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DECLARATION

This thesis is my own work, except where explicitly stated in the text, and has not been submitted for a degree at another university.

The following published works have arisen from the content of this thesis:

- Howard, A.   (2010)   Is there such a thing as a typical language lesson? *Classroom Discourse* 1(1): 82-100

- Howard, A. (2008) Teachers being observed: coming to terms with classroom appraisal.   In: Garton, S. and Richards, K. eds.   *Professional Encounters in TESOL.* London: Palgrave: 87-104

- Howard, A. (2004) Model Lessons: to teach or not to teach? In Pulverness, A. ed. *IATEFL 2003: Brighton Conference Selections.* Canterbury: IATEFL: 98–99

ABSTRACT

Teacher appraisal: the impact of observation on teachers' classroom behaviour

This thesis is based on three English language teacher case studies located in the Middle East where classroom discourse has been analysed in order to establish the impact that an appraisal observer has on teachers' behaviour. The literature suggests that the presence of an observer alters events in the classroom, but to date there has not been any research into the nature of these changes which draws on transcripts of observed lessons.

Each teacher recorded a model (observed) and a pedagogic (non–observed) lesson with similar parameters so that they could be compared, and commonalities and differences identified. The teachers were then interviewed in order to establish their understanding of the salient features of appraisal observations, as were three supervisors responsible for observing teachers in similar contexts. Transcripts of the lessons were analysed using SETT (Walsh, 2006), and the interview data was also transcribed and evaluated.

The results indicate that there are significant differences between model and pedagogic lessons in terms of the external factors (planning, sequencing, interaction, amount of administration, student use of L1). However, the internal factors (the features of ongoing verbal interaction between teacher and students in the classroom) remain fundamentally the same whether or not an observer is present, although the teacher demonstrates greater control in a model lesson.

By analysing transcripts of classroom interaction, this research indicates what happens in the classroom when teachers are being observed, providing data to confirm existing claims about observer effects, and suggesting that the learner role is greater than originally thought. The importance of observer training is identified, as well as the need for a fundamental review of observation, encompassing all parties involved, if it is to be a true reflection of the classroom behaviour of the teacher being observed.

ABBREVIATIONS

BANA	British, Australasians and North Americans (Holliday, 1994)
BBC	British Broadcasting Corporation
CA	Conversation analysis
CELTA	Certificate in English language teaching to adults
CLT	Communicative language teaching
CNN	Cable News Network
CS	Case study
DA	Discourse analysis
DELTA	Diploma in English language teaching to adults
DoS	Director of Studies
EFL	English as a foreign language
ELT	English language teaching
ESL	English as a second language
ESOL	English for speakers of other languages
FIA	Flanders interaction analysis
GCC	Gulf Cooperative Council: Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates
HE	Higher education
IH	International House
INSET	In-service training
IRF	Initiation, response, feedback (or evaluation)
IT	Information technology
ITT	Initial teacher training
L1	First language

L2	Second language
NS	Native speaker
NNS	Non-native speaker
Ofsted	Office for standards in education (UK)
OP	Observer's Paradox
PCE	Post-compulsory education
PCT	Personal construct theory
PD	Professional development
PGCE/PGDE	Postgraduate certificate in education
PPP	Presentation, practice and production
QI	Qualitative investigation
SET	Student evaluation of teachers
SETT	Self-evaluation of teacher talk
TD	Teacher development
TESEP	Tertiary, secondary and primary
TESOL	Teaching English to speakers of other languages
TTA	Teacher Training Agency
TTT	Teacher talking time
UAE	United Arab Emirates
UAEU	United Arab Emirates University

CLASSROOM OBSERVATION

When the watcher's shadow

    falls on a busy tide pool

All the fish dart under rocks

And anemones unflower

    like children suddenly quiet.

Carolyn Kirkpatrick

Teacher, York
College of the City
of New York

Jamaica, New York

1975

1.0   INTRODUCTION

The aim of this study is to explore the influence of the presence of an observer in the classroom on the behaviour of teachers of English as a foreign or second language. This is done in order to identify any changes made in pedagogic procedure in this particular context, and discover what these are, and the reasons behind them. Much has been written about the way in which teacher appraisal is carried out and the efficacy of such systems, particularly in mainstream education, but minimal investigation has been carried out using actual classroom data. This is important, as teacher observations are widely used as a method of summative appraisal, and both the validity and reliability of this process are affected by the behaviour of the observers, teachers and students involved.

In this study English language teachers working in the Middle East have recorded themselves teaching both observed and non-observed lessons, and taken part in semi-structured interviews where their perceptions of the requirements of appraisal observations are discussed. Additionally, lesson observers (teachers' supervisors) have been interviewed in order to establish their understanding of the observation process, and these results are compared. For the purpose of this thesis, the umbrella term ELT (English language teaching) will be used to cover activities relating to the teaching of English as a second or foreign language, as for many local students it is actually their third or fourth language.

Although it has many research functions, classroom observation is often thought of as a teacher assessment and appraisal technique, and is used extensively in many

fields of education in order to evaluate a teacher's competence. As such, it plays a serious part in many teachers' lives, and this qualitative study will use case studies to research this topic amongst members of the ELT profession in the Middle East. Large numbers of native speaking (NS) English teachers are continuously recruited as the profession flourishes in this geographic region, and those in this study conform to Holliday's definition (1994a) of 'BANA': Britons, Australasians and North Americans.

BANA teachers frequently work together in the same institution. During their professional lives they may be subject to appraisal judgements by a classroom observer from a particular methodological background, which can be unfamiliar to teachers who may have reached their position via a different route. For example, in one case an American teacher had difficulty renewing her contract because she was unfamiliar with the CELTA/DELTA model (Certificate/Diploma in English language teaching to adults) favoured by her supervisor/observer. She asked colleagues for help in preparing a suitable lesson as it was vital that she was able to pass the observation at the next attempt. Failure would have meant that she had to leave the country with her family, as work permits are frequently not transferable, but because of the help received her contract continued, despite the fact that the supervisor observed a lesson which had been created by someone else. It would therefore be true to say that her supervisor did not observe the type of lesson that she usually taught, so as an appraisal observation it was invalid. As the stakes are high, this argues for the fact that observers need to display objectivity, bearing in mind existing differences in training and background.

The fact that supervisors may not always empathise with methodology employed by teachers is important, as ultimately teaching performance affects their relationship, and classroom observations carry the weight of annual increments and contract renewal.

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When it comes to observation of teaching staff for assessment and evaluation purposes, some supervisors seem to prefer a familiar lesson framework, whilst others are looking for more individual teaching approaches. This means that there is often a great deal of pressure on teachers to provide a model lesson that exhibits the skills that their particular supervisor is perceived to be looking for. As such, classroom observations for appraisal purposes can be seen as threatening, and a good example of this is the Ofsted inspections carried out in mainstream education in the UK, where inspectors have the power to put a school into special measures if they do not like what they see.

Bearing in mind the possible disparities outlined above, the appraisal observation lesson prepared for an observer will subsequently be referred to as a **model lesson**, i.e. a lesson which is believed by the teacher to contain the key elements that comprise 'effective' teaching (Tsui, 1995). The model lesson is considered to be one where teachers present their teaching skills in a way which they feel will impress the observer, and display them in the best possible light. For the purposes of this research it is assumed that teachers are unlikely to prepare model lessons for their own amusement: they have no concrete need to teach lessons which demonstrate such a wide range of competencies on a daily basis. In contrast, the lesson that a teacher teaches under regular, everyday circumstances, without an observer present, will be defined as a **pedagogic lesson.**

Neither of the above terms seems to have been used extensively in educational literature, although model lessons have made several appearances. Apart from the Tsui reference (ibid) 'model lesson' has been used to describe the way in which lessons for second language learners can be prepared according to specific guidelines (Cloud et al,

2000) and also to describe lesson plans available on the Internet for teachers' use (Smerdon et al, 2000). It is presented as something to be emulated, rather than a demonstration of teaching skills, although Stephens (1996) positively encourages the use of 'over-demonstration' lessons in order to show his teacher mentees the value of key behaviour and classroom management. Scheurman (1997) suggests that a model lesson is one in which principles of constructivism are used to promote reflective judgement. In the ELT field Tennant (2006:191) suggests a model for an observed lesson that aims to 'incorporate "good practice" at each stage', which again focuses on a performance to be emulated. It therefore seems that the term is appropriate for a language lesson that has been specifically prepared for the eye of the observer, and has been formulated to impress. However, this should not be confused with the type of lesson taught by the trainer on a teacher education course which is offered to be emulated by the student teacher.

The term pedagogic lesson, however, is somewhat less familiar in the literature, and early references relate to the early 20th century: in the Musical Times of February 1st, 1904 it was used to describe music lessons where aspects of theory and practice' were present. As this is a fair description of what many English language teachers are hoping to achieve when they enter the classroom on a daily basis, it has been chosen as an appropriate term in the context of this research.

1.1   Contribution

A relatively large number of texts exist relating to teacher observation as a form of appraisal, assessment and evaluation in mainstream educational literature (Braskamp et al, 1984; Campbell et al, 2004; Gitlin and Smythe, 1989; Hancock and Settle, 1990; Lokan and McKenzie, 1989; Marriot, 2001; Shinkfield and Stufflebeam, 1995; Simons and Elliot, 1989; Stubbs and Delamont, 1976: Wilson, 1988; Wragg, 1994 and 1999; Wragg et al, 1996). Many of these references relate to observation practice in the late 1980s and early 1990s, but less seems to have been written about classroom observation in an ELT context (Allwright, 1988; Bailey, 2001; Freeman, 1982; Mallows, 2002; Murdoch, 2000; Tennant, 2006; Wang and Day, 2002). Much of the literature relates to teacher education and research, and there is no apparent analysis of classroom discourse. Richards argues that 'there is evidence of renewed interest in the nature of classroom talk' (2006b:51), so this thesis aims to address the above situation. However, the relative shortage of ELT references does mean that much of the literature review will focus on mainstream education contributions to the relevant areas of study.

