things over or have a plan in your head. You have to think how long it is going to take, is it going to appeal to the students and if you do use textbook things, you've got to plan when they're going to come in, how you're going to put them across. It's not good teaching experience because I'm not learning from my own mistakes. I mean, I am to a certain extent about how I'm putting across the information, but it's not material I've chosen or adapted to students. I'd rather have a bit more say, then I could learn more on the job. I very rarely came across one book and thought, "I could follow this chapter through". I found things weren't linking up, it wasn't covering as much as I wanted".

Despite such negative sentiments he could appreciate that there was a positive side to using a textbook, noting that "not so much preparation is necessary". When he evaluated a textbook, one of the positive comments that he made was that "it was very clear for the teacher - it had good instructions". Trainee A also did not "like the course books at all" but he realised that there was also a downside to such a position:

> "That's why so many hours went into planning because I was trying to be so innovative. Just building my own materials is the hardest thing and finding where I should go to get good ideas".

The above comments by the trainees suggest that these trainees are well on their way to developing strong teaching beliefs. As Richards (1993:9) points out,

> "Interactive decisions and pedagogical reasoning skills are likely to be negatively affected by over-dependence on textbooks. If teachers allow textbooks to make most of their decisions for them and see their role as primarily managing students through materials, teaching is trivialised - the level at which teachers are engaged in teaching is reduced to a very superficial one".

Trainee C had a rather different perspective on textbooks, probably due to her intention to backpack around different countries where she would not have easy access to English materials: "I do hope that I will find a textbook that covers what I want it to cover. I need to find something quite light because I travel with a back-pack".

7.2.2 *Working without textbooks*

Numrich (1996:136) comments that "teachers are expected to be creative and varied in their teaching from their first days in the classroom". In the present study few of the classes with which the trainees did their practice teaching were using a textbook. While this gave the trainees free rein for creativity, they and the tutors also revealed in their comments that at times it posed the following problems:

- No guide for topic
- Difficult to find materials at the correct level
- Different materials not linked
- Needs a lot of planning time
- Emphasis on appearance rather than content
- Not always appropriate for students
- Difficult to use realia effectively
- Difficult to find appropriate material on the subject
- Lack of exploitation of material

Trainees experienced various difficulties when looking for materials for a class. In an early lesson Trainee A commented that "this was a hard lesson to plan because there

was no guide that dealt with small talk". He thought he could have come up with better ideas had he had a better guide, although the observer on this occasion applauded his materials. At times the search for materials resulted in several rather unrelated activities as the trainees struggled to find materials at the appropriate level for the class which incorporated the specified language point. Trainee B revealed that he had found that "it's hard to come up with one hour of good materials" while Trainee D realised that the links that she saw might not have been so obvious to her students: "I am not sure that the students could see how the activities I organised were linked", a point on which the observing tutor concurred wholeheartedly, commenting, "Perhaps linking the tasks together on one theme would have helped".

As noted in section 7.1, all the trainees found that it took a significant amount of time to plan a lesson and a large amount of that planning time was spent in materials preparation. There was a danger of some trainees concentrating almost more on the appearance of their materials than on exactly how they would use them. Trainee D made several comments, such as, "The worksheets looked nicely presented rather than shabby". For other trainees, especially but not exclusively the trained teachers, the appropriacy of the materials for their students was of paramount importance. Trainee F was teaching a group of High School students and included a purple Volkswagen into her exercises because "I wanted to use vocab or situations they are likely to come across". During peer teaching Trainee I had a certain group of students in mind and commented, "I feel the active sports content of the pictures would have been appropriate and topical for teenagers and older students". She also showed that she was looking forward to the future when she would return to China and knew that she wanted to prepare materials for that: "Only one picture had an Asian in it - I need to buy more Asian magazines for cutting up".

Another trap, especially for the inexperienced trainees, was to find material on the right subject and think that they had found the perfect solution until they were trying it out with a class, at which point the flaws became evident. Fortunately, they were usually able to retrieve the situation and also identify what the problem had been. Trainee H had just such a situation when

> "it took me a wee while to figure out it wasn't working and why it wasn't working. - a. the pictures were too squinty and not good enough, b. they didn't have the vocab to describe the pictures, c. they didn't have the vocab to understand the other bits which I thought they would have. When I looked through the articles on the licences it didn't look so bad. 'Failure to give way' didn't seem difficult but I can see that it is now, but things like excessive speed, excessive is difficult".

Most of the trainees used realia at some stage and found that they were rather successful, especially for student appeal and motivation. Trainee F, when teaching a unit on reading, found that books were interesting for her students even though she was horrified to find that they read little in their own language. Trainee H was congratulated for her use of real food containers but found that, although real clothes generated interest among students,

> "it was not quite what I intended. It probably wasn't too bad because they woke up a bit. That went on a bit long, too, as far as the language point went because I didn't give them anything to say"

with the consequence that they spoke in their native language.

A common theme among the observing tutors was that of advising the trainees (especially those with no teaching experience) to exploit their materials more. For example, Trainee A was told, "Beware of bombarding the students with tasks - it's better to devise several tasks for the materials you have".

As the course progressed it was obvious that most trainees were trying to take on such advice, although it was not always easy for them to think of the different types of tasks that could be used with the material. Indeed, one of them in particular seemed to have little confidence to teach other than the way in which her associate teacher had taught, using similar tasks - a somewhat unrealistic expectation given the few observations that were carried out. This was probably a measure of her inexperience and lack of confidence. At the end of the course the first group of trainees, in particular, commented that one of the most difficult facets had been learning how to exploit the materials sufficiently. As Trainee A revealed,

> "Expanding activities out so that they lasted a bit longer and were of value, I found that the hardest thing - rather than plan lots of things to get one thing .... the comments I got back were that it was a really good activity, very innovative, but you could have expanded it more".

7.3   TIMING

The concept of timing, which is stressed quite strongly on the Cert. TESOL course, is closely allied with planning and preparation but is made more difficult when one does not know a class very well. While timing was something that trainees did not attribute a great deal of importance to before they began teaching, once they assumed the teacher role, whether peer teaching or class teaching, it grew in importance. This concurs with the findings of Nunan (1992b:161) and was often a source of some considerable stress, as can be seen from the number of comments in Table 7.6.

Trainee	Observe	Teaching	Tutors	Final
A	2,1,0	4,4,0,0	3,0,0	1,0,0
B		4,1,0,0	2,0,0	0,3,1
C		2,0,1,0	0,2,0	2,1,0
D		3,1,3,0	1,1,0	0,1,0
E	1,0,0	7,0,0,1	1,1,0	
F	1,0,0	4,2,0,0	2,0,1	1,0,0
G	1,0,0	2,0,2,0	2,0,0	
H		5,1,1,0	1,1,1	
I		1,3,1,0	0,2,0	

Table 7.6   Trainees' comments on timing

Trainees had to develop an awareness of how long something might take so that they could plan an adequate amount for a class, but they also had to learn to build in flexibility so that they could allow an activity to go longer if students needed more time or finish it more quickly if maximum benefit had been gained. These scenarios could only eventuate if trainees had taken them into consideration when planning. If not, it led to the stress of what to do if classes finished early or too late, which could be compounded by the uncertainty of not knowing the exact time during the lesson or the finishing time of a class. They also learned how to use their judgement to encourage a class to work to their capacity by setting a realistic time limit for the work, as suggested by White (1997). Timing caused the trainees various worries, which are summarised in Table 7.7 and explained in greater depth in the following sections.

Fear	Explanation
Limited time	Not enough time to develop activity Need to set time limits
Too much time at end	Hurried through, didn't exploit material fully, didn't realise how much reinforcement students needed Didn't plan extra
Too long for one task Finishing time? What time is it?	Students might be bored Confusion between different venues Not used to checking time

Table 7.7 Reasons for trainees' fears about timing

An important part of the planning process is to allocate an appropriate amount of time to each activity. In peer teaching trainees normally had a time limit of approximately ten minutes which they found quite difficult, although some felt that this was good preparation for the real world. For example Trainee C wrote:

> "The time limitation of approx ten minutes to cover the accurate reproduction stage and immediate creativity put pressure on. I think it is important to adhere to the time constraint because that is how it is in real life. Lessons finish on time! Next time I would spend more time on the introduction and explain the instructions in more detail. I felt that I skimmed over those important aspects rather quickly which would have disadvantaged 'real' students".

Even the sheer mechanics of time-keeping can present some problems. Trainee H discovered that even when you take the time into your own hands there is no guarantee that everything will work out correctly: "Then I had popped my alarm clock in my bag, but when I looked at it, it had stopped. It didn't really matter - I normally don't use a watch." Confusion of times from different venues was also a problem. Trainee G recounted how she "lost it with the time - 40 minutes - I thought this finishes at 20 to ., ... It was the business of thinking, "Did I start at 11 or 10 to 11?"

There were some slightly different approaches to concerns with the time. For example, Trainee A commented, "I check the time a lot. I'm always worried about the time to make sure that my lesson is long enough". In fact, trainees agreed that they usually felt safer if an earlier part of the lesson took a little longer. In Trainee B's words, "usually I'd like my earlier activities to go longer because then I'd feel safer, so if it went on 5 - 10 minutes, I'd think, 'This is good' ".

The major problem for the inexperienced trainees, in particular, was that to begin with they just did not know how long a class would take to finish an activity. Trainee D expressed very clearly the fears about timing and the subsequent problems that that could bring about:

> "Sometimes it was hard to judge how long everything was going to take. You'd prepare an activity and think they're going to get bored with it in ten minutes, then you find they really like it and it takes twenty minutes or half an hour and you think, "Oh, my goodness, what am I going to do?" Or you prepare something you think will take a long time and they finish it in five or they're bored or just not interested".

One technique that she tried to use was reading the students' body language:

> "I was trying to read some of their facial expressions, whether they were still interested in the activity, because if they were bored, I would have called it to a halt. I wouldn't have liked them to go away saying, 'Oh, I just had the most boring of teachers today'!"

As trainees became more experienced they realised that they could make sure that students concentrated on the task at hand by giving them a time limit. Trainee E suggested that,

> "Next time I would tell the students that they had 'X' minutes to complete the sheet instead of just telling them to stop after 'X' minutes."

Even where the level of the class was not known, some trainees found that they could impose time limits by letting the class make a start before judging how long they would need. As Trainee F recalled, "I always give them a time limit near the end. I always warn them rather than just telling them to stop."

Associate teachers sometimes gave trainees hints about the appropriate speed for a class. As they indicated, according to various factors, such as the class, the task and the trainee's approach, their advice could range from giving more time, not to give too much time and making the class aware of the time limits. A typical comment was what J wrote in Trainee C's feedback: "You could move along just a little faster. The students will tend to slow down if given too much time".

7.4   SUMMARY

This chapter has shown that the experienced teachers had already developed some planning constructs and were consequently able to approach planning with more confidence than the inexperienced trainees. While they still had to learn how to plan for new subject matter and new techniques, they did not have to approach everything afresh and thus they could devote all their energies to their problem areas. The most rapidly developing of the inexperienced trainees, however, demonstrated that they had learned a great deal about the various aspects of planning by the end of the course. All trainees experienced difficulty in planning for a class that they did not know well.

The inexperience of all trainees in ESL teaching meant that all found that they had to spend a lot of time looking for suitable material, then plan activities around it. The experienced teachers, however, did seem better at sensing what would be most appropriate for their learners. There were mixed feelings about the use of textbooks but, in many situations, they were used by the associate teachers as resources only rather than as a base coursebook and this often caused extra stress for the trainees.

Timing caused various problems for all the trainees but some of these (such as the reluctance to spend more time than planned on a certain activity) may have been instigated by what the trainees felt was expected of them during the course, rather than

representing an emerging belief. Again the experienced teachers enjoyed a certain, but not complete, advantage in this area. They were less likely to worry about those who finished quickly and they had often already developed routines for keeping the students on task and therefore not wasting time.

CHAPTER EIGHT

RESULTS - CLASSROOM CONSTRUCTS

The final results chapter, which deals with the all-important student and classroom teaching issues, addresses the areas that most trainees identified as one of the main reasons that they undertook the course - learning how to teach ESL. The literature on student teachers cites many instances in which student teachers report that they believed that they learned most from their practice teaching experiences (Dunne, 1993; Kettle & Sellars, 1996). Such findings were partially reflected in the current study, but due to the highly interactive nature of the course, it was sometimes hard to attribute accurately the true source of learning and development. The main components of classroom constructs are being aware of and meeting student needs, classroom management, error correction and communications, as shown in Table 8.1.

CLASSROOM CONSTRUCTS			
Classroom Management	Student Needs	Communication	Error Correction

Table 8.1   Components of classroom constructs

8.1   MEETING STUDENTS' NEEDS

Table 8.2 shows the number and depth of comments that pertained to various student issues at different times during the Cert. TESOL course. Most trainees began the course thinking about students, notably issues of getting on with them, meeting their needs and finding out which activities worked best with them. The experienced teachers among the trainees were, however, at the advantage of having confidence from their experience that they really could help students. Trainee G described in her initial interview how "sometimes you know you have helped someone".

Trainee	Initial	Observe	Teaching	Tutors	Final
A	6,0,0	16,2,0	12,2,0	4,0,1	3,0,0
B	1,0,1	10,3,1	10,0,0	3,1,0	1,0,0
C	1,1,0	8,0,0	0,1,0	3,1,0	
D		15,1,2	12,1,0	1,0,0	
E	3,2,0	6,0,1	7,1,0	3,0,0	
F	0,1,0	1,0,0	7,3,0	4,0,0	0,1,0
G	0,3,1	6,0,0	5,1,0	2,0,0	
H	2,0,0	1,1,0	11,0,0	2,2,0	0,1,0
I	0,0,1	9,2,0	7,3,0	4,0,0	

Table 8.2   Trainees' comments on meeting students' needs

During observations the inexperienced trainees had the chance to pick up hints as to how to resolve their concerns, then during their practice teaching they found out whether those solutions worked. They often also found that there were a few more problems to solve that they had not been able to anticipate. The major problems anticipated or encountered and the solutions that different trainees suggested are presented in Table 8.3 below.