Observation is one of the most popular methods of appraising both beginning and practicing teachers, and, in the case of the latter, is frequently used to assess their ability in terms of promotion, contract renewal or incremental pay increases. Development by means of observation is a fundamental part of most teacher education programmes, and many practicing TESOL (teaching English to speakers of other languages) teachers have had personal experience of this form of appraisal. In initial teacher training (ITT) a vital part of any classroom observation is a feedback session in which trainee and trainer discuss the way in which the lesson progressed. Copland

(2008) and Kurtoglu Hooton (2008), writing about recent research into post-observational feedback, conclude that the way in which this is carried out reflect the weight attributed to the process of teacher observation.

Assuming that teachers, as other professionals, need to be assessed, it is reasonable to assume that they behave according to their own personal knowledge and beliefs as to what particular aspects of a taught lesson the observer should see. The observer can then compare the lesson with external criteria, and the teacher may well be considered to be incompetent if they cannot control the class (Wragg et al, 1996). In the current research context a label of incompetence has negative connotations that can travel beyond the realms of the particular institution in which a teacher works, therefore it can be dangerous if applied inappropriately. Thus it is important to understand why teachers make certain pedagogic choices when they are being observed, so that the validity and reliability of the process can be established. If model lesson choices do not reflect those of a pedagogic lesson, then the differences between the two should be investigated, and this research aims to provide insight into this process. For a TESOL teacher, pedagogic lessons are arguably hundreds of times more prevalent than model lessons: for a 20 hour teaching week with a bi-annual observation, the ratio could be approximately 400:1. Thus it could be argued that it is unreasonable to use a model lesson for the evaluation of an individual's teaching, as it is not an accurate representation as to what happens on a daily basis. However, the counter argument exists that teachers need model lessons in order to demonstrate what they are capable of in the classroom, although they might not always teach in that same way.

This study has been carried out in the Middle East, where research into ELT and education is now becoming established practice, though this has not always been the case (Syed, 2003). Although this study has implications beyond this geographical region, it aims to contribute to the understanding of the multinational relationship between English language teachers in the Gulf, whilst also having possible implications for teacher appraisal and the management of English teaching establishments in the future. Discussions on the use of observation as an assessment and evaluation tool for practising teachers have relevance not only to ELT, but also to mainstream education. Additionally, as this research has been carried out across a range of nationalities, it could be considered to be relevant to the educational settings of all BANA countries, and not solely to one particular regional scenario.

1.2　　　　The Observer's Paradox

A concept fundamental to this research is that of the *Observer's Paradox* (OP), where the assumption is that the observer in any situation is an unfamiliar presence, who will alter the thing observed (Bowring-Carr, 1993): a similar concept is that of the Hawthorne Effect (Diaper, 1990). This paradox is described by Trask and Stockwell (2007:195) as a data collection problem, when 'the presence of the researcher affects the form of language being used by the informants'. Richards (2003) describes it as a 'spectre', and states that if individuals know that they are being observed, this will preclude them from acting in a normal fashion. The term originated with Labov, who defines the problem when he writes:

the aim of linguistic research in the community must be to find out how people talk when they

are not being systematically observed; yet we can only obtain this data by systematic observation

(1972:209).

The purpose of this research is to find out how people behave when observed,

but observation also has to take place in order to find out what they do. Thus the

paradox exists, and it is important to be aware of this fact so that any observation carried

out during the research (with the exception of appraisal observations during model

lessons) has minimal effect on the participants. Labov writes:

our goal is to observe the way people use language when they are not being observed. All of our

methods involve an approximation to this goal: when we approach from two different directions,

and get the same result, we can feel confident that we have reached past the Observer's Paradox

to the structure that exists independently of the analyst (1972:61).

His discussion was based on interviews, but his suggestions that researchers avoid the

OP with methods to distract the respondent and divert attention such as the use of

emotion, by testing knowledge or surreptitious recording, are, in this day and age,

ethically questionable (Trask and Stockwell, 2007). However, Richards (2003) reasons

that speakers will usually know that they are being recorded, and consequently their

speech will be affected, particularly if the recording device is evident. Avoiding this,

however, can be somewhat complicated to achieve, as the knowledge that a recording is

being made can exist at an unconscious level, whether the device is evident or not. This

concept was initially applied to observation during interviews, but it seems logical that it

could be transferred to any situation where an observer is present, which could include,

amongst others, classrooms, homes, and workplaces. Swan (1994) extends this idea

when she claims that different observers have different effects, although in this study I

have attempted to address this problem by being the sole researcher. However, the OP can be seen as being somewhat problematic in this context as the study is about observation, affecting the research on several different levels:

A   At thesis level

The thesis is effectively about the existence of the OP, therefore the teachers have recorded lessons in the classroom with and without an observer present.

B   At the level of the teacher in the classroom (the observed)

During the classroom recordings a second observer is also present, in terms of the recording device, and in both model and pedagogic lessons the teacher may be consciously aware of this. Therefore the OP exists, to a greater or lesser extent, whenever classroom activity is recorded. The teachers also participate in interviews, where the OP continues in relation to their interaction with the interviewer.

C   At the level of the supervisor (the appraisal observer)

By taking part in an interview that is being recorded, as with the teachers, supervisors know that this material will subsequently be transcribed and analysed: if the results do not reflect their opinions correctly, then they have a great deal to lose in terms of position and remunerative package. They have often spent some time working for their institution, therefore elements of company thinking may be evident in their discourse, and organisational expectations become apparent.

D   At the level of the students

The impact of the OP on the students is investigated during the analysis of the model lesson. For the purpose of this research it is assumed that students do not see their teachers as observers, as their presence in the classroom is not unfamiliar.

E   At the level of the researcher

The OP has an impact on the interviews because an awareness of the presence of a recording device means that interviewer flow can be interrupted or realigned, which can have a significant impact on respondent responses. However, it is hoped that this has been minimised.

Figure 1: Links between the *Observer's Paradox* and this study

THE OBSERVER'S PARADOX

By observing individuals we affect the actual behaviour that we are trying to observe

A.   TEACHERS

Level 1: presence of an appraisal observer during model lessons

Level 2: presence of a recording device during both model and pedagogic lessons

Level 3: presence of researcher during interviews

Level 4: presence of recording device during interviews

B.   SUPERVISORS

Level 1: presence of researcher during interviews

Level 2: presence of recording device during interviews

C.   STUDENTS

Level 1: presence of an appraisal observer during model lesson

Level 2: presence of researcher and recording device during supporting interview

The key concepts are summarised in Figure 1. The most important sources of data in this research are the teachers themselves, as, primarily, it seeks to establish whether or not the presence of an appraisal observer affects the teacher in the classroom. The secondary sources of data are the supervisors, or observers, and the research aim is to establish both organisational and personal beliefs and practices during the observation process. Finally there is input from previous students as to the way in which they view lessons where a teacher is undergoing an appraisal observation. Therefore it was

important to remember throughout the study that whilst investigating the existence (or otherwise) of the OP during model lessons, it could also have a fundamental impact on the data collection process at all levels. Consequently every effort was made to ensure that this was minimised as much as possible.

1.3   Research Questions

Two key research questions have been formulated in relation to this research:

1.   What features are common to both pedagogic and model lessons, and in what respects do they differ?

2.   How might these differences be accounted for in terms of (a) institutional, (b) observer, (c) teacher and (d) student expectations?

2.0   **LITERATURE REVIEW**

2.1   **Introduction**

The aim of this chapter is to introduce and evaluate existing literature relating to teacher appraisal and observation, and I will argue that this is closely linked to the concepts of good, effective or expert teaching and professional development (PD). For the purpose of this research the terms 'good', 'expert' and 'effective' will be used interchangeably, as the assumption is that good, or expert teachers teach effectively. Research findings are interpreted most effectively in the light of what is already known (Merriam, 1988), and although there are relevant publications referring to the ELT context, many appraisal and observation references relate originally to mainstream education. However, as it is hoped that the research findings will inform ELT and mainstream education, as well as other areas where observation is used as an appraisal tool, most of the published discussions have some degree of relevance.

The aim of this study is to identify commonalities and differences between the model and pedagogic lessons taught by the three teachers in the research sample, providing a wide range of relevant areas to investigate. The existence of model lessons suggests that teachers may be using them as a vehicle to present lessons in an expert fashion, whilst the supervisors (lesson observers) are also looking for examples of effective teaching. They want to know that those working for them are aware of the key methodological features to use in the classroom. However, it also seems possible that the choices that teachers make about what to teach during an observed lesson are related

to their teaching orientation, knowledge and beliefs as well as a multitude of factors related to place, time and method of delivery.

The taught lessons recorded during this research are based in a specialised and personally compiled corpus of transcribed and untranscribed data, and have undergone a process of discourse analysis. When reviewing the transcripts individual approaches to the teaching situation have been identified along similar lines to those noted by Goodson and Hargreaves (1996):

- teaching methodology
- discourse style
- classroom management
- use of materials
- lesson planning

All the above have been included in this research, with the exception of the use of materials, as this is not always apparent from an audio recording. During model lessons teachers may, or may not, make alterations to the above aspects of lessons to reflect the fact that there is an observer present in the classroom, and this study aims to establish if this is the case.

2.2 Gulf background: ELT in the Middle East

Before embarking on research in this area, it is important to develop an understanding of the language teaching background in the Middle East. It seems to be a commonly held belief in ELT that some of the best remuneration packages (high

salaries, accommodation, schooling and flights) are to be found in the countries of the Arabian Gulf, therefore those who see it as a long-term career or have dependents to support often gravitate to this particular geographical area. Describing a situation very similar to that on which this research is based, Graddol (1997:45) writes:

> The international demand for specialist courses of English as a second language (ESL) will multiply sixfold by 2025 and most of this will be satisfied by UK, US and Australian providers.

Native speaker (NS) English teachers and teacher educators are perceived to be an important part of the process of adapting Gulf Arabic speakers to be able to communicate in a multinational business environment, as indeed they are in the rest of the world. Holliday (1994a, 1994b) divides English language teachers into two broad and distinct professional-academic cultures: the first consists of **BANA** teachers who generally work in private language schools or in adjunct university or school departments 'spawned from the **B**ritish, **A**ustralasian or **N**orth **A**merican model' (1994a:12). He labels the second group **TESEP** teachers (**te**rtiary, **se**condary and **p**rimary), as they work in institutions where the ultimate purpose of English language teaching may not be so obvious, such as school systems where it is being taught as a foreign or second language. Such definitions may no longer be as clearly applicable as they were when they were created, and in many cases the situation that exists today can be a hybrid of BANA and TESEP contexts, as is the case in this research.

English language, or medium, teaching is the 'raison d'etre' of BANA organisations, and the status of the teachers involved is generally clearly defined. The argument for NS teachers is that if parents are going to pay for extracurricular lessons, they would prefer their children to learn the 'correct' usage of the language from those who have spoken it from birth (Holliday, ibid). In the case of the employing colleges of

the teachers taking part in this research, the state has become the parent, in that it is paying for the services of BANA nationals to ensure that standards are at their highest. By offering high salaries to NS teachers they aim to raise the status of the teaching profession by employing those with higher degrees in these skills. The curriculum is taught in English in order to prepare the students for their future working environment, and the majority of teachers employed in the colleges originate in BANA countries. However, compared to subject teachers (for example Information Technology, Mathematics, Engineering, Fine Arts), English teachers often appear to have lower status, although professionally their skills are in high demand as they are required to support the students at all levels and frequently provide the interface between different departments. This has relevance in this research because ELT teachers are sometimes supervised, and thus observed, by managers from other subject areas, with little or no knowledge of ELT pedagogy.

In addition to the ELT focus in the Middle East at school and tertiary level, there have also been several 'Western led' teacher education programmes in operation to enable Gulf nationals (NNSs) to train to teach English in their own primary and secondary schools. This has resulted in increasing exposure to Western ideas concerning the way institutions should be organised and run, and the North American model seems to be particularly prevalent (Bains, 2010; Millar, 2010; Penninsula, 2003:1). Constant investment in education means that in 2010 the adult literacy rate is in excess of 85% in all the GCC states, and in some (Qatar and the UAE) it is greater than 90% (Bains, 2010). Historically Gulf teaching methods have focussed on rote learning, but the fact that countries like Qatar and the UAE are allocating larger proportions of their budgets to education (20.5% and 22.5% respectively in 2008, ibid)

is changing this. However, standards of English are still a problem (Hancock, 2010), and NS teachers and academics from outside the area continue to be welcomed. Mathew writes:

> The Gulf is at the crossroads again. After 4 extraordinary decades of oil-fuelled development, they have moved from being lightly populated desert and maritime societies, to taking their full place in the global society. But that brings new challenges, particularly in the Middle East of the 21st century, and facing up to those challenges is what education is all about (2007:10).

Therefore, if the Gulf is truly considered to be representative of the global society, this surely means that educational research carried out there is relevant in an international context. Many studies have taken place in schools where the teachers' background relates to the same country of origin (Borg, 1998; Elbaz, 1983, Tsui, 2003), as historically there has been little reason for teachers of many different nationalities to work together. However, with the advent of distance education learning programmes, language qualifications are now open to a much wider range of geographically located individuals. Additionally, by virtue of having larger national budgets devoted to education, Gulf countries are able to establish perceived 'centres of excellence'. Stringent recruitment procedures mean that they are able to choose those teachers which are apparently best qualified (Dore, 1976), regardless of origin, providing an interesting basis for future research.

However, not all those writing about the state of teacher education in the Middle East agree on the improving conditions of ELT: in the same issue of one journal, and in consecutive articles, Syed (2003) states that Saudi Arabia has a good EFL teacher education system, whilst Al Hazmi (ibid: 341) contrasts this with his comments that teacher education systems in the Kingdom are 'non-systematic and inadequate'.

However, whatever the status of the teacher education programmes, it is likely that the influx of NS language teachers will continue. It is also likely that observation as a form of teacher appraisal, already well-established in the local school systems, will be used more frequently in the future. Currently it is usual practice for supervisors (observers) at tertiary establishments to be NS, but this is likely to change as a larger number of local NNS English teachers are promoted through the ranks. However, the increase in both NS and NNS teachers will necessitate a corresponding growth in the number of observers that need to be appropriately situated and trained to carry out appraisal observation. For these key reasons it is important that the existing situation is investigated in order to inform the design of future programmes, particularly in the light of possible differences of approach between language teachers, and supervisors, of differing methodological backgrounds.

2.3   Teacher appraisal

Teacher appraisal is often a controversial subject: Gitlin and Smythe (1989:3) state that 'few issues in education are guaranteed to generate such heat as the evaluation of teachers'. Although they use the term **evaluation** instead of appraisal, their meaning is clear, and they argue that teachers' main problem with this process is the form that the evaluation takes. It is therefore important to establish why **appraisal** has been used in this research, in contrast to the alternative terms available. Lokan and McKenzie (1989), investigating teacher research in mainstream education, found that the terms **appraisal, assessment** and **evaluation** had been used differently in the literature, and decided to

use the following definitions which will also be adopted in this study, taken from the UK

Department of Education (1985):

- **Evaluation**: a general term to describe any activity by an institution where the quality of provision is the result of a systematic study;

- **Appraisal**: emphasising the forming of qualitative judgements about an activity, a person, or an organisation,

- **Assessment**: implying the use of measurement and/or grading based on known criteria. (quoted by Wragg, 1987:vii)

As the focus of this research is on an activity performed by an individual so that an observer can make qualitative judgements (the model lesson), the term **appraisal** has been chosen. However, when referring to the work of others, their choice of definition will be used.

In order to be recognised as being able to, or having the ability to teach, practising teachers frequently need to undergo some form of evaluation or appraisal, which applies to any or all of the various methods by which teachers' work is judged. Freeman et al (2009:77) argue that, when assessing teachers, the decision has to be made whether to 'document its processes (what the teacher is doing), its outcomes (what the students appear to have learned) or some combination of the two'. There are additional questions about records relating to external judgements of the teacher's work, or based on self-assessment. Within the context of this research appraisal has important

consequences, in deciding whether or not a teacher continues beyond their probationary year in their particular context, or if their contract will be renewed at the end of a three year period. Leung refers to such 'teacher quality inspection menus' as sponsored professionalism (2009:50).

2.3.1   Appraisal in BANA countries in mainstream and tertiary education

Bearing in mind the crucial importance of the assessment of learners in the sphere of education, teacher appraisal seems to have a relatively short history, and this may explain teachers' attitudes to the appraisal process. From mainstream education in the UK, Shinkfield and Stufflebeam (1995) claim evaluation dates back to the Victorian era, when teachers were paid according to the results they achieved, and an inspection system was initiated. Before this pupils' failures were considered to be their own concern, rather than that of their teachers. Teacher appraisal could be said to date from the 1970s (Wragg et al, 1996), although a clear view on its function could not be reached at that time. In 1984 the Secretary of State for Education announced that appraisal, by means of observation, was the 'way to remove unsatisfactory teachers from a profession where they can do much harm'. (ibid:9). This policy became a legal requirement in 1986, but observation in mainstream education was still not carried out quite as often as might have been thought: Wragg et al (ibid) discovered that only about 28% of teachers were observed at that time, often for only 20 minutes. A subsequent report in 1997 identified teacher appraisal as a problem and argued for greater use of observation in teacher assessment (Montgomery, 1999).

In the USA, Shinkfield and Stufflebeam refer to a growing consensus from the end of World War Two until the 1970s, believing that 'the entire education system must gain from improved teacher performance arising from widely acceptable evaluation processes' (1995:2). Lokan and McKenzie (1989) suggest that this started with the inception in America of the *Committee on Criteria of Teacher Effectiveness* in the early 1950s, resulting in the first *Handbook of Teaching Research* published in1963. The research focus moved into the area of evaluation in the 1970s, and teachers themselves were keen (93% in one particular survey) to be evaluated so that competency could be improved (Lokan and McKenzie, ibid).

At this time ELT was in its infancy, and existing research data relates to mainstream education (e.g. Samph, 1976). As studies progressed, evidence was gradually produced that pedagogic practice really did make a difference, and researchers aimed to identify 'teaching strategies that correlated with student learning gains' (Lokan and McKenzie, ibid:2). But such research had implications for educational policy, as related thinking then moved in the following direction:

> If certain teaching behaviours really do make a difference to student outcomes, should not the teachers who exhibit these behaviours be identified and rewarded? And, as a corollary, those teachers who do not behave in these 'effective' ways should be given remedial help, if not penalised (ibid).