Problem	Solution
How to get on with students	Interesting activities, don't be boring, use names
Different student personalities	Need different approaches
Involving all students	Using students names
Tired students	Starting with a 'warmer'
Using, not just learning, English	Pairwork, groupwork, communicative tasks
Students who finish quickly	Compare with another student, ? extra work
Learning not retained	Need for reinforcement
What are the students learning?	Need to focus beyond enjoyment

Table 8.3   Problematic areas for trainees and suggested solutions

8.1.1   *Trainees' relationships with students*

The initial questionnaires revealed that most trainees remembered a teacher that they got on well with (although there were some notable exceptions) and whose classes were

as Trainee A remembered "more fun than other high school classes". They also felt that an important quality of a good teacher was someone who was able to stimulate the imagination and motivation of their learners, who got on well with them, was knowledgeable and up-to-date with their subject and had desirable personality attributes. This link between a personal rapport with a teacher and positive feelings about the lessons obviously had quite an impact on them. An important difference at the beginning of the course was that nearly all the inexperienced teachers, but none of the experienced teachers, stated that they wanted to learn such matters as:

- how to be aware of the needs of all students
- how to keep students interested
- how to get on well with students
- how to read the body language of the students in the class so that I can get feedback
- how to communicate with students and build a relationship with them to keep interest

This would suggest that these issues can be generalised over all teaching, no matter what the content is, and that the experienced teachers were aware that their needs lay in different areas.

Whereas most trainees noticed that there were different types of students in the classes that they either observed or taught, it was the experienced teachers who showed how they were using this information to inform their planning and teaching decisions. Trainee A, an inexperienced trainee, commented after observing a class,

"I'm aware that the female students in the class are more shy. I don't think that they talked very much during the whole class, you need to be aware of their needs. Everyone's personalities are different."

However, he did not offer any strategies for overcoming this problem, whereas the experience of Trainee G showed through when, faced with quite a difficult student, she decided that, "I need to shift Cindy but I'm not sure where". She was aware that "I've really got to manage this and I've got to manage it really carefully". Later she revealed, "I had worked out quite deliberately where everyone was going to go". Another experienced teacher, Trainee I, used information about the different types of students when choosing the types of activities to give them:

"Some of the students were rather shy, for example M, so I want to emphasise interactive activities next time to help absorb and relax them with some fun".

She also used this information to decide who should work with whom and how difficult the activities could be.

"She said she was shy and she'd like to make herself ask things more. Her task was a harder one but I thought she'd be supported being with two other people and also she's asked about idioms. I'd worded the language in that one so it was the one that had 'pig-sty' and 'chaos'".

The greatest frustration for all trainees was the lack of knowledge that they had about the classes they were teaching. All trainees could be seen to be struggling with finding the level of the class and the most appropriate techniques for teaching them in the short amount of teaching time that they had. Trainee E summed up the problem well when he pointed out,

"The fact that you're taking over someone's class - you have to be careful how you do things. If they were my regular class, I would have dealt with the students quite differently. You can't just go into a class and get that respect or act as if you have that respect- it's something that has to be built up over time. If I had known the class better, I would have been able to make the lesson more to their level .... and more interesting".

Trainee I expressed the frustration of trainees getting to the end of practice teaching just as they felt that they were reaching the point where they could do more for the class:

"I felt today I was just beginning to know my group and they were just beginning to know me. Here I am saying, 'Goodbye, thanks a lot. I'll never see you again' ".

Despite their avowed interest in the students, trainees showed quite large differences in their learning and use of student names. For some, especially the experienced teachers and the experienced businesswoman, this seemed to be something that they had automatically concentrated on during the observation prior to teaching. They followed up on this by talking to students as they came into the room, "making them aware there was a teacher in the room, greeting them, chatting with them to get to know them better, setting up a nice atmosphere, trying to set the tone of the lesson" (Trainee F). Another experienced teacher, Trainee I, had a list of the students' names down the side of her lesson plan, including some comments which revealed that she had already formed an opinion of the capabilities of each student. Among the inexperienced teachers there was far more variation. Trainee E revealed that, "Remembering names is not one of my skills but it's an advantage - it's better than saying "Hey, you!" - it personalises it a bit more". In his first teaching hour the observing tutor suggested, "While you were waiting for the other students to come in, you might have used the time to chat, get to know names". He followed this advice well and in the next lesson another tutor observed, "You practised the students' names while you waited for the rest of the class to come in". Trainee D, on the other hand, did not seem to be able to pick up on this facet, justifying herself by pointing out that it was not something she normally did, rather than considering the value of adapting her behaviour to this situation.

"I know I didn't use their names much but I find I don't use peoples' names very much when I'm talking to them .... so it wasn't so much that I deliberately didn't use their names".

8.1.2 *Different student groupings*

Pairwork and groupwork were the focus of one of the observational videos that the trainees viewed. After watching that video Trainee A wrote the following:

"The benefits of pair and group work for the students are that they get to use their knowledge of the language more. It is important for the students to be practising what they know in order to build confidence and fluency".

While most trainees used pairwork at some time during their teaching practice, it was not always quite as easy as it had seemed. Some of the difficulties they encountered were:

- giving adequate instructions
- class not used to a student-based learning environment
- individuals tried to do activities their own way
- individuals did not want to work with others
- students did not understand the aims of pairwork

The latter three problems, in particular, challenged the trainees' developing beliefs about these activities. Trainee B had no hesitation in explaining to students that writing was not part of a speaking exercise:

"It was a speaking exercise, then they started writing it and I said 'Oh, speak' but they said, 'We want to write it before we say it,' and I said 'no, no, that's cheating - you've got to say it' ".

In this same activity, when Trainee B had to decide what to do with a loner, he used what he had learned during observation to decide what to do.

"In pair work one student worked by himself - he's a bit of a loner - in the first observation he worked by himself during pair work, so I thought maybe he likes that".

However, he did not merely abandon the student but "went back and tried to explain to him more clearly so he could work it out for himself". Trainee D was not nearly so decisive in enforcing pairwork and did not seem to be aware of what the problem was. "While the tasks were supposed to promote pair or group work, I do not know if this was achieved as fully as I wanted."

It was therefore the task of the observing tutor to point out, "Although you had the students together the nature of the task did not require co-operative work".

8.1.3   *Need for reinforcement*

One aspect of language teaching that may be different from other content areas is the necessity for reinforcement and the advisability of reminding students of earlier work that forms the groundwork for new work. Trainee H expressed some surprise and disappointment when a class could not remember, several days later, points that she thought she had explained quite clearly.

> "I asked them about the predicting I'd done two days earlier and there was a great blank - that threw me a little because I'd written it out, made a thing and I thought they'd picked up on it".

Trainee F demonstrated that not only did she not take it for granted that students would retain knowledge, "That's something I've learned here - to reinforce - don't expect that they've got it just because you've told them and they've practised", but she also worked on finding positive methods of reinforcement that involved the students. As an observing tutor wrote: "I liked the way you got the students to repeat the rule at the end".

8.1.4   *Meeting needs in mixed ability classes*

What to do if some students finished before others was an area in which the experienced trainees had already developed beliefs. For instance, Trainee G showed that she had confronted this type of decision before when she declared:

> "Sometimes it's okay to just leave them - you don't have to keep beating them with work and by getting them to read the other one, they can choose whether to stare into space".

The inexperienced trainees, however, exhibited a range of beliefs, from quite undeveloped, resulting in confusion, to developing (incomplete) beliefs based on adoption and adaptation of practices observed in the classroom. Trainees A and B, both inexperienced trainees, used the same tactic which they had both noticed during classroom observation, writing in their journals, "Those who had finished were directed to compare answers with a neighbour who had also finished". During their practice teaching they tried this tactic, although their comments suggest that they do not feel that it is a perfect solution.

> "I got those at the front who had finished quickly to swop and see if they could see anything. It's always hard to know exactly what to do" (Trainee B).

> "I keep checking the girl next to her because when the two of them are finished, I'll get them to compare their answers - it's the only tactic I know .... I know that I haven't got anything planned for her to do so it's best just to leave her alone - I'm sure she's used to it - until I actually find a way to deal with excellent students" (Trainee A).

Trainees D and E summed up the very frustration that these inexperienced trainees feel as they struggle to develop beliefs and tactics in this situation:

> "At about this stage I was thinking, 'Some have finished, some haven't, what should I do?' If I called it to a halt, those who hadn't finished might be resentful, does it matter if the others have a breather for a while? should I have maybe given them something else to do? but then that might have taken too long, I don't know quite how you are supposed to keep everybody happy" (Trainee D).

> "If I went on to the next lesson, it was quite likely those people who weren't keeping up would just give up, whereas if I don't, the people who have finished or are up to date are going to get bored - the alternative would be to give them extra activities but I didn't want to do that - it's very hard to manage, I didn't actually have any prepared. - I could have - I did have some prepared because we didn't get through everything in the lesson but I didn't want to do that because that would upset the balance of the class ... so I was a bit lost there" (Trainee E).

8.1.5   *Student enjoyment vs student learning*

All trainees showed a concern to choose topics and activities that were relevant and interesting for the students concerned. Most of the trainees commented on the need to begin lessons with an interesting activity. Trainee B found that this was especially important when he was teaching a less motivated group:

> "It is an excellent idea to start the morning class with a game where they had to move around. It woke the students up if I started up the class with an interesting activity."

Trainee I castigated herself for having not taking this into consideration in one lesson: "I should have started with a 'warm-up' activity especially on a Monday morning!" The associate teacher backed this up, advising, "It could be helpful to use a physical warmer to get students going. Monday mornings are never easy for the L2 learners who have been talking in their L1".

A discerning factor was whether the trainees were able to think beyond the topic of their lesson to exactly what they expected their students to learn and how that learning would take place. Some of the inexperienced trainees at first concentrated on providing enjoyable activities because they didn't want the students to be bored. A revealing turning point, which was also pointed out by Johnson (1994:450), seems to be when the trainees get beyond worrying about whether the students enjoyed the activities and start to question whether they are actually learning anything. Trainee A commented after an early lesson, "The students all participated but it was hard to know if they were learning anything". In a later lesson with the same class, he recalled thinking, "okay, they've got it, I think. They weren't asking any more questions. They looked like they were getting it". Trainee E had a similar experience although it happened in reverse order. He taught

two grammar classes after which he reported: "The students by the end of the lesson seemed to be clear on what features a 'good' paragraph should have" and "The students seemed to be reasonably clear on the indefinite article(s) by the end of the lesson, having asked many questions during class". However, in a later class with a different group of students he had a different experience, "I tried for a variety of activities to keep students interested and (hopefully) challenged. They kept the students interested but were not as successful in generating vocab as I had hoped". This may also suggest that it is easier for trainees to reassure themselves that students have understood during a grammar class than that they have learned a structure well during a communicative activity. In addition, trainees can reassure themselves about comprehension having been achieved by looking at surface matters, which is what Trainee H seemed to do.

> "It was not how it was supposed to be so the overall feeling I put down there was disappointment. Then, after I'd written it up, I thought, 'Well, they got something out of it. They read through what they were supposed to read, they seemed to understand it' ."

8.2   CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

This section deals with issues of classroom management and the use of classroom aids during observations and practice teaching.

Trainee	Initial	Observe	Teaching	Tutors	Final
A		5,3,0	9,3,0		
B		7,2,0	3,1,1	4,1,0	
C	1,0,0	8,1,3	4,0,0	3,4,0	
D		9,0,0	5,1,2	3,0,0	
E	1,0,0	6,0,1	5,2,1	2,0,0	
F		1,0,0	3,1,0	3,2,0	1,0,0
G		1,0,0	3,2,0	5,1,0	
H		1,1,1	7,2,0	6,1,0	
I		3,2,0	8,0,2	5,1,0	

Table 8.4 Trainees' comments on classroom management issues and using aids

As can be seen from the number and depth of comments in Table 8.4, class management issues were not at the forefront of any of the trainees' thoughts at the beginning of the course. However, starting with the observations and continuing into the peer teaching and practice teaching, this situation changed dramatically. Although none of the video observations dealt specifically with the issue of classroom

management, the trainees often noted instances such as students being in positions where they were unable to see the teacher or where students appeared to be in inappropriate groupings. During the classroom observations the trainees noticed:

- how different teachers made use of the board and different aids
- how furniture was moved around a room
- how students were moved according to the activity
- how teachers ensured they had the attention of the class
- how teachers ensured that all students were encouraged to speak.

Once the trainees began practice teaching, various issues, many of which they had already observed, emerged as specific problems, as shown in Table 8.5.

Issue	Problem
Class arrangement	Movement of students. Moveable furniture? Establishing positive environment
Pair & groupwork	Class used to it? How to group students
Involving students	One student dominating, trying to involve all Getting attention

Table 8.5 Classroom management problems identified by trainees

Once again it seemed that the experienced teachers had an advantage over the inexperienced trainees. During one of the video observations many of the trainees discussed how positive the horseshoe shape was for language learning. This seemed to be followed through by Trainee B's comment during practice teaching,

> "I don't like the setup of the room like this - it's too teacher-orientated. The students are so close as well. The front desk is so close to the teacher - I don't like that - there's not really any place to move around the tables. It is difficult for pairs or groups".