This reference to rewards and penalties identifies the underlying definitions of the teacher appraisal process. They (ibid) record that developments in teacher research were almost immediately taken up by the educational establishment, and teachers began to work under much more stringent conditions. In 1983, *A Nation at Risk* was published

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by the National Commission on Excellence in Education (Lokan and McKenzie, 1989:23), stating that highly qualified people were desirable, but that those who were not competent had to be evicted from the profession, thus providing the basis for a firm system of teacher evaluation.

However, many approved the system whilst rejecting the methods, especially if they believed that the evaluation was for contract-related appraisal processes. There was also much discussion about student input into the evaluation system, and the way in which effective teacher competencies should be measured. It was agreed that school principals should bear responsibility for the process, and there was also discussion concerning peer and self-appraisal. One of the reasons for giving principals the responsibility for removing those who were considered to be ineffective teachers was the absence of a well established teacher training system in the USA at that time (Lokan and McKenzie, ibid) therefore gate-keeping took place at a local level, in the schools. Although the probationary system was used in many countries, historically the American approach was somewhat different to that in operation in the UK.

ELT does not position itself with mainstream education, nor does it consider itself to be part of the modern language sector, although that is perhaps where it would be best suited. In terms of historical relevance, the situation experienced by ELT practitioners could perhaps be said to be more similar to that of teachers in the USA, in that it is a large profession without a strong teacher training base. For example, although it is possible for graduates to gain certificates and diplomas in relatively short intensive courses, PGCEs and PGDEs (postgraduate certificates/diplomas in education) are not widely available, although this situation does seem to be changing gradually.

2.3.2   Appraisal: some key concepts

As Bartlett (1996:12) writes, 'appraisal is not a simple concept', and there is a wide range of approaches. Many of the texts available on teacher appraisal in mainstream education were published in response to the new rules established in 1986 (Bartlett, ibid. and 1998: Braskamp et al, 1984; Campbell et al, 2004; Gitlin and Smythe, 1989; Gunter, 2001; Hancock and Settle, 1990; Kyriacou, 1997; Lokan and McKenzie, 1989; Simons and Elliot, 1989; Turner and Clift, 1988; West and Bollington, 1990; Wilson, 1988), some of which have already been discussed. Several of these sources present a range of alternative methods by which teachers can be evaluated, where observation is just one of the possible forms of assessment.

2.3.2.1   Rationales for teacher appraisal

Appraisal relates both to the teachers and the students that they teach, and Beare (1989) suggests that there are five reasons for carrying out teacher appraisal, as defined in Table 2 below. The closest category to that investigated in this research is appraisal for promotion purposes (Model 2), carried out to rank and compare teachers with the aim of providing formal grading advice to the employer. Beare (ibid) claims that in these circumstances teachers concerned will attempt to hide any aspects of their teaching that they do not think reflect well on themselves. They will provide strong points in their 'performance' (Appel, 2007) during the model lesson, because the assessor (the observer) may not be trusted to use the information gained in a constructive manner.

Table 2: Summary of Beare's rationales for teacher assessment (1989:15)

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5
Objective	Teacher improvement	Teacher promotion	School improvement	Accountability	Research or professional feedback
Specific purpose	To improve teaching performance	To rank and compare teachers	To improve team skills	Efficient and effective use of resources	To improve student performance and learning
Audience	The teacher	The employer	The team or manager	The patron or owner of the enterprise	The profession
The assessor	A mentor or professional coach	An external assessor	An agent of the team	An 'auditor'	A professionally expert analyst
Nature of assess-ment	Advice to the assessed	Formal grading: advice to employer	A report to the team	A productivity audit, including efficiency measures	A research report, including targeted data and their analysis

When the categories in Table 2 are carefully studied, I would argue that the presence of an observer has the same effect on a teacher regardless of the purpose, the identity of the assessor, or the particular model that is being followed. For example, if teacher improvement is the aim, the teacher is not going to want to appear completely uninformed in front of the assessor, therefore best practice (as the teacher understands it to be) will be displayed. If Model 4 is the aim, then again, the assessor is going to want to see efficient and effective use of resources, so the teacher will once more want to demonstrate best practice, otherwise their job security might be endangered. However, it is accepted that the extent of the impact of an observer may show some variation, depending on purpose and their relationship with the classroom occupants.

2.3.2.2   *Teacher acceptance of appraisal systems*

According to Wilson (1988), teacher appraisal should take the form of a plan delivered in advance so that the aims are known, notes should be taken during the lesson, and a session held immediately afterwards in which adherence to the aims is discussed. This seems to be a particularly harsh view, where the onus is on the teacher to stick to certain pre-ordained procedures and plans: although they might know exactly where they stand, there is minimal flexibility relating to lesson plans that require adjustment in order to adapt to learner needs. This seems to be the type of situation in which teacher participants in this research perceive themselves to be, where there is emphasis on having an initial plan and the ability to adhere to it. However, it may also explain their reluctance to engage with their current appraisal process. Shinkfield and Stufflebeam (1995) cite research suggesting that those teachers who are favourably disposed towards evaluation will gain the most benefit from it: most of us benefit from things we enjoy, whereas we do not care to dwell on those which are unpleasant.

Hancock and Settle (1990) identify three main reasons for appraisal, with which Kyriacou (1987) generally agrees:

A. **As a means of letting teachers know how they are doing, indicating the changes needed in behaviour, attitude, skills and knowledge.** This suggests judgement, and raises the question as to who is actually identifying the changes, and how and why they are doing it. If the appraisal is being carried out on a punitive basis, then the required changes may not be a valid reflection of the teacher's ability.

B. **To provide teachers with an accurate base on which to build coaching, counselling or self-help schemes**. This concept would seem to link with (A) above whilst relating to PD, and suggestions might follow along the same lines, depending on the reason why the appraisal was initially instigated.

C. **To ensure that objective judgements are made about teachers on which salary increases, promotion, transfers or job changes can be based**. Again, this point links to (A) and (B), but also relates most closely to this research, because the premise is that the subjective judgements made by observers (O'Leary, 2006) on the basis of one lesson may not be a true representation of the abilities or skills of an individual teacher.

Hancock and Settle (1990) also identify several key dangers of the appraisal process, related to resistance (the human factors), operational differences (methods and approaches), and incompatibility (differing perceptions), all of which have resonance in this research. To be viewed in a constructive manner, they suggest that an appraisal system needs to provide positive reinforcement and job enrichment. For the participants in this research, the positive reinforcement is the fact that teachers will continue to work for the parent organisations, but it must be argued that, as the only incentive, this is more extrinsic than intrinsic and does not provide a move towards personal PD. Bartlett (1996:7) recognises this fact when he argues that the major conflicting purposes of appraisal are 'the accountability of teachers and promoting professional development', suggesting that a compromise position might be difficult to achieve.

2.3.2.3   *Self-appraisal*

Hancock and Settle's book (1990) discusses self-appraisal and self-evaluation in the UK, as an alternative to observation, and their focus is on making this accessible to teachers and head teachers. They argue that teachers need to participate in appraisal:

> Because *at its worst* appraisal is a form of behaviour modification which attempts to make a teacher conform to certain ways of working.

> Because *at its best* appraisal is something to help and support a teacher, which can make the work more enjoyable.' (ibid:13, authors' italics)

Participation means that teachers are able to provide input during the process, thus avoiding Hancock and Settle's worst scenario, so it seems that the best systems exist as a joint construction between teachers and managers, in order that they can be maintained. They (ibid) were writing at a time when a recommended teacher appraisal process was as Figure 3 (Ap = appraiser, As = appraisee):
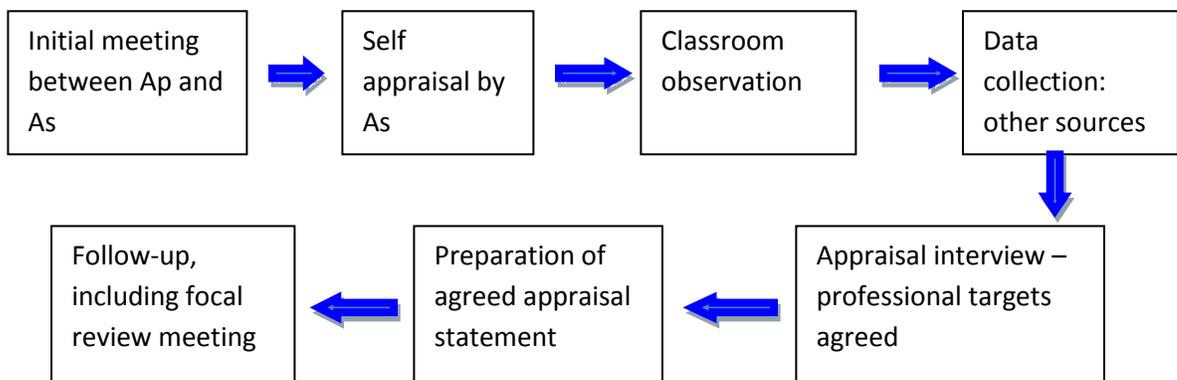
Figure 3: From Advisory Conciliation and Arbitration Service (ACAS) Working Group Report, June 1986

However, this summary reveals that classroom observation is recommended as one part of the appraisal, although they (ibid) suggest that this full process could take up to two years. This is because, as Hancock and Settle state, 'it is our belief that quality performance in the classroom is the crucial aspect of effectiveness for teachers' (1990:vii), therefore some observation is required. So the argument keeps returning to the necessity of including it as part of teacher appraisal. They (ibid) also claim that the greatest resistance to the inception of such schemes is from managers, who lack the relevant skills and dislike criticising staff (O'Leary, 2006). Hancock and Settle (ibid) identify open and closed appraisal systems: in the former, there are no hidden forms, but in the latter, the appraisees do not see anything that has been written about them. Some of the colleges where the research participants are employed operate open appraisal assessment policies, where teachers are provided with a copy of the observation report, but others do not.

Hancock and Settle (ibid) argue that self-appraisal is by far the best option, suggesting that teachers must bear the ultimate responsibility for their own development. Whether teachers are appraised by supervisors (external appraisal) or peers (group appraisal) it is still very important that they are working on self-appraisal at the same time, and, in terms of the current research, this would seem to be what participants were keen to do. But they also argue (ibid) that external appraisal provides a structured framework, and it would seem that they are really advocating a self-appraisal system which is subservient to that of the evaluation carried out by supervisors.

2.3.2.4   *Student evaluation of teachers (SET)*

Writing at a similar point in time, Lokan and McKenzie (1989) also identify the importance of student input in the teacher appraisal process. Teacher evaluation of students is an important feature of appraisal in some of the colleges where the participants work, and an example of a form is given in **Appendix A**. However, there can be dangers in placing too much faith in student evaluation of teaching staff, as objectivity very much depends on the way in which it is carried out. For example, if a class of students is given the form at the end of the day when they are tired after several sessions, there is a distinct possibility that they might blame the officiating teacher for their feelings of lassitude, and negative feedback is likely to predominate. If, however, it is earlier in the day and the students have just engaged in an interesting and lively activity, then it is much more likely that they will be positive about the teacher. This suggests that in order to obtain accurate feedback the teacher needs to be able to control the point at which students are asked to complete the evaluation forms, but this is not always possible in an organisational setting. Therefore it would seem best to view student feedback in a holistic fashion (Moses, 1989), and teacher input should certainly be encouraged, as staff usually value student comments.

2.3.2.5   *Appraisal for language teachers*

Many books about appraisal in mainstream education have been designed as guides to teachers, head teachers and organisations that operate, or intend to use, one or more of the range of techniques available (Brascamp et al, 1984; Hancock and Settle,

1990; Montgomery and Hadfield, 1989; Shinkfield and Stufflebeam, 1995). Pennington (1983) focuses on language teachers, arguing that whilst they constantly appraise their pupils, they are themselves continuously appraised by pupils, parents, governors and staff, describing this as being a PD exercise. Her aim, therefore, is to provide a practical guide by means of case studies, and she claims that 'appraisal is a process of evaluation, with the valuing of colleagues at its centre' (1993:4). However, it would seem that this concept has been lost during the intervening years, as 'appraisal' still provokes alarm for many teachers, who do not feel at all valued. Pennington continues:

> Appraisal is about making judgements. It will not be possible to acknowledge good performance or to identify development needs unless both appraiser and appraisee make judgements about quality. The important condition is that judgements are well informed and agree (ibid:15)

It is difficult to disagree with this statement, but as a general rule it would seem to be the judgements of the appraiser that stand the test of time, whilst the judgements of appraisees are often subordinate, and do not form part of the appraisal record. The term 'judgement' carries a number of connotations, not least of which is considerable degree of subjectivity (Williams, 1989).

2.3.2.6 Higher education (HE) faculty appraisal in the Middle East

Mercer's (2006) study of faculty appraisal is highly pertinent to this research. She writes that HE institutions in the Middle East are almost entirely staffed by faculty and administrators from BANA countries, but subject to employment laws and practices not based in Western ideology. She discovered that in the public school sector,

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employees accepted the need for appraisal, but in the HE sector, where this research is based, there was a broad range of opinion from both management and teachers about its usefulness, or otherwise. On investigating the link between appraisal and changes in performance, only about 20% of her respondents reported teaching improvement, whilst another 20% said it had had a negative effect, in that it made them tired and stressed, so as a result they gave students what they wanted rather than what they needed.

When asked if the appraisal system in their institutions represented a 'paradigm of professionalism and/or managerialism' (ibid:24), both management and teachers agreed that appraisal could be both evaluative and developmental at the same time, but disagreed about the function in their own institutions. The vast majority, however, claimed that it was evaluative; half the faculty commented negatively on the process, whilst the management avoided being openly critical. But Mercer did discover that 'an appraisal system that was seen as highly evaluative but very fair would not be considered an imposition of management control' (ibid:25), suggesting that such a system would be viewed positively.

Her final research question related to whether teachers felt that they were under surveillance, and two main contextual factors became apparent. Firstly, her study was based in a country where only 20% of the population are indigenous, and the balance is guest workers on short contracts, with relatively few rights. Secondly, workers are sponsored by their employers, and visas can be revoked at any time, making the situation totally unlike that which exists in BANA countries. Respondents commented that the appraisal system had the opportunity to be of great benefit, in that it was much easier to dismiss poorly performing staff than it was in the West. However, they

emphasised that it should be used fairly, as there were occurrences where teachers were dismissed without seeming to know why. As Mercer (ibid) points out, teachers who are dismissed are unlikely to want to share the information that their performance was considered inadequate, and it is important that fellow teachers are aware of the fairness of the decision. She goes on to state that the success, or otherwise, of an appraisal system depends on the preconceptions that the appraisees have concerning the management of their organisation, thus it is intimately related to the organisational ethos, and the supervisors employed.

There is one further point that Mercer does not include, which is that colleges such as those which comprise my research context generally devote a great deal of teacher time, effort and energy to ensuring that their student assessment programme is fair, accurate, and devoid of any form of cultural bias. They do this because the teachers are BANA nationals and the students are Middle East nationals, and, bearing in mind the World English debate (Bolton and Kachru, 2006), organisations are keen to ensure that students are not disadvantaged by the assessment methods chosen. The amount of attention paid to organising and processing student assessment means that there may be little energy or enthusiasm left on either the part of managers or teachers to analyse their own appraisal system in any detail. As such, teacher appraisal systems appear to continue to build on existing frameworks, and only observation feedback forms and evaluation components seem to show signs of some alteration as time progresses.

2.3.3 Appraisal in ELT

Appraisal in ELT has formed the subject of investigation intermittently over the years (Delamere, 1986; Early and Bolitho, 1981). Freeman et al (2009) argue that ELT appraisal is a special case, as teachers are using English to teach English, therefore the construct of pedagogical content knowledge may not work, as illustrated in Figure 4:

Figure 4: The elaborated frame (the conventional frame applied to language, Freeman et al, 2009:83)

CONTENT 1:

Knowing language

CONTENT 2:

Knowing about language

METHODOLOGY:

Knowing how to teach language

Assessed by language tests or by judgements of 'nativeness'

Assessment either by one's academic record (e.g. coursework) and/or in situ (by observation)
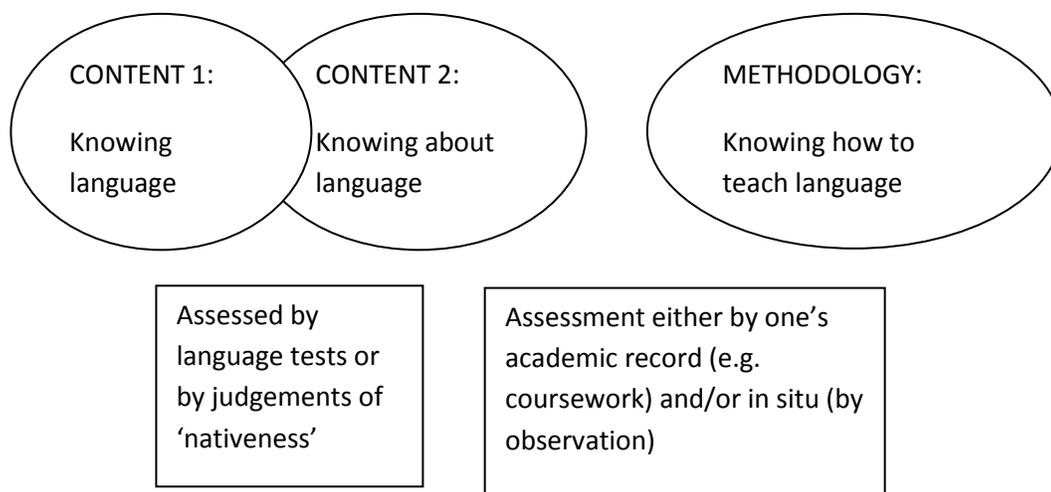
This distinction between the two types of content knowledge is crucial in language teacher assessment, as CONTENT 1 is sometimes used as a proxy for CONTENT 2 (as with the employment of NSs to teach English). Therefore they (ibid) suggest an updated view of language teaching as demonstrated in Figure 5:

Figure 5: Emergent view – Language knowledge for/in teaching (Freeman et al, 2009:86)
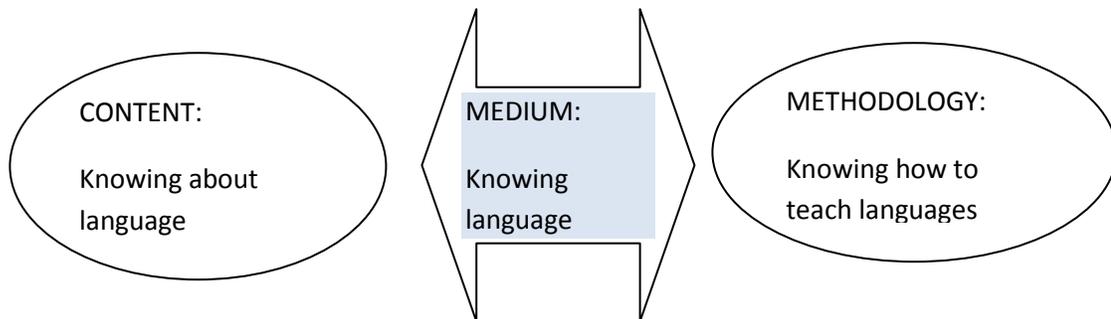
In the emergent view the teacher knows language, as well as about it and how to teach it, and appraisal systems need to be developed that can take these factors into account. Lessons can be learned from experiences in mainstream education which could inform practice in the ELT field, as Thaine (2004) notes that there is little discussion in the literature about the way that teachers are actually assessed. When considering existing teacher appraisal in ELT, some of the best indicators of possible areas of interest are provided by initial teacher training, and the CELTA Descriptors (ibid:341) for teaching English to adults define the following areas as requiring assessment:

- Language awareness
- The learner, the teacher and the teaching/learning context
- Planning for effective teaching
- Classroom management and teaching skills
- Resources and materials
- Professional development

However, Thaine does warn that these headings include the dangers of over generalisation and overlap, whilst the assessment criteria themselves may be too closely packed to allow for any diversity. He summarises:

> while it is important to acknowledge, and to some degree tolerate differences of interpretation, the ultimate responsibility of those involved in evaluating teachers at both pre-service and in-service level should be to aim for as much transparency and consistency as possible. (ibid:344)

It therefore seems that authors are arguing for the same thing, but the provision of transparency and consistency would appear to be something of a problem, and the reality is often somewhat different, depending on the context in which appraisal is carried out.

Observation is not the only way in which a teacher can be appraised, and there are several alternatives, which are often formative (Thaine, 2004), such as peer or self-evaluation (Rea Dickens and Germaine, 1992). There are also journal writing techniques (Richards and Ho, 1998) and portfolios (Bailey et al, 2001), which allow the teacher to develop and become involved in the process. Thaine (ibid) writes in the context of the CELTA, but his words still have resonance in the evaluation of working teachers: it is important to consider the best way to assess teaching capability. However, in reality few organisations employing large numbers of teachers seem able to spare the time that formative assessment would require: appraisal is one of the main tasks facing managers in their annual work plan, and they want to complete the process as rapidly as possible. Providing that the teachers who work for them display competence in the language classroom, they are unlikely to present difficulties in terms of student behaviour or learning outcomes. Lip-service may be paid to developing a teaching

portfolio, or engaging in self-evaluation, but it is often the appraisal observation that carries the most weight in terms of guaranteeing future employment (Sheal, 1989).

2.4   Observation as a form of teacher appraisal

Observation can be discussed in terms of research (Allwright, 1988; Delamont and Hamilton, 1970), but for many in the teaching profession, teacher appraisal is a key concern. It determines contract renewal and career progression, and may also affect pay increments, so is seen as being of real importance. Goldhaber and Anthony write that 'it remains an open question as to whether it is even possible to judge teachers' effectiveness outside of direct observations of their teaching ' (2004:2), and whilst this view exists, so will appraisal observations. But literature about the effects of observation is limited: mainstream education tends to focus on preparation for the experience and what to do as an observer (Pennington, 1983; Walker and Adelman, 1990), rather than what actually happens in the classroom whilst the observation is taking place. In the field of ELT, the focus of observation literature is usually on strategies used for research rather than for appraisal purposes.

A good working definition of observation is provided by Bailey (2001:114), who describes it as being 'the purposeful examination of teaching and/or learning events through the systematic processes of data collection and analysis'. This statement could easily apply to classroom observations for the purpose of research or peer evaluation, but in this particular context the focus is on observations for the purpose of appraisal.

Referring to mainstream education, Wragg (1987) suggests that observers are typically looking for three things:

- Behaviour and experiences of pupils

- Behaviour of the teacher

- Teaching outcomes

Additional categories, such as exploitation of materials, could perhaps be added when viewing a ELT lesson. However, the observation itself goes beyond the events occurring in the classroom, and Allwright (1988:44) writes that:

> Classroom observations need to be valid not only as accurate records of classroom interaction, but also, and in a sense more importantly, as records that properly focus on aspects of classroom behaviour that we know to be causally related to learner achievement .

However, it seems difficult for a single observed lesson to represent all that he suggests, without considering the myriad of additional features that can influence classroom events: in fact it is only a partial reflection of the interaction, work and activities that have brought the class to this point, and needs to be viewed as such.

For the management or the organisation carrying out appraisal observations, the ultimate goal is learner achievement by means of demonstrably effective teaching, and there is emphasis on record keeping (Hancock and Settle, 1990), which can be problematic. Allwright (ibid) suggests that there should be a strong degree of objectivity on the part of the observer, but, as they are only human, elements of their own experience are likely to intrude into the observation process (Sideridis, 1998). Additionally, as a teacher's, and also perhaps the students', supervisor, the observer may have a threatening presence in the classroom, affecting the behaviour of both parties.

Blease has carried out research into observer effects in primary education, and there was a noticeable impact upon the children involved. As he writes:

> concern over the possible effect of an observer on the behaviour of those being observed casts doubt upon the validity of initial observations made before both teachers and pupils become accustomed to the observer's presence (1993:213).

He is therefore suggesting that an observer has a recognised effect upon the occupants of a classroom, although they will ultimately become accustomed to this unfamiliar presence, which, I would argue, is not necessarily the case.

There is more to observation than just watching someone. As Malderez (2003:179) writes, 'observation does not just mean 'seeing': it is most often used to include 'hearing', as well as using other senses to collect information'. But as Wragg et al argue, referring to mainstream education: as what teachers do most is teach, in order to assess a teacher it is necessary to watch what they do:

> appraisal of teaching without classroom observation is problematic since teachers share the view that for most of them it is the central activity in their professional life. (1996:16)

Wragg (1999:viii) claims that if this is skilfully done, it can be a useful tool for improving teaching quality, but badly done, it can be a 'menace'. He suggests that appraisal is more common than it used to be, so if a lesson is worth observing it is also worth analysing properly. However, where once the system was more flexible, it has now been formalised in order to provide accountability on the part of both teachers and supervisors. Many teachers would agree with Wragg's comments about a proper analysis, but it seems that this is not always possible, and they may feel that they have been short-served by the system.

When teachers are teaching, the classroom is their personal space: once the door is closed and the lesson begins, learning outcomes for the students become their responsibility over the course of the next timetable period. Teaching does have a sensitive dependence on initial systems, in that a small change in lesson procedure or a certain activity can produce radically different results (Larsen-Freeman, 1997; Mallows, 2002, writing about chaos and complexity), but changes are usually contained within the walls of the classroom, and the teacher guides the lesson towards its goals. However, there are teachers for whom the presence of an observer is an anathema, and any other form of professional appraisal may be preferable, so investigation of this attitude forms a key component of the current investigation. One possible reason for this dislike is that the function of observation has mainly been seen as being for purposes of evaluation and accountability (Malderez, 2003). It thus provides a threat to self-esteem, whilst being told about other people's judgements is seen as being of minimal practical use to the teacher.

Often discussions of observation warn of its shortcomings, and Bennet's (1992) perceptions certainly reflect a rather less comfortable side. He critiques classroom observation by saying that:

> such a system turns every appraiser into a judge and jury. The appraiser decides what constitutes 'good' teaching, based presumably on their own years of experience; the appraiser selects the criteria upon which the final judgement is made; the appraiser represents the 'management' in providing a control mechanism to keep the profession in line. The appraisee's role is very much limited to teaching and awaiting judgement (ibid:41).

Many teachers do, indeed, feel that this is the case: the appraiser is seen as a judge, and in the post-observation debriefing (whether face to face or via written communication) the verdict is passed. In an ideal world both parties should share the development of observation criteria, but as many observers use standard institutional forms (see **Appendix A**) this is not really a viable option. This perception of the appraisee's role appears to be very negative, but from previous research it certainly seems that many teachers are of the opinion that Bennet (ibid) does provide an effective summary of a model lesson. Referring to post-compulsory education (PCE) in the UK, O'Leary writes:

> It is argued … that current models of classroom observation, which typically involve some form of appraisal or assessment of the teacher's performance, run contrary to the principles of teacher development and as such do little to improve the overall quality of teacher performance (2004:191)

He claims that observations focus on the more 'trivial' aspects of teaching, instead of encouraging teachers to become reflective practitioners. He also believes that for such systems to become more effective they must actively involve teachers and learners, as does Barnard (1998).

2.4.1   Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted)

Much of the negative publicity relating to appraisal observations in mainstream education over the past decade or so may originate with Ofsted: a system whereby school evaluation occurs on a two-year cycle and individual teachers are observed in

their classrooms by a visiting group of experts (Early and Bolitho, 1991). This can have a positive effect: Barber et al (1995) stated that teachers believed classroom observation was the most important factor in the school examination, concluding that it had generally been a positive experience overall. However, 'where teachers had *played safe* in choosing areas of focus, the classroom observation tended to play an affirmative role, but did not afford adequate opportunities for professional improvement' (Tilstone, 1998:112, author's italics). Insufficient rigour in applying criteria and following up problem areas was identified (TTA/Ofsted, 1996) and target setting failed to focus on teacher effectiveness in the classroom (Tilstone, 1998).