Trainee I, possibly as a result of her experience, not only discussed the problem but also suggested a solution:

> "I actually think the tables are a barrier - they're too big this way - they should be littler to bring the whole group closer. The horseshoe is good because you can have a clear space in the front if you want to bring them out there. You could maybe set the tables up as if it was a big dining room table, then you could sit around and have a family discussion".

When it came to moving students into groups or pairs, the inexperienced trainees showed much more reluctance to direct the students to certain groups. Although, during

one class observation, Trainee D had expressed the thought that the class did not appear to be used to groupwork, she did not seem to realise that this could call for more rather than less teacher-direction:

> "I was thinking 'Do I just go 2 and 2 or do I let them choose because they just sat there for a few minutes, so it did cross my mind, okay, so what do I do now? but I figured they'd get it sorted out".

Quite often the trainees were aware of different language abilities among their students, which could affect their matching of students. Inexperienced Trainee B revealed that he was not sure what to do with a particularly badly-matched duo sitting beside each other, whereas both G and I knew from experience that they had to move students where necessary. As Trainee G recalled, "I had worked out quite deliberately where everyone was going to go".

A common occurrence in classes is that some pupils can dominate. In this study several trainees showed that they were both aware of this and had devised some strategies to cope with it. Trainee F explained why one student had dominated in her class: "I realised later I had spoken to him (B) more than anyone else in the class because his face is always up whereas a lot of the girls are sitting with their faces down". Trainee H wanted to prevent one student from dominating and explained,

> In my mind I was thinking "I wonder what I can do about this?" and then I did ask someone direct, but I happened to pick a shy girl who was mortified, so I had to retrieve that situation and I wasn't quite sure, did I answer it for her, did I get someone to help? to make her feel okay about it".

A partial solution was provided in one of the input sessions during the course. Trainee E revealed that he had had a similar difficulty, then learned more about cultural differences and appreciated that there were ways of overcoming such problems.

In the literature on student practice teaching, it has been found that one of the main difficulties in practice teaching is that trainees have trouble feeling in control of the class. While this did not seem to be a problem in this study, possibly because these trainees were teaching mainly adult learners, who are somewhat more polite than school children, they still did need to learn how to make sure that everyone was listening at appropriate times. Trainee I, who noted during her class observation that her associate teacher was very specific about getting everyone's attention and waited until she had it, copied this technique for her own teaching. Trainee F showed that she was very aware of the connotations of such calls for control but also explained why it was important:

> "You don't want to be the old schoolmarm, rod in hand, but they've got to listen. I just stood there and waited until she stopped talking".

8.2.1   *The use of classroom aids*

During practice teaching, starting with peer teaching and continuing with classroom teaching, trainees made a number of comments about their use of various aids. They were often using the aids for the first time and acknowledged both the advantages and disadvantages of using them, as well as revealing their plans for more successful future use. The main aids used and the trainees major comments on each one are summarised below in Table 8.6.

Aid	Skill to be learned
Board	Legible and appropriate writing, space management Teacher positioning What and how much to write on the board What to leave on the board
OHP	How to use, when and why Lighting, size of writing on OHT Checking if students can read OHT

Table 8.6   Trainees' specific comments on the use of certain teaching aids

One of the first techniques that any teacher needs to master, (and one that comes within the definition of being a low-level skill suited to training), is how to use the various classroom aids easily and effectively. As can be expected, it was the inexperienced trainees who had the most to learn here as most of them had to start from scratch. They needed to learn the various tricks associated with board use, whereas for the experienced teachers it had become a routine that they did not have to think about. Comments showed the inexperienced trainees struggling to learn how to write on the board (in lower case letters and legibly), how to manage space on the board, how much to write on the board, what to leave there as a prop while the class was carrying out activities and the expectation that whatever was on the board must be correct. However, one type of comment from both experienced and inexperienced trainees concerned the teacher's position while writing on the board. Inexperienced Trainee D's comment, seemed to have been prompted by her own school memories:

> "What used to annoy me was when the teacher stood in front of the board and you couldn't see what they were writing. I did think about having my back to the class and obstructing their view".

However, for Trainee F, a trained teacher with a little experience, the prompting came from her initial teacher training but also included a personal fear:

"I'm always worried when my back is to the students when I'm writing ... I try to keep it to a minimum because I'm frightened I'll lose them. I was criticised (at College) for getting in the way of the board when I was doing handwriting".

Learning to use more recent technology was a skill that all trainees had to learn but it seemed that the experienced trainees were still at an advantage because they could concentrate on the few areas in which they did not already have expertise, whereas for the inexperienced trainees it was yet another of the many skills to be learned. The OHP did not seem to be familiar to any of the trainees, but Trainee I made sure that she tried it out during peer teaching, commenting that this gave her a choice of places to write. When she used the OHP for variation in her lesson during her practice teaching, she showed that she had come to grips with some of the pitfalls (although not quite all):

"I'd enlarged it on the photocopier. I checked with one of the girls on the side to see if she could see it and she told me that she could. ... I tried repositioning the screen before the class and I wasn't convinced that it came out any better. ... I didn't think to turn the lights out for them - I probably should have because the switch was just by me".

This can be compared with the experience of Trainee E, who also had trouble with the lighting, but had not predicted some of the other problems, such as legibility, and consequently had not considered how to overcome them:

"I hadn't used the OHP before and I thought I needed to get a handle on using it in a class in a practical sense. I learned that someone needs to turn the lights off, which I was going to do but I didn't know where they were or how they worked. I knew it wouldn't be a very suitable room to have an OHP because it is so big. I was quite surprised that a couple of students with glasses couldn't read it".

Although the use of realia in lessons was shared among both experienced and inexperienced trainees, it did, for no clearly obvious reason, seem to be the realm of the older trainee. They brought in clothes, posters, telephones, containers and various other items to make their lessons more real, while the younger ones seemed to get their ideas and most of the material from books.

8.3   MONITORING STUDENTS AND ERROR CORRECTION

During the classroom observations trainees had the opportunity to see how different teachers monitored the students during activities and corrected students' errors. As can be seen in Table 8.7, Trainees A and B commented at greater depth than others during teaching practice. In both cases these comments were made during the stimulated recall session where they were explaining what had taken place during their teaching.

Trainee	Observe	Teaching	Tutors	Final
A	7,2,2,0	5,10,2	5,2,0,0	
B	0,1,0,0	0,1,0,1	2,2,0,0	
C	5,0,0,0		3,1,1,0	
D	9,1,0,0	4,3,0,0	3,1,0,0	
E	2,1,0,0	4,1,0,0	3,2,0,0	
F			2,0,0,0	
G	0,0,1,0	2,0,0,0	3,2,0,0	
H	0,1,0,0		0,1,0,0	
I	4,1,0,1	2,0,0,0	0,3,0,0	

Table 8.7   Trainees' comments on monitoring students and error correction

8.3.1   *Monitoring students*

Practice teaching highlighted the vexing question of what to do while the students were engaged in an activity, whether it be oral or written. There were several different attitudes to monitoring students' activities, as shown below:

- sit down, let students work by selves, wait for them to ask
- walk around room, check that they are writing (something) but don't disturb
- walk around and force myself to read what they've written
- give them space at the beginning but check later

The question of monitoring students is closely linked to attitudes about error correction, with the inexperienced trainees being rather more hesitant than the experienced teachers. Trainee D voiced the least confident viewpoint:

"I didn't quite know when they were working if I was supposed to just go and sit down or how much interest I was supposed to be paying them .... If they did want to question me, I was close enough to be asked .... I just like every now and then to walk around to make sure".

Trainee B went a little further, saying

"I was just having a look to see if they were filling things in. If they'd done quite a bit of writing, I thought that was a sign they knew what they were doing. I thought if they'd got the first bit, I was pretty sure they'd get it right".

Trainee A revealed another problem, "I don't actually focus on what they've written down .... I've got to tell myself to read it". Trainee F, who was a little more experienced, had worked out her tactics whereby she could come to some sort of a compromise,

"I didn't want them to feel that I was standing over them criticising them - I gave them a bit of space. I went around and checked later - I hoped that they would ask if they weren't sure".

8.3.2   *Error Correction*

Since error correction was one facet that Davis (1990) highlighted as a weakness of trainees, it suggests that it is very important for all trainees to at least view a video followed by discussion on this topic. In the present study both groups of students watched the same video segment which dealt with error correction, but the extent to which this was carried over into teaching is debatable. Most of the inexperienced trainees took quite full notes on the different kinds of correction that different students in the video clip wanted and several observed that it seemed that you could not suit everyone. The more experienced trainees and the oldest trainee, however, tended to make a general comment without the details that the others noted. On the other hand, although there were very few comments about error correction during classroom observations, one of the most comprehensive of these did come from one of the most experienced teachers. Not only did Trainee I note whether or not corrections were made, she also noted what type of error it was and how it was dealt with in the class or was to be dealt with in the future. In fact, she wrote herself a checklist of errors that students had made, which seems a good way to get oneself attuned to possible errors of ESL learners. This was not required nor did any other trainee do this, which makes it all the more significant. Only one other trainee mentioned how class teachers dealt with error correction.

Gebhard (1990) found that trainee teachers in a sixteen week practicum did not do much error correction at first, but that halfway through the practicum they had developed several strategies. It seems that the trainees in the current study were experiencing the same reluctance or confusion over error correction. Given the mixed messages as to the how, when, what and why of error correction sent by the video, which were in some cases backed up in classroom observations, it is little surprise that trainees seemed confused and diffident in this area. Trainee A observed that,

"The teacher would often leave corrections until after the learner had finished speaking except when a learner was having obvious difficulty and needed correction to continue",

so it is not surprising that, in one class, he "was trying to leave most of the corrections until afterwards". However, during stimulated recall, he revealed that he hit an unanticipated snag when he asked students to write their sentences on the board because

he thought that "writing it on the board makes it worthwhile". However, he had "wanted to check the students' work before they wrote it on the board". He then realised that

> "As I was going around, it was my chance to correct all the sentences .... so when they were up on the board, they would be nice and wonderful but it didn't work".

Berliner (1987:70) found that postulants (untrained teachers) were

> more concerned about the impact of their actions on individual students. They mentioned that they did not want to embarrass shy students or to be seen as making unfair demands on students. The protocols led us to believe that they simply wanted to get to know the students and to help them as much as possible.

This explanation could well account for the actions of the inexperienced trainees, in particular, during their teaching practice. During peer teaching Trainee A had already articulated a commonly-held worry for the inexperienced trainees, which may be related to what they perceived as the most important needs of the students. In an attempt to keep the classroom as stress-free and pleasant as possible, it was important to "help out students when they needed it, without making them feel self-conscious" and "correct mistakes tactfully and remind them of the structure". For the younger trainees, especially, this seems to be linked to their own recent experience as students when they felt threatened by the presence of a teacher. As Trainee B explained, "I don't like peering over too much because then they feel self-conscious". There were several different approaches to finding a solution to this problem. Trainee A tried to read what students were writing from in front, whereas Trainee E "usually tried to stand beside students", and Trainee D either walked around a little or sat down at the front and felt a little uncertain about the best thing to do. In fact, her comments suggest someone who wants to do the "right thing" (whatever that may be) rather than someone who has developed any beliefs about the reason for acting in a certain way.

While the experienced teachers did not make so many comments about errors, this seems to be because for them there is no question as to whether to correct or not. Trainees F and G both made short comments on grammatical items that they had had to correct as they came up or that they intended to pick up the next day. Trainee I commented further on why she had ignored some errors during a class, even though it was a point that she had been specifically working on.

> "In the feedback I tried to look at the intonation. We'd talked about intonation, so I saw this as a practical session for going over that. I know there were a couple of mispronunciations but I thought, 'Hang on a minute, that's not the focus of this lesson, let's not be critical and it's great that they're out there'. If it was a class that I was with a lot, I might say 'Let's go back and polish it up'."

8.4 COMMUNICATION

This category includes what the trainees described as effective communication, the giving of instructions and explanations, as well as different features of teacher talk. Table 8.8 shows the number and depth of the comments attributed to this feature in the initial interviews, after the trainees had observed videos and classroom teachers, after the teaching practice sessions, both peer and class, that the trainees carried out, and the comments that the various tutors made after watching the class practice teaching. As can be seen from the number and depth of the tutors' comments this is an area where tutors make many suggestions to the trainees in the hope that the trainees may be able to follow them up in the next teaching practice. An examination of the tutors' comments pertaining to this facet of the present study backs up the claim that there was quite a substantial difference between the experienced and the inexperienced trainees. The tutors made many more suggestions for improvement to the inexperienced trainees whereas they congratulated the experienced trainees more on what they were doing. For example, when the same tutor observed two trainees, one of her written comments to inexperienced H was, "You need to be very directive and the students need to be involved earlier", whereas, for experienced G, she wrote, "Very good at giving examples to explain the task".

Trainee	Initial	Observe	Teaching	Tutors	Final
A	2,0,0	8,3,1,1,1	14,8,3	11,3,1	2,1,0
B	1,0,0	11,2,1,0,0	13,2,0	14,11,0	1,0,0
C	0,3,0	15,2,0,0,1	5,3,0	4,10,0	0,1,0
D	3,0,0	13,2,1,0,0	12,6,1	8,4,1	2,2,0
E	1,0,0	2,3,2,0,0	10,1,3	2,8,0	
F	1,1,0	1,0,2,0,0	4,1,0	8,5,0	
G		8,0,1,0,0	3,1,0	10,3,0	
H	1,0,0	3,2,0,0,0	12,5,0	7,5,1	
I		7,4,0,0,0	3,0,0	6,3,0	

Table 8.8   Trainees' comments on communication issues

The many instances of instructions and explanations noted during observations occurred both in video-viewing and in classroom observations. One section of one of the videos was centred around the giving of instructions and one of the sections on the observation guide, which was filled out after observations, directed the trainees to watch for specific instructions that the teacher used. This suggests that some of the comments made about instructions and explanations, in particular, may be as a result of this influence rather

than the trainees' natural inclination to notice instructions, although Trainee B's report in his initial questionnaire that a good teacher "should be able to give clear and concise explanations" would suggest that he was already well aware of this aspect.