O'Leary claims Ofsted makes 'the assumption that input = output and the relationship between the two is transparent' (2006:196), but that if a student answers a question correctly it does not necessarily mean that learning has occurred. Ofsted uses a 'deficit model' (ibid:197) that 'pre-supposes that there is already something 'missing' in the teacher's performance and it is the role of the inspector/observer to provide these missing pieces of the jigsaw', and this seems to be how appraisal observations are often viewed by the observers. This model appears to be common to teacher education, with both pre-service and in-service training (INSET) looking for omissions, which goes against the ethos of PD by taking the power away from the individual and giving it to the observer (ibid).

2.4.2　　　　Observation systems

Before addressing literature relating to observation, it is necessary to briefly investigate observation systems, as these seem to have been amongst the first aspects to be discussed at length in mainstream education (Galton, 1979; Samph and White, 1973). They were developed in the context of observation for research purposes, and Allwright (1988) argues for the importance of using the phrase 'systematic classroom observation' to reflect the fact that classroom observers should look at events in a systematic manner.

Flanders was reputed to have started this interest in observation in the 1960s with his investigation of teaching styles in mainstream education, but in fact there was quite a lot of published interest in observation and its effect on teacher behaviour dating from at least 1953. He established early benchmarks for observation in 1966, when he published a system (or schedule) of behaviour providing categories for teacher observation: Flanders' interaction analysis (FIA). However, when he wrote his analysis of teaching behaviour in 1979 he was already anticipating that these standards would become obsolete at some point in the future. Following the publication of Flanders' *Interaction Analysis* in 1966, Simons and Boyer's (1967) *Mirrors for Behaviour* was published in the USA, consisting of five volumes containing 150 different observation systems, with accompanying instructions. Observation systems were developed to suit the user's purposes, suggesting that compilers were identifying a right or wrong way to teach, which seems to be the premise upon which appraisal observations are based.

Freeman (1982) developed an ELT related observation system incorporating Supervisory, Alternative, and Non-directive approaches, which could be considered to

be most relevant to the current research. As he explains, training addresses a teacher's most immediate needs, but development refers to a teacher's personal growth, thus the level of supervision decreases accordingly.

i)   **The Supervisory Approach** assumes that there is a right and wrong way to teach a lesson, as the supervisor gives feedback on what s/he has seen in terms of, for example, pace and range of activities. But the power relationship thus provided can be damaging if the observer is inexperienced, or tends to dwell on negative rather than positive aspects.

ii)   **The Alternatives Approach** means that the observer suggests a variety of alternatives to the classroom activity that has been observed, and by being non-judgemental, hopes to develop the teacher's critical thinking ability. Comments should be realistic, but do not need to be provided directly from the observer's experience. However, the teacher may find this provision of alternatives frustrating, especially when they are expecting direct feedback.

iii)   **The Non-directive Approach** where the observer's goal is to build a supportive relationship with the teacher, aiming 'not to judge or evaluate, but to understand… and to clarify' (ibid:24). In this case the observer asks for background information about the class, and then, in the reflection stage of the discussion, relates this to what s/he has seen in the class. Limits must be maintained, even when the observer starts to question what was seen, and the teacher remains in control. The observer must not move the discussion into his/her world, or relate it to the way that they s/he may have taught the class.

The above categories relate more to post-observation feedback, however, no one supervisor necessarily fits into a single category, or employs the same level of supervision in all contexts. For example, where they might be inclined to be directive with teachers just beginning their careers, they may find it more effective to be alternative or non-directive with more established teachers. A range of systems can still be seen in teacher training classrooms as new schedules are continuously being developed (Ingham and Greer, 1992; Pell, 2009), despite the fact that such methods were critically analysed by Walker and Adelman in 1989. Educational institutions have adapted the criteria in order to identify competencies, which, much simplified from the earlier versions, are arguably easier to use.

Although many of the hundreds of observation schedules developed over the years have fallen from common use, the basic ideas behind them have not. The main focus in this section is FIA because this was the system used in research carried out by Samph (1968 and 1976), which is discussed in [2.4.3]. However, Wallace (1998) makes a strong case for the problematisation of observation instruments, writing within the context of action research and PD. He claims that structural approaches can be of two types, systems-based or *ad hoc* (author's italics), FIA being an example of the former. It has a finite number of categories, seven relating to teacher talk and three to pupil talk, and occurrences during the lesson are recorded on a tally sheet at three second intervals. Wallace argues that in order to carry out such an observation the observer must necessarily be trained, and a significant problem is that the categories may not be relevant, or sufficiently developed, to effectively record the lesson being observed. Therefore observers need to think very carefully about the particular observation

schedule that they intend to use, and ad hoc approaches (those devised for a particular classroom purpose) may be much more effective.

The resulting feedback form can have several functions: it can be destined for the teachers' files, as a record of what they can or cannot do in the classroom, and perhaps (in the context of this research study) as the instigation of a possible dismissal procedure. In ideal circumstances the contents of the feedback record are shared with the teacher, and the way in which matters should proceed from that point is discussed: if the record contains a large number of 'negative' points, then the teacher may be asked to repeat the model lesson.

2.4.3 Early observation research and ethical approaches

As discussed earlier, many sources on teacher observation come from mainstream education (Croll, 1986; Montgomery, 1999; Stubbs and Delamont, 1976: West, 1992; Wragg, 1994; Wragg et al, 1996), although there is also a history of observation in ELT (Allwright, 1988). Medley and Mitzel (1963) argue that teachers behave differently when they are being observed (Labov, 1972), and a seminal study in terms of this research was carried out by Samph in 1968. His major concern was that teachers being observed might adjust their verbal behaviour to 'try to create a favourable impression' (1968:1), arguing against the then-existing premise that 'an observer's presence does not differentially affect teachers' (ibid). Samph claimed that observers recognised this problem, but did little about it, and writes:

School administrators and supervisors of teachers should … be concerned about the possible effect their presence in the classroom might have on the verbal behaviour of teachers. The supervisor or principal who evaluates teacher performance on the basis of observations may be arriving at inaccurate conclusions due to his own presence in the classroom (1968:2)

He cites a study by Mitzel and Rabinowitz in 1953 where observers visited the same classroom every Monday morning for eight weeks. Changes were recorded in teacher behaviour during the first four weeks, but in the final four week period they had become used to the presence of observers, and did not adapt their behaviour to any great extent. Samph (ibid) notes that the presence of supervisors may have the same effect, but the question must to be asked as to how many teachers could receive a visit from an observer at the same time with the same class each week, especially bearing in mind the number of supervisor hours that this would entail.

Samph (1968) explains that protocol in his research decreed that teachers were informed prior to the observed lesson taking place, and that they often prepared a lesson in advance, as well as taking the opportunity to warn their students as to how they should behave: a situation which, according to this research, has not changed in the intervening period. His four hypotheses were (ibid:3):

- Teachers will behave more like their perceived ideal teacher when an observer is present in the classroom.
- Teachers will behave more like their perceived ideal teacher when informed of an observation prior to its occurrence than they will when not informed of an observation prior to its occurrence.

- Teachers will behave more like their perceived ideal teacher when informed of an observation prior to its occurrence and an observer is present than they will when not informed of an observation and no observer is present.

- When there is a comparison of teacher behaviours under the following conditions:

  i)   teachers are not informed of an observation and no observer is present

  ii)   teachers are informed of an observation prior to its occurrence and an observer is present

  teachers low in manifest anxiety will behave more like their perceived ideal teacher than will teachers high in manifest anxiety.

Samph used FIA [2.4.2] to categorise classroom activities. In current research practice it would be neither desirable nor ethical to introduce an observer to a classroom without prior warning. However, he had an added advantage in that all four types of classes were observed via an electronic monitoring system (a remote microphone), and repeated observations were thus possible without disturbing the classroom occupants. Another factor of his research that would not be ethically acceptable today was that the teachers were told that their students were the subject of the study, and that the microphones were there to ensure that they (the students) were not distracted by observers.

Teachers were observed covertly for the first four weeks, and this was considered to be their normal, or regular behaviour, corresponding to my pedagogic lessons (in Samph's research classification, an observer was not present and the teacher was not informed). Then a letter was sent informing the teachers that observations would start,

and the remaining three categories were used for the last four weeks. When the observations were over, each teacher was interviewed. Relevant data was extracted from the FIA, and, having undergone much quantitative investigation, the results demonstrated that teachers did behave more like their perceived ideal when an observer was present. However, Samph's findings also suggested that teachers did not perform any differently when informed of a forthcoming observation than they did when not informed. Additionally, he discovered that there were significant differences in praise and criticism between the conditions 'observer-present – teacher informed' and 'observer not present – teacher not informed'. He also notes that when an observer was present, the teachers demonstrated more 'indirect' behaviours, and summarises that:

> researchers using direct observation of behaviour must devote more energy to the development of procedures which will minimise the observer's effect, The most realistic approach to this problem is to keep an observer in the setting long enough to be perceived as a 'piece of the furniture' (ibid:11)

He also suggests that those responsible for student teacher development should base their judgements on longer and more frequent observations, and this certainly seems to be the case in current practice in teacher education (Copland and Kurtoglu Hooton, both 2008).

Despite ethical shortcomings, Samph's research demonstrates some interesting ideas: he remarks on the changes in the use of praise and criticism between the observed and non-observed lessons, and warns observers that they should not make 'tenure' decisions based solely on direct observation. He also writes that, because of the vagaries of the observation process, 'normally *poor* teachers may be observed as being

sufficiently qualified for teaching when, in fact, they are not*' (1968:12, author's italics). This presents the other side of the argument, but is actually a real and present danger when an observation system is not representative of the teachers being appraised. Finally, Samph writes:

> Some individuals may infer from this study that direct observation is not an adequate procedure for collecting data. This inference is entirely unfounded. Direct observation is undoubtedly the most realistic procedure for noting and analysing what occurs in 'reality'. Problems arise when observer effects are ignored. To be aware of observer effects and to develop techniques for reducing their influence is a goal towards which researchers and other users of direct observation should strive (1968:13).