At the beginning of the course trainees had mostly fairly general concerns about:
- whether they would be able to communicate effectively
- whether they would be able to get their message across
- how they would interact with the students
- whether they would be able to get the students to participate.

However, there were two specific worries, one trainee worrying whether the students would be able to understand her English accent while another trainee worried about whether the age of the students would make it more difficult to communicate with them well.

8.4.1   *Input and output*

Table 8.9 shows the different features that were noticed by the trainees during the two different observation phases, which features were mentioned by the trainees in their self-evaluation after teaching (often as being problematic in this phase), and finally whether the tutors mentioned them. It is obvious that those noticed during observation are much fewer than those mentioned once teaching had begun. This may be due to the fact that observation took place at the beginning of the course and trainees were overwhelmed, as suggested by Johnson (1992), so that they could only focus on a few things, or it could be that they realised what else was important once they began teaching.

A key point in the giving of instructions, that most of the trainees appeared to observe, was the clarity. This was further explained by some trainees as:
- the use of simple words
- conciseness ("instead of twenty words, five" - Trainee D speaking of teacher C)
- the use of gestures to reinforce the message
- an awareness of how many instructions the students could cope with at once
- repetition of instructions
- speaking at a slower pace to aid comprehension
- checking that students had actually understood the instructions.

Several trainees also discussed the advantages and disadvantages of a situation where the teacher knows the native language of a monolingual class.

Feature	Observe	Observe	Teaching	Teaching	Tutors
	Video	Class	Peer	Class	
Simplicity	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Clarity	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Speed	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Repetitions	✓	✓	x	x	✓
Examples	x	✓	✓	✓	✓
Body language	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Unclear expectation	✓	x	x	x	x
Open questions	✓	x	x	x	✓
Talk too much	✓	x	x	✓	✓
Use another language	✓	x	x	x	x
Conciseness	✓	✓	✓	x	✓
Verbal before written	x	✓	x	✓	x
Check understanding	x	✓	x	x	✓
Use of board	x	✓	x	✓	✓
Vocab level	x	✓	✓	x	✓
Getting attention	x	✓	x	✓	✓
Use of humour	✓	✓	x	✓	x
Exact words	x	x	✓	✓	✓
Time	x	✓	✓	x	x?
Amount of material	x	x	✓	✓	x
Depth of material	x	x	✓	✓	✓
Personal habits	x	x	✓	x	✓
Getting point across	x	x	✓	✓	x
Voice too soft	x	x	✓	x	✓
Involving students	x	x	✓	✓	x
Want to do better	x	x	x	✓	x
Length of explanation	x	x	✓	✓	✓
Difficult explanations	x	x	x	✓	✓
Textbook instructions	x	x	x	✓	✓
Worksheet instructions	x	x	x	✓	✓
Ss lack of knowledge	x	x	x	✓	x
Misunderstanding	x	x	x	✓	x

Table 8.9   Different types of communication noted by trainees at various times

Peer teaching was the first opportunity for the trainees to put into practice what they had apparently learned from the videos as far as communicating with students was concerned. There appeared to be some differences between the experiences of the inexperienced and the experienced teachers among the trainees, both in what they commented on and the number and the depth of their comments. The inexperienced trainees found problems with:

- exactly how they were going to give explanations
- how much detail to give
- the necessity for examples
- how much they could teach at once
- controlling their speed and clarity of speech.

Some found that they had not thought carefully enough about exactly what they were going to say. Trainee D wrote in her self-evaluation, "I needed to think more about exactly what I was going to say", whereas Trainee E found that although he had carefully planned what to say, he had recall problems: "I should try to look at the lesson plan less". The actual detail necessary in giving instructions was commented on by Trainee C, "Next time I would spend more time on the introduction and explain the instructions in more detail". This was backed up by Trainee E, who revealed that the "explanation itself (was) good but I need more and better examples". One method of providing examples that he had thought of was, "I should use more resources eg pictures, OHPs". Trainee E also showed how he had had to realise the quantity to teach at once and how to do it. He had decided that he should "introduce more aspects of the tense (and) try to explain why this tense is different to other tenses".

While most of the trainees felt that they did not give deep enough explanations, the experienced teachers had the opposite experience. Trainee F wrote, "I spent too long revising and explaining the grammar", while Trainee G was advised by a tutor to "try to keep your instructions as clear and as brief as possible - very good at giving examples but sometimes you give too much information". However, even the experienced teachers noticed the occasional personal habit, such as that revealed by Trainee I (after watching herself on video): "I used 'okay' more times than I should have during the early part". The comments made by all the trainees suggests that the observations had, at least, helped them to critique their teaching and pinpoint areas that they needed to work on - in other words, they were beginning to act like reflective teachers.

It seemed that peer teaching gave the trainees the necessary opportunity to smooth off some of the rough edges before they faced classes with real students. However, there were varying degrees of success for a number of different reasons, almost certainly

including a lack of confidence and experience. The effect of experience is quite obvious in this respect. The two very experienced teachers made few comments about communications, the trained teacher who had taught for less than one year picked out a few minor areas to work on, whereas the inexperienced trainees all identified many different features that they felt needed improvement (and some of their comments did reflect improvement from one lesson to the next). The giving of instructions, in particular instructions before beginning a worksheet, or instructions concerning exactly how to carry out an activity, explaining difficult grammatical areas and controlling the speed, volume and amount of their communication were the focus of the trainees' comments.

8.4.2 *Instructions*

The art of giving instructions is crucial in teaching and trainees seemed to be quite aware of their importance. They were often able to pinpoint exactly where their problems lay. Trainee D explained, "I have to give clearer, more simpler instructions ...... Instruction giving is a skill I need to work on".

One of the most difficult concepts seemed to be what it was appropriate to do before the students started on a worksheet with written instructions. Should they leave the class to read them for themselves, give a separate explanation and examples or should they read exactly what it said on the worksheet? Trainee D's approach was,

> "When I gave them the worksheet I didn't worry too much about explaining it clearly to them because I thought they looked as if they had the hang of it .... Maybe I should have explained the 'is' and the 'are' - that structure".

This was similar to Trainee E's approach when he used several exercises in a workbook that had been prepared by his associate teacher. On earlier teaching occasions his instruction-giving had been good but now it suddenly let him down, which suggests that the preparation of the materials actually entails thinking about how to present them. In such situations tutors often wrote comments, such as,

> "You didn't really do enough 'teaching' before the class started on the worksheet but you did work very well on an individual basis".

Another distinctive area of instruction-giving that caused some problems was when the trainee had developed an innovative activity which called for careful explanation. Trainee H devised a good activity for reinforcing articles of clothing but did not convey her expectations clearly enough to the class. As she explained,

"The idea was, they were in pairs, one called out some articles of clothing and the other had two minutes to draw it - it was just a quick thing but they didn't get that message. My instructions were not clear enough, I didn't spell it out enough. They drew very carefully and slowly".

She then went on to draw a contrast between her experience and what she had noticed with the tutors on the course and her associate teachers.

"When tutors give us lessons, the activities are very clear cut and flow on nicely - here the edges were very blurred. Maybe it would have been better to just stop and say, 'Now we are going to do this.' V and C have both been clear cut and students know what they are about to do."

What she failed to take into account was that, while the trainees have thought long and carefully about what they want the students to do, the students are hearing about the activity for the first time and have no background knowledge. Consequently, instructions must be thought out very carefully.

8.4.3 *Explanations*

As has already been described in section 6.4.3, grammatical explanations in these short courses are likely to cause problems, largely because of the trainees' inexperience and possible lack of depth in subject matter knowledge. The following problems were identified during the current study:

- the class did not understand immediately
- the trainee explained in a rather detailed, long-winded manner

  the trainee's knowledge was thoroughly tested by the students
- the trainee could not explain exactly.

Even when trainees had thought everything through clearly, it was no guarantee that the class would be trouble-free as Trainee A discovered:

"I thought my explanation wasn't good enough so I had to go on (explaining). I was aware of where the problem could come in because I had thought so hard about how to explain it and how to make sense of it."

In some classes trainees found that their own understanding of grammar was put to the test, as happened with Trainee E in a class on the definite article. The observing tutor wrote,

"You got asked some very difficult questions and I was impressed with the way that you handled them - you seemed to 'keep your cool' very well. You were able to explain each point concisely".

Sometimes trainees found that, "It was hard explaining why mistakes were wrong" or "I didn't know how to explain that" (Trainee A). A final problem with explanations was

that trainees sometimes found it hard to explain points in words that were suitable for the level of the class. At such times tutors sometimes had to tactfully suggest how to pitch it at the right level without appearing to talk down to the students. One method that some trainees used to overcome worries about explanations, was to make sure that students always went away with correct examples written down or to provide a handout with the main points listed on it.

8.4.4   *Voice*

The trainees, especially the inexperienced trainees, in the current study experienced several difficulties when speaking to students because of the speed and volume of their voice or the amount of talking that they did. Some trainees, such as Trainee A, began the course knowing that he had a tendency to speak fast when under stress. He continued to be aware of this problem and tried to curb his tendency, succeeding in the end, albeit for a rather novel reason.

> "If I get nervous I talk faster, yeah, it's a big problem, so I've got to get much more confident, slow down and learn everyone's name .... I'm still talking too fast ... I've got to slow down ... By the end, I was more tired, so I slowed down quite a lot".

Others seemed less aware of such problems and relied on tutors to give feedback, such as was given to Trainee H: "You had attempted to give them a model but you spoke too fast and they'd missed it. You've got quite a soft voice, too, which can be reassuring but is too soft for the whole group". For some trainees there was also a fear of going too far the other way. As Trainee D reported,

> "I didn't want to speak unnaturally slow because that sounds weird .... but I don't know how to slow down without sounding unnatural - I haven't figured that one out yet. I wasn't sure whether it's the gap between words, gap between sentences or between paragraphs".

However, the most common problem of all (and one which sometimes affected the more experienced teachers also), was that of excessive teacher talk, when teaching is almost equated with lecturing to the class rather than allowing the class time to process and try out the new information. This accounted for many of the tutors' comments, but it was also a feature that trainees took on board and attempted to come to terms with. One reason that it was a difficult area for the trainee to solve was that, especially in such a short period of practice teaching, it was often difficult to be sure how a class would respond. As Trainee B reported after one of his classes,

> "There was no hostility .... I didn't really enjoy it as I couldn't get anything from the students and didn't really know how to get them out of their shells. (In addition) I misinterpreted the level of their English".

The associate teacher analysed what had happened slightly differently, pointing out that he "had to say a lot more because the students weren't responding".

8.5   SUMMARY

It is in this chapter that the greatest differences between the experienced teachers and the inexperienced trainees have become apparent. The experienced teachers have already developed a number of routines for class management, recognising and meeting student needs and maintaining effective communication with students, but all of these areas are new to the inexperienced trainees, who must do their best to come to terms with them at the same time as learning how to prepare effective ESL lessons which will result in student learning.

While both groups of trainees wanted to meet the needs of the students, the experienced trainees realised that being sure that the class was learning something was more important than merely entertaining them. They were also far more decisive in class management issues, such as grouping students to work together, which had the effect of giving them better control of the class. Whereas the inexperienced trainees were more worried about offending the students, the experienced teachers saw the first priority as making sure that the students were carrying out their work correctly so that they could be sure that learning was taking place. The experienced teachers seemed to be at an advantage even when using new technology, possibly because they could transfer their knowledge that it was necessary to try out something thoroughly before using it or that they were better able to predict what could go wrong.

Not surprisingly, the inexperienced trainees had a lot to learn about giving instructions and explanations, and how to use their voice when talking to a group of students. While they could be seen to be struggling through these issues, the experienced teachers were able to add the finishing touches to a skill that they had already cultivated. One implication of such differences could be that experienced teachers are at such a huge advantage over inexperienced trainees that it is unfair to have them attending the same course. Whether this is, in fact, correct will be explored further in the next chapter.

CHAPTER NINE

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

This chapter discusses and interprets the results presented in the previous three chapters. The trainees' emerging beliefs are presented in diagrammatic form and an explanation is given as to the individual differences between trainees' development of beliefs and acquisition of teaching skills during the course.
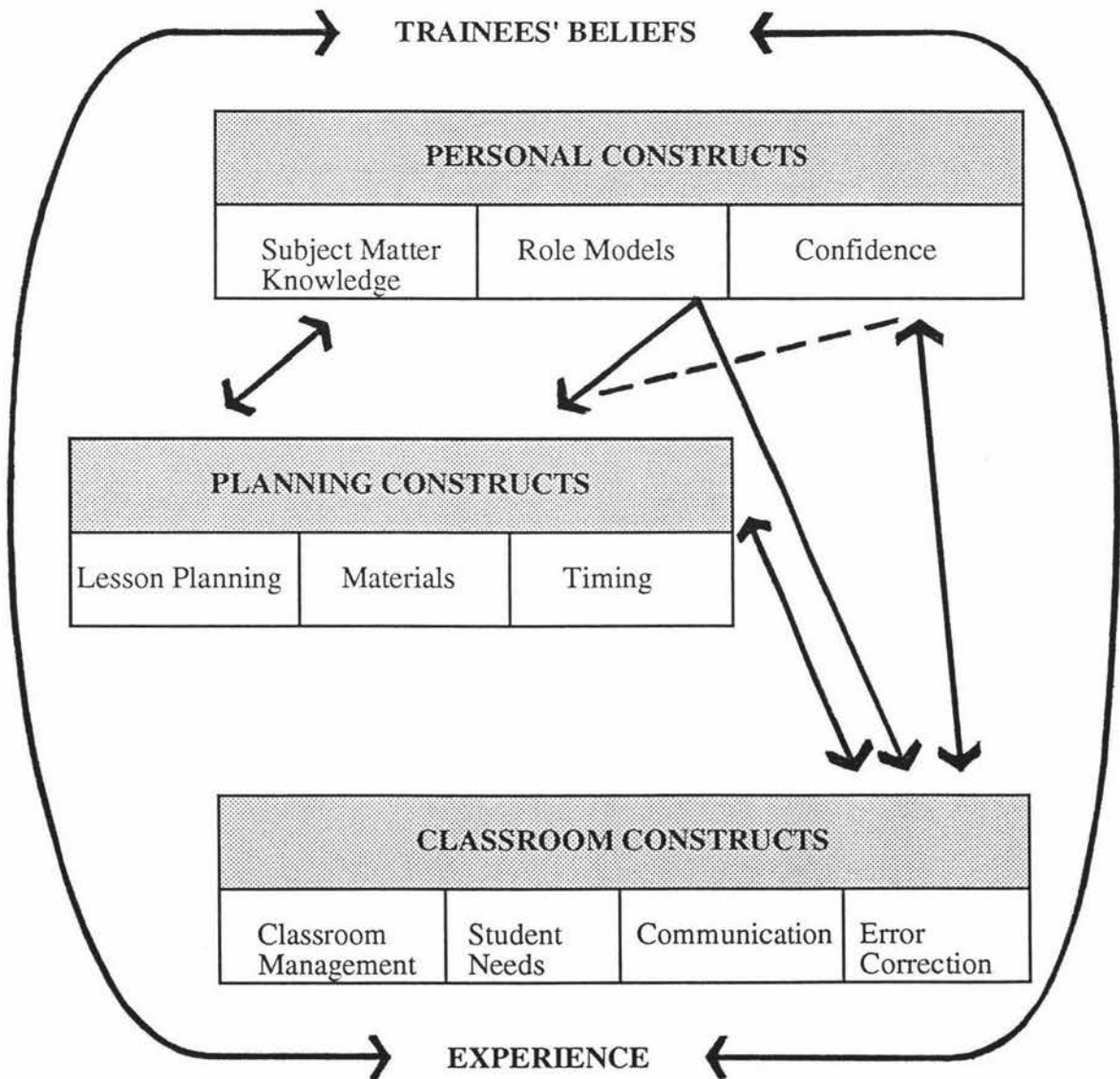

Figure 9.1   Interrelating constructs and the place of experience in teacher trainees' beliefs

9.1 *The development of trainees' beliefs during the course*

As presented in the previous three chapters, trainees were observed to be developing beliefs about teaching which were grouped into three sets of constructs. While each of the three sets of constructs was presented in detail in individual chapters, the full set is presented in this chapter, in diagrammatic form, to show how they interact both with each other and with the wider relationship between trainees' beliefs and their present and future experience.

The extent to which the three different sets of constructs of teacher trainees' emerging beliefs interact with each other and are subsequently influenced by experience are presented in Figure 9.1. Personal constructs have been built up over some years but are still undergoing modification at the beginning of the four-week course. Subject matter knowledge, which has often been considerably enlarged during the distance learning component, has a major effect on the planning constructs with the double-ended arrow acknowledging that subject matter knowledge itself is often refined as a result of planning. The role models that trainees bring to a teacher preparation programme can influence both the amount and type of planning that trainees undertake as well as possibly affecting all of the classroom constructs. A trainee's confidence has the greatest effect on classroom constructs, but there is also a minor effect on what sort of lessons the trainees plan and the type of materials and corresponding activities that they choose. Again, confidence has a double-ended arrow, with success in classroom constructs leading to improved confidence, while a greater level of confidence prior to teaching can lead to more success in the classroom. In addition, there is considerable interaction between the planning and classroom constructs with nearly all components having some effect on the others. The outer circle demonstrates that beliefs are not constant but continually changing due to experience, starting with a teacher preparation programme and, optimally, continuing ad infinitum, which concurs with Pennington's (1990:132) adage that, "A distinguishing characteristic of the notion of teaching as a profession is the centrality of career growth as an ongoing goal".

While all trainees developed beliefs within similar areas, as represented above, individual trainees developed at different speeds and in slightly different ways. This is in line with thinking about the differences between teacher training and teacher development. The teacher training model, according to Parker (1991:141), "is product-focused" and should "deliver a pre-determined product", which will stand them in good stead (with no necessity for change) for the rest of their teaching days. It could be suggested that some trainees in the current study were more prepared for the training approach, expecting to be told exactly how to teach, and did not appear to develop many teaching beliefs. These trainees, such as Trainees D and H, had difficulty in

coping with the overwhelming number of decisions that inexperienced trainees find they have to make, which echoes Johnson's (1992) finding. Trainee D commented near the end of the course that she would like to go back and observe teachers again, as she felt by then that she was ready to pick up hints whereas at first, as suggested by Calderhead (1989), she had not known what to look for. Trainee H, on the other hand, could be seen to be almost withdrawing into herself and wrote very little in the way of reflective comments (as did Grenfell's (1998) weakest subject) as she attempted to last out the course. Her lack of understanding of the students and problems with structuring lessons were graphically obvious during the stimulated recall session.

The teacher development model is "less involved with transmitting models of effective practice and more concerned with providing experiences that facilitate the development of cognitive and interpretative skills, which are used uniquely by every teacher" (Richards 1998:81). Some of the trainees were seen to be developing quite strong beliefs, as exemplified by their choice and exploitation of materials to achieve certain ends in their teaching. Trainee I, in particular, showed great perception in choosing specific materials and activities to suit the level of the class. Trainee C also, especially with her second class, showed an encouraging awareness of how the class was coping with the material and what she could have done to improve the lesson. Four of the trainees were found to have developed significantly more than the others, as is discussed in Section 9.2.3.

9.2   INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES IN TRAINEES' DEVELOPMENT

It was evident that trainees in the present study developed at quite different rates, either due to prior experience (not necessarily of teaching) or due to some personal characteristic or ambition, which seemed to help them come to grips with the important concepts in the course more quickly and, as a result, develop beliefs about teaching more rapidly. As Berliner (1987:81) points out,

> many individuals who do not yet have much experience probably need less of it than we first imagined. There do seem to exist some motivated, reflective, novice and postulant teachers who are likely to excel quickly in their profession .... (but) other novices and postulants .... may have a long road ahead of them.

9.2.1 *Similarities among trainees*

During the course of this study it became obvious that all the trainees were similar in several ways. First of all, it must be acknowledged that trainees did not begin the course on an equal footing in many respects, such as age, qualifications, experience etc as outlined in section 5.3.2. However, all were native English speakers, all had satisfied

the selection criteria to undertake the course, all had completed the distance learning modules before attending the four-week on-campus course and all were successful in being granted certification. They can, thus, be described as similar. These similarities can, in turn, be categorised (as shown in Table 9.1) into those that existed before the on-campus course and those that became increasingly obvious as teaching practice took place.

Pre-teaching Similarities	Teaching Practice Similarities
• Displayed lack of knowledge about ESL teaching • Role models not suitable for ESL teaching • Not confident about ESL teaching	• Experienced some difficulty mastering subject matter knowledge • Experienced some difficulty explaining grammatical details to students • Found planning language lessons difficult • Frustrated by not knowing students

Table 9.1   Similarities among trainees

From the researcher's perspective, the trainees displayed a surprising lack of knowledge about ESL teaching, which reflects Johnson's (1994:450) finding that "candidates approach practica with inadequate knowledge of pupils and classroom procedures". Only Trainee A had visited a language school; Trainee C had been asked to teach English by private individuals while overseas and Trainee F had taught in Europe twenty years earlier, but neither appeared to have sought any knowledge of how ESL was taught at present; others had heard about it from friends or knew that it was what many New Zealanders did overseas to support themselves on working holidays; even Trainee I, who was living in China, did not have any knowledge of how EFL was taught there, although she acknowledged that it was important for her future. Some trainees obviously expected that their own language learning would be advantageous for ESL teaching, but, because they had not recognised that there could be differences between learning a language in a school or university situation, as opposed to learning as an adult under possibly quite different conditions, it is debatable whether this was a valid analogy. Likewise, the role models that the trainees appeared to bring to the course with them should be treated with caution. As was shown in Section 6.2.1, not even half of the role models were language teachers. Richards (1987) points out that teaching languages is different from teaching other subjects, which suggests that role models for aspiring ESL trainees should be language teachers, preferably ESL teachers. While it must be acknowledged that during the courses on which this study was based associate teachers became very important role models, it would seem important for trainees to

become familiar with the situation of ESL teaching and what attributes it is important for an ESL teacher to possess.

The mastery of subject matter knowledge was quite a hurdle for all the trainees, except the oldest one who had learned English in a more traditional way at school. Many of them discovered that English was far more complex then they, as native speakers, had realised. Some trainees were able to see the language awareness components as a challenge to be overcome and those who had undertaken more language study seemed to be at a slight advantage. However, one trainee, who had learned no other languages and who identified English as a personal weakness, became quite belligerent in her comments during the distance learning modules, claiming that certain tenses did not exist! The fact that this was an experienced teacher is reminiscent of Harmer's (1988:13) claim that "trainees with experience have some difficulties to face" as their positive self-images are shaken until their subject matter knowledge reaches the level necessary for teaching. Not only did the trainee in question overcome the problem, she (together with the other experienced teacher) had no hesitation in identifying her lack of subject matter knowledge as being her greatest weakness and, by the end of the course, she had gained a lot more expertise and confidence in this area.

The peer-teaching sessions gave the trainees their first introduction to lesson planning, which none found particularly easy, despite, but sometimes because of, the short period of time (5 - 10 minutes). Even the experienced teachers were not at an initial advantage, as they had to grapple with their new-found subject matter knowledge and convert it into pedagogical content knowledge. Although their planning sheet suggested that they should write down exactly what they were going to say, few wrote more than one sentence at first, but later several showed that they had realised that part of planning was thinking about the exact words, even if it seemed a rather artificial thing to do. While all trainees seemed to have similar initial problems with planning, it soon became obvious that some were better at structuring and sequencing activities than others. In addition, they were better able to pinpoint the cause of problems that arose, so that they could avoid them in the future.

Once practice teaching began all trainees had to explain grammatical points, which none found easy. There were various responses to these difficulties. Some seemed to have the capacity to think through a lesson more clearly than others and realise the various pitfalls, so that "the teacher's intentions are clear and instructional activities are sequenced according to a logic and structure that students can perceive" (Richards, 1990:10). Some made sure that they had the backup of a grammar book or alternative activities, in case the lesson did not go according to plan. There were also those who,

like the student teachers investigated by Johnson (1996) and Numrich, (1996) appeared to teach only what they felt safe in teaching, and either discouraged questions about details or completely avoided mentioning the details. This situation was almost certainly exacerbated by the trainees' lack of knowledge of the students they were teaching. All trainees made comments such as:

"I had little knowledge of the skill level of the class, so I had to be careful";

"My interaction with the students is improving as they are getting used to me";

"If you have your own class, you know how far you can sidetrack";

"There is a lack of continuity";

"One hour is not long enough to teach them and make sure they have it perfect".

Given the wide-ranging situations that ESL teachers may find themselves in, it would also seem important for them to learn as much as possible about different teaching methods utilised in various countries. During the course trainees see photos and descriptions of the teaching conditions that former trainees are now 'enjoying', but this has only minimal impact. At the end of the first course, the researcher asked those who were planning to go overseas what their expectations were of teaching conditions in other countries. Both Trainees A and C believed that they could follow local expectations, initially at least, but indicated that they hoped that, after a while, they would be able to instigate changes to suit them better if necessary. They also indicated that they did not think that they could prepare more in New Zealand, but needed to gain experience and learn from other teachers.

9.2.2 *Differences between experienced teachers and inexperienced trainees*

> While a teacher education programme might be built around a well-articulated model of teaching, the model is interpreted in different ways by different trainee teachers as they deconstruct it in the light of their teaching experiences and reconstruct it drawing on their own beliefs and assumptions about themselves. language, teaching learners, and learning (Richards, 1998:72).

In the current study, one of the most obvious differences between the nine subjects was their prior experience of teacher training and teaching. The deeper the researcher delved into their comments and attitudes, the more obvious it was that such experience did, indeed, make a difference to the way that they were able to approach the course, "deconstruct and reconstruct" it. The differences that were identified between the experienced teachers and the inexperienced trainees are summarised in Table 9.2.

Experienced	Inexperienced
Realised importance of knowing subject matter thoroughly	Only some realised importance of knowing subject matter thoroughly
More confident from previous teaching	Some confident, others not
Prior experience of planning made them aware of how to plan	Had to learn how to plan
More likely to change lesson according to progress	Not so confident about changing plans
Tended to exploit materials well	Used many materials, not thoroughly
Seemed more relaxed with students	Not so used to students, more diffident
Planned better to meet students needs	Not confident about planning for students
Used students' names better	Only some used students' names
Focused more on what students learned	Focused more on student enjoyment
Grouped students quickly and easily	Not so sure about grouping students
Did not hesitate to move furniture	Less likely to move furniture
Monitored students automatically	Not sure about monitoring students
Saw error correction as necessary	Did not want to embarrass students by correcting them
Generally good communication skills	Had to learn how to communicate well

Table 9.2 **Differences between experienced teachers and inexperienced trainees**

Johnson (1992b:129) suggests that preservice teachers need to recognise the "routines and patterns which experienced ESL teachers rely on to lessen the number of conscious decisions necessary during instruction". None of the trainees in the present study were experienced ESL teachers, but there were two very experienced teachers in other areas and one trainee who had completed a primary teacher preparation programme and had taught for several months. These three were at an obvious advantage compared to the other trainees, especially, as might be expected, in terms of class management routines, which showed up in the way that they had thought about appropriate groupings of students and rearrangement of furniture for activities, gave clear, unambiguous instructions in a voice at a good volume and speed, used students' names and monitored students carefully.

Even though all trainees shared the difficulty of having to discover the most appropriate way to teach certain points about the English language, it was obvious that the experienced teachers had a "bag of tricks" comprising "strategies judged to be successful in the past" (Bailey, 1996:37), which they could recycle (with changes) at certain times. This "bag of tricks" seemed to be used when planning. While the experienced trainees still took a lot of time to plan carefully, they appeared to be able to transfer the foundations of planning to the new subject area, so that their lesson plans were based on what they thought the students needed, especially in terms of types and sequencing of activities (some of which may have been based on activities used with other classes but given an 'ESL' flavour). Even though experienced Trainee I claimed that she was not good at planning, her planning proved to be much better than most of the inexperienced trainees, maybe because she was putting passive prior knowledge into practice. It is interesting to note that Trainee A, in recent personal communication with the researcher, has revealed that the thorough planning that he exhibited on the course has been severely curtailed, partly due to time constraints and partly because it seems to have served its purpose of helping him to think through issues, which have now obviously become routinised for him.

Whereas all trainees expressed frustrations about not knowing their students well, it was the experienced trainees who were best able to take in details about individuals (for example, who was shy, who was a disruptive influence), and allow for those differences in their planning. Trainee I, an experienced teacher, deliberately gave a certain role play to students based on personality attributes she had noticed and on requests they had made, whereas even the better inexperienced trainees had few strategies for dealing with the needs of individual students, although they were aware of the differences. This may be similar to the finding by Conway and Milmine (1998) that experienced teachers focused more on teaching issues, whereas the inexperienced trainees observed from the learner's point of view. This may explain why, when teaching, a novice trainee was content to ignore a disruptive student but an experienced teacher immediately separated her from certain others. In addition, the experienced trainees proved to be much more decisive about how to group students for various activities and whether to rearrange the classroom furniture.

All trainees experienced some difficulties in finding appropriate material for lessons but, once they had found something, the experienced teachers again were able to use their experience as well as hints given on the course for means of fully exploiting the material. Such prior experience was almost certainly responsible for their conviction that to teach something they had to understand it well, which was the reason that they both acknowledged and tried to remedy their lack of subject matter knowledge.

Whereas all trainees showed an anxiety about whether students enjoyed their class, the experienced teachers were far more likely to try to ensure that learning took place. The experienced teachers checked on what was being learned by monitoring students quite carefully, whereas the inexperienced trainees were more concerned that they might embarrass the students by checking on what they were doing. It could be suggested that the inexperienced trainees were more concerned with getting on with the students so that they would feel well-disposed towards them, as suggested by their own descriptions of teachers that they remembered, with the result that the trainees would feel more confident. Trainee D showed her inexperience by worrying that students might think that she was boring, whereas Trainee G showed her experience by moving students to maximise learning.

9.2.3 *Why did some trainees develop more?*

Several trainees (A, B, C and I) seemed to develop deeper and stronger beliefs about teaching than others during the course. Table 9.3 summarises the main attributes of those trainees.

Successful attributes
Confidence in selves
Clear idea about future plans
Determination to succeed
Not afraid to self-criticise
Brought clear ideas to the course about language learning
Ability to reflect accurately on lessons
More thorough in lesson preparation
Can follow up on suggestions from observers
Try hard to appreciate students' point of view

Table 9.3 Attributes shared by the most successful trainees

These trainees represented a mix of backgrounds and characteristics: there were both males and females, (two of each coincidentally); two recent graduates and two older, experienced (only one in teaching) trainees; three had travelled reasonably extensively while the fourth had studied two languages and visited Japan briefly; one had taught in an English kindergarten in China while another had studied French while living in French Canada. Therefore, their backgrounds did not suggest that they should

necessarily develop as teachers more quickly than others with similar characteristics on the courses. What, then, did appear to account for this phenomenon?

Confidence in one's abilities to achieve if one works hard is a well-known factor of success and it certainly seemed to be important for these trainees. The confidence did not have to come from being an experienced teacher nor did it mean that these trainees were over-confident - as Trainee C revealed, "I am quietly confident because of my (business) experiences in the past but not stupid". This confidence fuelled the determination to succeed, which was, in turn, engendered by a reasonably clear vision of where they were heading in the future. Trainee C intended to return to Turkey where she had previously been asked to teach English; Trainee A wanted to continue his knowledge of Japanese language and customs by living in Japan and supporting himself by teaching English; Trainee B had a similar plan, although his immediate country of destination was France, but he also saw ESL as a means of earning money to allow him to spend several years overseas (after finishing his BA, which he hoped to pay for by teaching ESL at the local language centre); Trainee I was returning to China for a further year immediately after the course, but knew that to remain overseas and obtain further work a Cert. TESOL was a minimum requirement. Linked to this vision for their future were relatively clear ideas about what they needed from the course. This applied particularly to the two older trainees, who were very perceptive about their own weak areas and not afraid to expose them so that they could be helped to remedy them. The two younger trainees had quite extensive language learning backgrounds, which they used as a guide to their teaching needs.

These four trainees tended to be more thorough than others in terms of lesson planning and preparation, Trainees A and I writing extremely comprehensive lesson plans which included reminders to themselves. They also tended to write detailed and perceptive reflections after the lessons in which they did not hesitate to self-criticise where they felt it was justified. They tended to castigate themselves for making mistakes, whereas the weaker trainees minimised the mistake, thus avoiding responsibility. In later lessons, it was obvious that they had learned from earlier experiences or discussions with tutors or co-operating teachers, picking up what might have been quite minor tricks (eg writing instructions on the paper around the hand-outs or realising that in a group of three the weakest student is better to be in the middle) or planning lessons incorporating certain aspects, with specific students in mind, as they got to know the class better.

The other five trainees also shared some of the beliefs that these four trainees had developed but to a lesser degree. Since all subjects for this research passed the course,

all can be deemed to have been successful but, for these subjects, there appeared to be areas that needed further development. Trainee E's subject matter knowledge was tested and found to be excellent but his class management skills needed developing more. Trainee F was close to qualifying for the elite group but many of her beliefs were already developed before the course and further development, while necessary, may have been hampered by her lack of direction due to an uncertain future. Trainee G had made progress in her subject matter knowledge but was far from confident about coping with grammatical explanations. Trainees D and H had the most developing still to do. Both were carried along by the momentum of the course and managed to cover all the requirements, yet they often displayed few actual beliefs about teaching and one had the impression that they would have liked a recipe to follow, rather than having to plan lessons thoroughly for themselves. Trainee D, for example, was seen to use the same type of warmer each time that she taught one of her classes and this was the warmer that she had seen the co-operating teacher use, which suggests that she was using that lesson as a model, instead of reflecting on what was to be taught and the best type of lead-in to the main teaching point. In addition, neither of these two trainees exhibited much perception when reflecting on their lessons, not seeming to notice students' reactions to situations as well as displaying a disturbing lack of ability to use tutors' comments after one lesson to improve the next one. They also seemed to use their inexperience as an excuse rather than as a personal encouragement to undertake a slightly steeper learning curve. Maybe they had not developed what Wajnryb (1992:10) refers to as "the spirit of inquiry, the wish to reflect on one's own teaching (which) comes from within".

While an optimist would suggest that these trainees merely need more time to develop as teachers away from the acknowledged stresses and strains of the four-week course, these differences could be quite important. Grenfell (1998) points out at the conclusion of his study that, four years later, teachers were still teaching similarly to the way that they taught during training. Admittedly, this is a somewhat tenuous comparison as his trainees were undertaking a year-long course and, consequently, had a lot longer to develop their beliefs and teaching skills.

9.3   THE DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHING SKILLS

As this study is of an initial course, many of the findings relate to what Richards (1988, cited in Murphy, 1994) refers to as "low level kinds of tricks" as opposed to "the higher level dimensions of teaching". Although this is to be expected after such a short course, it will be shown that through the use of reflection, the basis, at least, for the higher level dimensions is formed.

9.3.1 *Low-level skills*

Both trainees and tutors commented on their development in the basic skills of teaching, which was evident from the first peer teaching sessions. These skills included the giving of instructions, the use of the board or the OHP, where a teacher should stand at different times, how to use their voices, the elicitation and presentation of information and controlling the time during the lesson. Richards, Ho and Giblin (1996) also found a similar concern among trainees in their study of a pre-service RSA course, but there was a major difference in that all of their trainees had had some prior teaching experience, so that none had to develop quite as much as several of the trainees in the present study. It should also be taken into consideration that development in low-level skills is very easy to observe in teaching and does form a focus of the observation sheets that the observer fills out.

It could be argued that an improvement in low-level skills gives the trainees the feeling of progress and a necessary boost to their confidence. Trainees often explained that they were, for example, writing on the board using small case letters after a recommendation to do so, or they were trying to slow down because they had been made aware of how quickly they were speaking. There were also instances where trainees were seen to be given the same advice by several tutors without appearing to improve, which is dealt with more fully in 9.2.3 above. In the final analysis, it must be remembered that these short courses give the trainees very few sessions of teaching practice to attempt to perfect these skills. Therefore, as Bailey (1996:37) points out, the post-lesson discussion with teachers, tutors and fellow-trainees, or the viewing of a videotape of the lesson, becomes increasingly important as an aid to learning and rapid development.

9.3.2 *High-level skills*

According to Richards (1990:226),

> The challenge for us in teacher education is to equip teachers with the conceptual and analytic tools they need to move beyond the level of skilled technicians and to become mature language teaching professionals,

but as Richards and Nunan (1990:xii) point out, the "higher-level cognitive processes ... cannot be taught directly". Indeed, it seems that this higher-level cognition evolves through experience and through reflection on teaching. In the current study, most of the evidence for the development of such processes came during interviews, in particular during the stimulated recall sessions, where trainees were explaining what and why they had planned, whether they changed their plan or altered it in any way, and reflected on how the lesson had gone and how this would affect their future teaching.

Those who did not show much evidence of higher-level cognition, chose activities because they thought the students might enjoy them rather than because they thought that they were educationally sound, and when things went wrong during the lesson, they were often unable to pinpoint the cause of the problem. In addition, their planning tended to be weak, showing a lack of ability to predict what the students might find difficult or not showing an awareness of the amount and differing levels of practice necessary for the students to grasp a concept completely. On the other hand, those who were obviously developing quite strong cognitive abilities, discussed planning in terms of how to help the students understand and practise structures in meaningful ways, they thought carefully about who should work with whom, they chose activities for sound pedagogical reasons, they were likely to change their plans as they realised that students needed more time and were still benefiting from the activities being undertaken, and they were looking forward to what they could do next to build on the current learning. In other words, they saw each lesson as part of a longer-term learning continuum whereas the weaker trainees tended to treat each lesson as a stand-alone entity, which is also understandable, given the short time-frame.

9.4   SUMMARY

This chapter began by presenting, in diagrammatic form, the trainees' beliefs which were shown to be divided into three sets of interrelated constructs, each comprising several different components. According to the diagram the trainees' beliefs are not static but are influenced as the trainees undergo further experience, which emphasises the continuing development throughout a teacher's career.

The differing development of the trainees in the present study was then discussed. It was shown that, although trainees are selected according to the same criteria and share certain similarities, there were already significant differences between trainees at the beginning of the course, which may partly account for the differing uptake during the course. It was found that experienced teachers were at a distinct advantage in the teaching practice, especially in classroom management, but also in lesson planning and material exploitation. This did not mean, however, that they necessarily developed better overall on the course. Their significant advantage was in the low-level skills, whereas it has been suggested that it is the higher-level cognition that signifies the long-term development of teachers.

In this study some trainees appeared to develop at a faster rate than others and common attributes shared by those trainees were isolated. It was suggested that confidence, determination and the ability to self-criticise are essential factors in the development of

teaching beliefs, especially on short courses. It also seemed that, while all trainees developed reasonable low-level skills, the weaker trainees were much less successful in developing the higher-level cognitive abilities essential for making decisions in teaching.

CHAPTER TEN

CONCLUSIONS

The current study has investigated the development of trainees' beliefs during a four-week initial teaching preparation course. While Richards, Ho and Giblin (1996) also studied aspects of this topic, the major difference with the current study is that some of these trainees were complete novices to teaching, which allowed research into exactly how much development was possible for complete novices as well as enabling a comparison between experienced teachers and complete novices. It is possible to draw a number of implications from the current study, including methodological and theoretical implications as well as practical implications for future courses and suggestions for further research in this area.

10.1   METHODOLOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

The current research used multiple means to investigate the development of trainees' emerging beliefs. While the written self-reflections and the tutors' observation sheets gave an indication of how the trainee was faring, they were to a large extent guided and did not necessarily give an accurate picture. Trainees could have been 'playing the game' (as reported by Bolin, 1990, and Francis, 1995), which seemed to be confirmed by the many simplistic comments, such as "a lot of time went into planning this lesson". In the present study a graded notation system was developed for the comments during the data analysis stage. This enabled differentiation between the simple, formulaic responses and the more thoughtful responses, which seemed to demonstrate reflection and were based on an emerging belief system. Some in-depth comments were recorded as a response to the observational videos or live observations of classroom teachers but the great majority came from interviews, in particular the stimulated recall sessions, where the researcher had the opportunity to delve deeper about the reasons for certain decisions, either planning or interactive. This suggests that the results from such studies could be more valid if as much data as possible was obtained through interviews rather than relying on questionnaires or strongly-guided written sources. In fact, on such a short course, the optimum situation would be for the researcher to be able to spend the entire four weeks (including breaks and time at the end of the day when casual discussions are likely to reveal progress, as described by Goodman, 1988) with the

trainees. This would give access to the planned, as well as some of the many incidental, sources of input that occur and the trainees' reaction to them.

A major question that remains at the conclusion of this study is the amount of help that was provided to individual trainees. The researcher was aware that the staff of the host institution were perhaps more co-operative as associate teachers than were staff from the other institutions where trainees carried out practice teaching. This has definite implications for the weaker trainees. If they were teamed with a co-operative teacher, they may have gained significant help in terms of backgrounding of the class as well as in the selection of material for the lesson and recommendations for activities, which could mean that some data may reflect the co-operating teacher's thoughts and beliefs rather than the trainee's. A second, and very important, area of help is in follow-up consultancy, which Bailey (1996) sees as being a decisive factor in teacher preparation. Therefore, it may be important to account for the amount of input that trainees have received outside the general input, especially if, as in the current study, an attempt is made to identify trainees who developed to a greater extent than others.

In addition, it is important that a researcher of a short course is as free as possible during the course to follow up on all leads offered, to transcribe tapes immediately and consider what those have suggested in tandem with the other documentation as it becomes available, so that all avenues can be explored fully. This is particularly important because most trainees are unavailable for follow-up discussions after the course.

The selection of subjects for research should also be questioned. In accordance with ethical procedures, in the current study only those who consented to participate were part of the study but this may distort the data. A major factor identified was that of confidence, yet this is obviously a factor that may lead to a trainee consenting or declining to becoming a subject. Similarly, a trainee's personality, which Grenfell (1998) and Harmer (1988) both suggest may be associated with feelings of success or failure and stress during preparation courses, may affect their willingness to participate in research. Therefore, it may be impossible to research all trainees, especially when some of the methodology could be interpreted as threatening.

10.2   THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS

The current research was undertaken because of the researcher's personal concerns about whether the four-week courses were providing the teacher preparation that they purported to be offering. While the results would suggest that at least some of the

trainees finish the course with basic beliefs about teaching and have developed some means for continuing their development, there may be others who envisage themselves as being "'qualified' after a course lasting only a few weeks ... (which) is absurd" (Lewis, 1993:189). Here, there appear to be two theoretical implications. The first is the relationship between theory and practice, with arguments still raging over the amount of each which should be included. It would seem, as Richardson (1992) points out, that it must be remembered that these are initial courses only and claim to be no more. Thus, although a mere six hours of teaching may appear to be less than adequate to develop teaching skills let alone beliefs about teaching, this is not intended to be an end to all development.

The other theoretical implication concerns at what point someone is recognised as being a qualified and competent teacher. This may well be part of a larger argument over qualifications for ESL teachers in New Zealand. Different institutions have very different expectations of what basic qualification is necessary. For example, ESL teachers in secondary schools, which have experienced a great upsurge in ESL students and which boast that they have well-qualified staff, are expected to be certificated by the Teacher Registration Board, but there is no guarantee that they have received any formal ESL training as English teachers are often assumed to be able to teach ESL. Language schools, on the other hand, have been known to reject applicants who are both certificated and experienced teachers and who have completed a post-graduate Diploma in TESL on the grounds that they have done no practical ESL teaching. This would suggest a certain rigidity on either side, rather than being open to other points of view.

It could be possible to make the four-week Certificate-holders more attractive to other institutions if, as Davis (1990) suggested, they are treated as semi-trained and only recognised as full teachers when they had completed an ESL Diploma course, in which theoretical aspects of teaching are dealt with in much more depth, as are many issues of practical classroom teaching. In addition, the RSA and Trinity Diplomas in TESL involve the teacher teaching a class in front of the examiner and discussing various aspects of it both before and after the lesson. If recently-certificated teachers were to be seen as semi-trained, then they should also be treated as first year teachers in New Zealand schools and given a reduced teaching programme. They could, then, observe other staff teaching with follow-up discussions as to why certain things were done in a specific way, be observed themselves and discuss what they did. They could also be encouraged to maintain links with the teacher preparation institute, report on their progress and be given appropriate support. It would seem extremely unlikely, however,

that overseas institutions would wish to recognise newly-certificated teachers as being semi-trained and therefore allow them a reduced teaching load.

10.3 PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

It became obvious as the research progressed that there would be some implications for the present course, although the researcher had not intended to evaluate the course.

A surprising and disturbing finding for the researcher was the almost universal lack of concrete knowledge about ESL teaching conditions or students. This would seem to call for a period of observations of ESL classes to be undertaken (and written up in some form) as part of the distance learning component. It would be even more advantageous if it was possible to visit more than one institution and see a variety of student nationalities and teaching styles. Although this may be difficult for some trainees to arrange, it could only have a beneficial effect on their perception of what ESL teaching involved, some of the students that they were likely to meet, not to mention giving them a much more realistic role model for ESL teaching. A search of the literature showed that Wajnryb (1991) also felt strongly that an observational period (preferably with guidance) was recommended certainly before teaching began and possibly before the face-to-face course input. Not only did the observation orient them to the classroom and teaching techniques, but it lowered the stress levels on the course itself. Where possible, interviews with ESL teachers could also be carried out to find out why they taught in a certain manner and to find out what planning and interactive decisions underpinned their teaching - in short, what their underlying beliefs about teaching were.

The role models that many of the subjects held did not appear to be well-developed or, in many cases, very suitable. If trainees were to be required to observe ESL classes, as suggested by Wajnryb (1991) and Roberts (1998), as part of their distance learning, they could be challenged to develop stronger and more appropriate role models, which could be discussed in the first few days of the course in association with the video observations that normally take place. In addition, observation before the course could help trainees to identify many essential characteristics of ESL teaching. In Table 8.9 it was shown that, in the early phases, trainees did not notice many of the features which became important for them later in the course. Earlier observation may have alerted them to more of these issues so that they could explore them in greater depth and/or without the pressure of the course. Trainees could also be required to reflect on whether they themselves were developing as they had expected during their teaching sessions or whether they were reverting to what was easiest as a means of survival (Lewis, 1993:190).

There are a number of implications for the on-campus course. As has been shown, those who are already experienced teachers are at a considerable advantage over the complete novices when it comes to some aspects of practice teaching. It could, therefore, be suggested that they should not have to follow exactly the same course as the novices. There are, however, a number of problems with this suggestion. Firstly, many courses do not have sufficient numbers to justify a separate course nor are these experienced teachers all available at the same time. In addition, the highly interwoven nature of the theory and practice does not allow the experienced teachers to miss some sessions. In fact, choosing sessions which they could miss would be impractical, as all sessions have the common thread of ESL teaching, which is the major area that they are lacking in. The presence of one or two experienced teachers on the course merely adds to the mix of trainees, many of whom bring their own individual strengths. A young graduate in Linguistics has an advantage in subject matter knowledge and can help others in this area just as the experienced teacher can help in matters pertaining to the classroom. Indeed, an important aspect of the courses is the extent to which trainees normally support each other during the four weeks.

In perusing the feedback from the observing teachers or tutors, it was obvious that where one trainee had been observed more than once by the same associate teacher who had had input into their practice teaching and associated feedback, there was a much stronger developmental phase. On the other hand, those who had been observed by a number of different tutors did not always seem to be able to pick up the suggestions so clearly. This has two implications. First of all, where possible, a trainee should be more closely associated with a mentor teacher (as suggested by Grenfell, 1998). Secondly, if this is not possible, there needs to be a system whereby the observer can suggest one or two key areas that the trainee should concentrate on in subsequent teaching practice sessions. These suggestions should feature on the following teaching practice lesson plan so that the next observer can comment on whether these aims are achieved or not. This would have the effect of maximising the feedback sessions after practice teaching, it would enable the trainees to see individual steps in their development and they would thus feel that they were making progress.

In addition, it may be of value for trainees to see themselves on video, in accordance with Johnson's (1992) suggestion, during their teaching practice, either for their own personal viewing or so that they can explain to someone else what was happening and receive alternative views on what they could have done. The success of the stimulated recall shows that by watching the video, trainees and observers are presented with an accurate picture of exactly what happened, rather than what they thought was happening. If the video, or at least segments of it, are viewed with someone else, certain

crucial sections can be looked at closely several times to ensure that the trainee and the observer are seeing the same phenomenon and understanding it in the same way.

One requirement of the Trinity Cert. TESOL course is that a very small part of the teaching practice is carried out on a one-to-one basis. Richardson (1992) found that recently certificated (RSA) teachers were "particularly unhappy about teaching one-to-one" and therefore calls for more one-to-one teaching during the course. If the four-week courses are preparing the trainees for any work situations other than New Zealand language schools, then familiarity with (and preferably, practice in) one-to-one teaching is essential. Trainee A, in the current study, is now teaching in Argentina where his class numbers range from one to four, quite different from the minimum of eight that the Trinity regulations prescribe for practice teaching. Therefore, this may well be an area that Trinity's Head Office should take into consideration when laying down stipulations as to class sizes for practice teaching.

The most important aspect for the trainees was whether or not they would pass the course. During the group interview with trainees from the first course, it was mentioned that when they were being observed (especially by one of the three main course tutors) during their teaching, they felt obliged to keep to their lesson plan. This could seem to be a Catch-22 situation. As all three principal tutors normally try to observe each of the trainees so that there can be no suspicion that one of the tutors is biased against any one of the trainees, many of the teaching practice sessions will have a course tutor in attendance. The possible reason for such worry, however, is one of misunderstanding. When trainees first start teaching, they find it quite difficult to predict how long something might take, but nonetheless they are encouraged to estimate this so that they learn to plan appropriately for the allocated time. It would seem to be helpful for the development of their reflective abilities, and consequently their beliefs about teaching, if they were to be assured that mindlessly keeping to time was not important, but rather that they should be able to explain, either orally to the tutor or in writing in their reflective self-evaluation, why they took a shorter or longer time on any one section of the lesson.

Most of the trainees in the present study were looking forward to finding work so that they could get more experience in teaching, which they felt would help their further development. While some of them were interested in pursuing the Diploma course in later years, they did not feel that a deeper knowledge of theory was their most relevant and pressing need immediately after the four-week course. There were some worries expressed as to how they could teach for five or more hours a day when they had found it extremely tiring to prepare for just one hour. It would seem beneficial for the trainees,

therefore, if they could be given the experience of preparing lessons and teaching for a full day in an institution at the end of their course, perhaps at a time when the normal staff members were marking tests or examinations or undergoing staff development. This would ensure that both parties benefited from the experience.

10.4   IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The findings from this study point to varied degrees of development among trainees on four-week courses. The four-week course, which was the focus of this study, is a little different from the other international four-week course available in New Zealand at present, in that it has a distance learning module to be completed before the course and trainees do not begin teaching classes on the second or third days of the course. It would be interesting for research to be carried out into the similarities and differences between the two internationally-recognised courses to demonstrate the relevant strengths and weaknesses of the two courses and to consider changes, which might be appropriate for the good of language teaching both in New Zealand and internationally.

This study has referred to the distance modules that trainees complete before undertaking the on-campus course, but there has been no real investigation of the relationship between these two. Research into prospective trainees' performance during the distance learning could indicate possible problems that may arise during the course and teaching practice. However, it must be taken into consideration that it is difficult to judge how much help may have been obtained to complete the modules and how much of a challenge the material has posed. Nonetheless, should the prospective trainee also be required to visit ESL classes and come to terms with what teacher role models they hold, this could be a revealing piece of research.

The current study has followed trainees from the time that they enrolled for a course until the end of the four-week course. Further insights would be provided through a more longitudinal study, which follows those who pass the course as they go through their first year of teaching, to see how their teaching beliefs and practices develop under the stresses of full-time teaching. It could also be possible to investigate whether their experiences were similar to Tattersall's (1979) findings (cited in Hopkins, 1985:134) that, when student teachers undertake practice teaching for more than three weeks, it takes a minimum of twelve weeks for "positive trends and significant changes in professional self-concept to appear". As has been indicated, many of the successful trainees go overseas in their first year and it is often difficult to stay in contact with them, particularly if the research employed the stimulated recall approach, as has been suggested. A possible solution would be to contact the various language schools in New

Zealand and arrange to track the development of any newly-certificated teachers who were working for them. The other major problem would be that, as many newly-certificated teachers are able to find part-time work only, the validity of such research could be compromised due to their more limited experience of teaching. On the other hand, a study comparing part-time ESL teachers with their full-time colleagues could provide valuable data on the extent to which teaching beliefs are developed under various circumstances.

Teachers' beliefs are increasingly the focus of research (eg Woods, 1996), including a comparison of two groups of first-year teachers, one which had received teacher education and one that had not (Grossman, 1990). A similarly fruitful comparison of ESL teachers could be made between the beliefs of experienced Certificate teachers who had gone on to Diploma studies and those who had not.

This study has acknowledged the different sources of input, both formal and informal, that occur during the course. Research could, therefore, be undertaken to investigate the effectiveness of the different sources and whether the same source has the same effect on all trainees, especially according to trainees' prior experience in teaching. This would necessitate a researcher spending the entire four-week course with the trainees. Because of the time pressures of the course, it could be extremely difficult to find enough time to follow more than three or four subjects in this manner.

Finally, the effect of the role models that trainees bring with them to the short courses could be investigated. This study established that trainees did not appear to arrive on the course with very convincing role models but, as they were asked to describe teachers that they could remember, they may not have considered them as the only role models. However, their portraits of what made a good teacher were also rather vague. Therefore, it would seem that this area deserves much more detailed attention, particularly since researchers such as Knowles (1992) and Weintroub (1993) have shown that the role models that trainees bring with them need to be acknowledged and discussed in depth to consider the extent of their appropriateness. In addition, the effect of the associate teacher(s) on the trainees' role models, both during the course and in their first year of teaching, should be thoroughly examined.

10.5 TRAINEES ' DEVELOPMENT SINCE THE COURSE

In Chapter 9, it was found that some trainees had developed to a significantly higher level than others. This may suggest that they should also have been more successful since the course, which, coincidentally or not, seems to be the case. Three of the four

high-fliers are known to be currently working in ESL institutions and the fourth travelled overseas with the intention of using her TESOL qualification to do just that.

• Within six weeks of finishing the course Trainee A was in Argentina where he had managed to find a job but, prior to his departure, he had already searched out a number of small teaching jobs to give himself a little more experience. He has now been in Argentina for eighteen months, claims that he has learned a great deal and envisages being there for the next few years. He has found that he must constantly change his courses according to the students and has adapted his teaching to fit the local conditions and needs, which suggests that his beliefs about teaching have undergone further development. Interestingly enough, although his subject matter knowledge grew considerably as a result of the course, and has continued to do so, he revealed that he does not do much actual grammar teaching because that tends to be left to the non-native teachers, who can not only explain it in Spanish but have a much better grasp of it. He feels that the length and scope of the Cert. TESOL course suited him well and he needed the experience of full-time teaching to develop further.

• Since the course Trainee B has completed his BA, teaching at the local language centre part-time while he did so, then left New Zealand at the end of 1998 for a job in Japan. He, therefore, appears to be well on the way to fulfilling his dream of travelling the world while teaching ESL.

• Almost immediately after the course Trainee I returned to China for her second year and revealed that the course had given her a lot more confidence to undertake the private tutoring that she had been asked to do, as well as impacting positively on her work because of the development of both her subject matter knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge. A year after the course, she went to London to do a TESL course for teaching younger children, in accordance with her background, before going to Prague where she is currently teaching EFL.

And what of the rest? Only Trainee D is thought to be in full-time ESL employment. It took a little while for her to find ESL work but after six months she arranged a job in Japan, only to have the company collapse within weeks. However, she has since gone to the Czech Republic. Family commitments made it impossible for Trainee F to move to look for work but she banded together with a group of other past-trainees to publicise themselves as ESL teachers and now has several private students as well as being employed on short courses run by a local language centre. Trainee E was given a little part-time work by the local Polytechnic but had managed to find little else locally. Completing her BA was Trainee H's first priority in 1998, after which she was hoping

to travel overseas and use her training to teach. Trainee G has not been heard of since the course. An obvious implication is that, once the preparation programme is finished, trainees have a much better chance of finding work if they can travel overseas.

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APPENDIX A: Required Course Components

Trinity College issues the following list as its minimum required course components:

A.   Language Awareness, which will include an introduction to

        i)   the grammar, syntax and lexis of contemporary English;

        ii)   Phonetics and Phonology; the use of phonemic transcription;

        iii)   varieties of English.

B.   Teaching and learning approaches and methods.

C.   Classroom management and methodology, procedures and techniques, establishing rapport.

D.   'Hands-on' experience of the use of a range of aids, such as the blackboard/whiteboard, the tape recorder and overhead projector, the slide or film-strip projector, the language laboratory, television, video and computers.

E.   Evaluation of course-books and other teaching/learning material.

F.   A course of practical instruction, with an oral-aural bias, in a natural language which is unknown to the candidates, (a) to give first-hand experience of a beginner's difficulties in coping with a new language, and (b) to exemplify some of the language teaching procedures discussed and demonstrated in other parts of the course.

G.   A profile of a learner of English as a foreign or second language, including a brief biographical description, a needs analysis and recommendations for language development (including the plan for a one-to-one lesson given to the informant).

H.   A practical project in TESOL, or a materials compilation project.

I.   Needs analysis, lesson and unit planning.

J.   A minimum of 6 hours of observed teaching practice with classes of between six and twelve foreign learners, and feedback.

K.   A minimum of 4 hours of guided observation of lessons taught by experienced teachers.

    (Trinity College, p. II)

APPENDIX B: Details of Distance Learning Modules

A. TESOL - an introduction.

This component is based on Harmer, 1991, and is made up of six study guides and the glossary. The areas covered are based on Harmer's chapter titles:

1.   • Why do people learn languages?

       • What a native speaker knows

2.   • What a language student should learn

       • Language learning and language teaching

3.   • Teaching the productive skills

       • Introducing new language structure

4.   • Practice

       • Communicative activities

5.   • Teaching vocabulary

       • Class management

6.   • Receptive

7.   • Glossary

B. Language Awareness

The texts for the language awareness component are Bolitho & Tomlinson (1995), and Swan (1984). Again there are six study guides and a glossary covering:

1.   • Re-examining the language

       • Basic grammatical terms

       • Nouns

       • Adjectives

       • Adverbs

2.   • Forms and functions

3.   • Tense and time

       • Tense and aspect

       • Time lines

4.   • Main verbs and auxiliary verbs
        • Question forms
        • Pronouns
        • Prepositions
        • Conjunctions
        • Interjections

5.   • Modal verbs
        • Active and passive voice

6.   • Conditionals and hypothetical meaning
        • Checking understanding

7.   Glossary

C. Phonology

This component, based on Kenworthy (1987) is the final and shortest component. The topics covered are:

1.   • Phonemes
        • Phonemic script

2.   • Teaching and learning pronunciation
        • Intelligibility
        • Building awareness of pronunciation

3.   • Extending and consolidating
        • Sounds and spelling

4.   • Pronunciation and vocabulary
        • Transcription of recorded material
        • Self-evaluation and monitoring

5.   • Glossary

APPENDIX C: Classroom Observation Guide

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Classroom Observation Guide

When you write up your notes of classes you observe this week, please remember to put

- your name
- the date
- class name and level
- lecturer's name
- number of students
- time of observation eg 9.00am - 9.50am
- language point(s) of lesson
- language context (topic/situation).

Specific point to consider when observing this week's classes are

- classroom layout
- teacher's use of signals and gestures
- how instructions are given (note examples of clear instructions)
- use of elicitation
- use of controlled practice - repetition, substitution, transformation
- interactions - teacher to learners, learners in pairs, learners in groups, group to group
- specific teaching techniques
- summary of useful ideas you have gained.

There may well be other points you wish to mention. Please set out your notes clearly with headings.

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Class:	Level:	No. students:	Lesson length:

Aim of lesson *(language point):*		Language context *(situation, topic):*	

Objectives: *At the end of this lesson the students will:*

Time	Activity *(what you will do)*	Instructions *(the exact words you will say)*	Materials and aids

APPENDIX E: Teaching Practice Lesson Observation Sheet

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Trinity Cert TESOL

TEACHING PRACTICE
Lesson observation sheet

Teacher: _____   Date: _____

Observed by: _____   No. students: _____

Class: _____   Lesson length: _____

Class level:	Beginner	q	Intermediate	q
	Elementary	q	Upper intermediate	q
	Lower intermediate	q	Advanced	q

Language point: _____

Context: _____

General comments

Personal communication

Skill	Comments
Establishes a good class atmosphere	
Inspires student confidence	
Shows cultural sensitivity	
Uses the students' names	
Speaks clearly	
Uses appropriate language	
Uses non-verbal language effectively	

Language teaching methods

Skill	Comments
Keeps teacher talk to a minimum	
Monitors student comprehension	
Provides appropriate feedback on correctness	
Shows understanding of the language point	
Provides for understanding of essential vocabulary	
Provides for communication practice	
Allows students to generate their own language	

Classroom techniques

Skill	Comments
Begins and ends the lesson punctually	
Paces the lesson sensitively	
Gives clear instructions for each task	
Provides a focused outcome for the lesson	
Uses board and teaching aids effectively	
Uses motivating materials and tasks	
Varies individual, pair and group work	
Organises a suitable physical arrangement for the task	
Balances structured and unstructured tasks	
Encourages students to take responsibility for their own learning	

APPENDIX F: Trainees' Self-evaluation Form

Trinity Cert TESOL

TEACHING PRACTICE
Self-evaluation form

This form is designed to encourage reflective teaching practice. It should be completed before your discussion with the observer of your lesson.

Teacher: Date:

Class: Level:

Language point:

Context:

Specific comments about the lesson

- The success of my presentation of the language point

- The quality of my interaction with the students

- The quality of the students' interaction with each other

- The success of my materials

- The appropriateness of the activities I chose

General comments

- The quality of my preparation and planning

- Constraints on the lesson

- Things I would change next time

- Things that went well

- My overall feelings about the lesson

APPENDIX G: Personal Information Questionnaire

It is assumed that filling in this questionnaire implies consent to participate in the research.

Personal Information Questionnaire

First Name(s): _____

Family Name: _____

M/F _____ Age _____ Date of birth _____

Home Address: _____

_____

_____

Home telephone: _____

Country of birth: _____

Year	Educational qualification:

Members of family/close friends who are teachers: _____

_____

_____

_____

Previous teaching experience: _____

_____

_____

_____

Previous work experience (other than teaching): _____

_____

_____

Country visited	Length of time Experiences	Reason	

Language(s):

Place learned	Learning time Proficiency	Learning method	

Reason for studying for a Cert TESOL: _____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Interests and hobbies: _____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

APPENDIX H: Initial Questionnaire

It is assumed that filling in this questionnaire implies consent to participate in the research.

Initial Questionnaire

This first questionnaire has only a few questions but I would like you to write as much as possible in your answers. In this way I can feel that I am not pointing you in a certain direction. There are no right or wrong answers - just a lot of individual differences according to your personal experiences.

Describe any teachers that you remember well, mentioning why you remember them.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

What does a good teacher do?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Describe a successful student.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

What do you think will make you a good teacher?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

What do you think will influence your teaching after your initial training?

_____

_____

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_____

Is it important for a TESL teacher to have learned another language? Please explain.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

This is the end of the questionnaire. Thank you very much for your co-operation.

APPENDIX I: Initial Interview Prompts

Cert. TESOL Research

Initial Interview

I would like to have a short interview (approximately 10 - 15 minutes) with each of the people who have agreed to assist with my research as soon as possible in the first week, that is either Thursday or Friday. The basic purpose of the interview is to get answers to the following questions:

• what do you expect are going to be the most important things you are going to learn during the next four weeks?

• as you worked through the pre-course materials was there anything which really stood out for you in terms of extending your knowledge or understanding of language teaching?

• are there any parts of the course which you think will be particularly demanding for you or require a steep learning curve?

• how do you feel at present about your teaching ability?

Depending on your answers to the above questions I will ask various follow-up questions to clarify what you have said.

APPENDIX J: Final Interview Prompts

Final Data Gathering

To: Trainees

First of all, thanks very much for helping me by providing me with data for my research. Now that you can see the end in sight, I would like to meet you once more before you head off into the wide blue yonder and start putting all your newly-acquired knowledge into practice! First of all, as I have already suggested, I would be much obliged if you could spare me about forty-five minutes at the end of Tuesday's classes so that I can have a group interview with all of you to get final data for my thesis - the point of this meeting is that this will give me access to your beliefs about ESL teaching when they are as fully developed as they are going to be during the course.

Here are the questions that I will be using as the stimuli for the group interview:

• What do you think are the most important things you have learned in the last four weeks?

• How did you learn those things and what impact did they have on you?

• What did you feel was the most difficult part of the course and why?

• Have your feelings about teachers and teaching changed in the last four weeks?

• You have now completed an initial training in ESL but you will need to keep learning more about ESL teaching. How do you think you will be able to do this?

I would also like to ask the following more personal questions but if you feel that you don't want to answer them in front of others that will be okay.

• Is there anything important you feel you haven't come to grips with yet?

• How do you feel about your teaching ability now?

• What are your immediate plans in terms of using the knowledge you have gained?

APPENDIX K: Introductory Letter

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N E W   Z E A L A N D

April 26, 1997.

Dear

I believe that you have recently enrolled as a trainee for the Trinity Cert TESOL. My name is Marian Hilder and I am a staff member at International Pacific College. I am one of the tutors who teach on the Cert TESOL course and help observe your teaching practice. This year I have begun work on my thesis for an MA in Second Language Teaching. What I am really interested in is what beliefs trainees develop about good and effective teaching (given the short duration of the course) and how they can continue to develop as teachers after the course finishes.

In the first stage of the research I would like you to fill out a questionnaire, firstly on your personal background and secondly on your beliefs about teachers and teaching. **It is very important to my research that this questionnaire is returned as soon as possible.** During the course it would be most helpful if you would allow the researcher to have access to your teaching journal kept during the course, to discreetly video one of your lessons and later to discuss that lesson with her and finally to carry out an exit interview at the end of the course. Data collection will be carried out in a non-obtrusive manner.

Participation in the research is not part of your course nor will it affect the assessment of your work. Your name will be kept confidential and not linked to any information that you provide. You have the right to decline to participate in the study at all, to refuse to answer any particular question and you are free to withdraw from the study at any time.

If you want any more details about the research at any time, please feel free to contact me either at International Pacific College (ph 06 354-0922 x 815, fax 354-0935, e-mail MHilder@ipc.ac.nz) or at my home (36 Waterloo Crescent, Palmerston North, ph (06) 356-9840). At the completion of the research you may request a copy of a summary of the findings.

If you are willing to take place in the research, please complete and return the accompanying questionnaires. It is possible that I will need to contact you by phone after receiving your questionnaire to clarify some points. Could you please suggest the most suitable time to do this along with your phone number.

I would value your participation in this project and look forward to working with you during your Cert TESOL course.

Yours faithfully

Marian Hilder