This, then, was the state of observation research in the late 1960's, and Samph's warnings would seem to be still pertinent today with reference to appraisal. However, it appears that in the intervening period little has been done to extend this particular line of research, although there were other studies taking place at that time that are of interest. For example, according to some sources there may be little point in carrying out observations in order to identify whether or not a teacher in the classroom is effective. In 1968, Dubin and Taveggia examined data from nearly 100 studies over a period of 40 years and discovered that college teaching methods made no difference to student examination marks. Another report from 1966 (Stephens, ibid) also concluded that the type of instruction made little difference to a student's final academic outcome, thus providing a background to observation research.

Another early text on the subject, Stubbs and Delamont (1976), discusses explorations in classroom observation, and is, in reality, an argument for the direct

recording of classroom events, probably based on the numerous observation schedules [2.4.2]. It was located in mainstream education in Britain at that time, describing the classroom as 'a new research area': it can be assumed that relatively few recordings had taken place prior to the publication of their book, bearing in mind the cumbersome equipment that would be required. Wragg (1987) refers to Samph's research into classroom observation as being significant, and Samph writes:

> Investigators purport to be measuring what a teacher normally says in a classroom, but in fact they are measuring what a teacher says when an observer is present in the classroom. In order to draw conclusions from the data obtained from observational systems, such an assumption is necessary (1976:737).

The terminology and phraseology in this article have been adjusted slightly to compensate for advancing years, but basically the findings of his previous report are repeated: unobtrusive observers were asked to categorise the teacher's behaviour every three seconds in accordance with the ten categories of the FIA system. Again participating teachers were told that the research related to their students, an ethically questionable approach, and Samph (ibid) found that observer presence related to more praise, questions, and acceptance of student-generated ideas by teachers. However, teacher lecturing and acceptance of students' feelings were not significantly affected.

Barnard, writing about the ethical implications of classroom research in 1998, focuses on EFL teachers. He argues that 'it is … clear that what is observed in the classroom is at best an imperfect manifestation of underlying professional competence' (ibid: 49): observers need to take into account the perspectives of the different participants, whether they be supervisors or peers. There is a conflict of interests,

because observer opinions about what they have seen are inevitably subjective, particularly where there is a blending of professional roles. He argues that observers should know exactly what they are looking for when they enter the classroom, and teachers should know what this is. Secondly, the observer's active participation in the lesson (if any) should be agreed in advance with the teacher. Thirdly, bearing in mind that 'any form of data collection may, unintentionally, be threatening' (ibid:52) this also must be discussed with the teacher in advance. He makes an interesting point about the observer being an intruder in the classroom culture, writing that:

> the intrusion affects the psychological and social rapport between and among teachers and learners. The observer should take every step to reduce the disruption by being sensitive to the personal perspectives of all members of the classroom (ibid: 52)

He goes on to say that as the teacher is usually the key factor when classes are observed it is vital that they are aware of the observer's intentions, as well as being willing participants. The feedback to all parties involved is also important, and Barnard argues that this courtesy should be extended to the learners as, particularly in ELT, their cultures may not encompass situations where a stranger enters the classroom to sit and make notes. He writes that:

> The learners should be considered as active partners, rather than passive subjects, of the observational process. They should be advised of the purpose of the observation and the reason for the selection of their particular class. Ways should be found for them, like the teachers, to benefit from the process – perhaps by providing them too with useful, sensitive and timely feedback (ibid: 53).

He summarises by recording that the ethics of the observation process are based on the following two criteria;

- The informed consent of participants and agreed access

- The information gained must be used appropriately

Barnard (ibid) also makes the point that observations should be seen as being voluntary, even in cases where appraisal observation is part of the teacher's contract, and that details should remain confidential. Although his suggestions can sound somewhat complex and time-consuming to put into practice, it does seem that if appraisal observations must take place, then this is fair and ethical way to carry them out.

Therefore, to summarise, observation needs to be carried out in an ethical manner, which was not apparent in the early classroom research. The presence of the observer has an impact on classroom behaviour: some teachers will behave in a more pupil-centred way than usual, as in the Samph study, whilst others may feel obliged to *perform* (Appel, 2007) so that their skills are on public display. However, if all the participants in the observation process are completely involved from the outset (Barnard, 1998) then there may be no need for anyone to second guess the reasons or requirements of the visitor to the classroom, and the occasion becomes beneficial for all those involved.

2.4.4   Observation in ELT

There are a number of texts relating to observation in a ELT context (Allwright, 1988; Bailey, 2001; Copland, 2008; Hobbs, 1977; Kurtoglu Hooton, 2008; Mallows,

2002; Master, 1983 and 1984; Murdoch, 2000; Tennant, 2006; Wang and Day, 2002), many of which have been written over the last decade. Mallows (2002) and Larsen-Freeman (1997) relate language learning to chaos and complexity theory, arguing that any complex system must be observed for a long time before you can tell where it is going. But for most appraisal observations the one thing that the observer does not have is the ability to return repeatedly to the same classroom, in order to establish exactly what is happening on a long term basis (Borg, 2006b:247).

However, it is not only the observation itself which is important: the surrounding context is equally relevant. Writing in the Middle East, Murdoch (2000) argues for the importance of carrying out teacher evaluation in a supportive environment, using data from research carried out at the United Arab Emirates University (UAEU). Because a large number of teachers there are either involved in ELT, or teach via a medium of English, his review has been included in this section. He argues that teacher evaluation tools are often under-developed and 'ad hoc', and that where performance review has been systematised it is:

> based largely on irregular observations conducted by an over-burdened director of studies or senior teacher who does not have sufficient time to prepare for, and follow up on, classroom visits. As a result these observations of classroom teaching performance are often carried out without any strong developmental focus. Such ad-hoc evaluation practices, which are all too often the norm, can only produce universal teacher anxiety, a lack of belief in the validity of observation, and a subtle undermining of other institutional initiatives to support teachers' efforts to deliver courses effectively. (ibid:54)

His paper has been written about a situation similar to that which prevails in my research; therefore criticisms can be taken as a reflection of local education policy. He

also links appraisal and PD, believing that the present system is unrepresentative, suggesting the formation of a progressive teacher-performance review founded on the aims of reflective practice, motivation and empowerment, professional activity, students' views and collaboration between teachers. He thus seems to take a holistic view of the teacher evaluation process, but his emphasis on empowering and collaboration seem to be rather more idealistic than realistic in this geographic context, bearing in mind current appraisal practices.

Views relating to appraisal and observation in the Middle East are changing, however, and gradually the focus, even for NNS English language teachers, is changing too. Al Ghafri (2005) refers to her experience of having been observed fifty times by inspectors, head teachers and colleagues over her ten years as a teacher. Now, as an observer herself, she explains that she realises she cannot force others to change immediately, but they need support over a longer period of time: her approach is positive, and argues well for the future of NNS English language teaching in the region. But not all organisations are so supportive, and teachers with negative records after appraisal observations do often find themselves expected to demonstrate change with immediate effect.

Finally, appraisal observations are not always seen as the ideal methodology for assessing teachers. Interestingly, in the ELT Manager's Handbook, Impey and Underhill (1994) decide that self-appraisal is the most effective approach for language school employees. They do include observation of teachers and feedback, but only in the context of INSET, where they suggest that it might benefit administrative staff to see what happens in the classroom.

2.4.5   **Issues and challenges associated with appraisal observation**

Williams describes a 'traditional' view of observation in ELT succinctly when she writes within the context of teacher training:

> Classroom observations have traditionally entailed the familiar scenario of nervous teacher, trying to perform correctly, whilst the trainer sits at the back ticking items on a checklist and making decisions as to what is 'good teaching' and 'bad teaching'. The teacher reads a report on his or her performance, and tries harder to get it right next time' (1989:86)

Many teachers seem to continue to view appraisal observation in this way, even as their careers progress, and Wang and Day (2002) have identified five categories of TESOL-related procedural and subjective problems:

- **The nerve-wracking experience**. In these cases, teachers found observation to be stressful, and their experience in the profession made no difference. They write:

    > another factor that heightened the anxiety of these teachers was their awareness that their teaching performance depended not only on how well they prepared the lesson, but also on how well their students responded, a factor that is not entirely predictable (Tsui, 1995). Oftentimes student unresponsiveness is caused by the mere presence of the observer, creating a challenging task for the teacher to do 'damage control' and get the students out of 'fear mode'' (ibid:7)

- **The wonder-why experience.** 'Teachers felt disempowered because their supervisors afforded them no voice in the analysis of their own teaching, and failed to provide specific feedback for them to construct a better understanding of their teaching practices' (ibid:9).

- **The put-on-the-best-show experience**. Wang and Day (ibid:9)) claim that this is the 'perhaps the most natural reaction to classroom observations', and cite a story from their research where the teacher incorporated elements in her model lesson that she had learned from the observer in order to receive a good evaluation. But, as has been identified as a key tenet of this research, there is an underlying understanding that this is how this teacher normally behaves in the classroom. However, she is actually employing a chameleon strategy (Handal and Lauvas, 1987), and Wang and Day (ibid:10) refer to the pressure on teachers 'to teach to the pedagogical preference(s) of their supervisors'.

- **The embarrassing experience**. The classroom is the teacher's domain, and when observers intervene in the lesson, the teacher can lose the courage of their teaching convictions. It may also be very difficult for them to discuss this afterwards with the supervisor.

- **The get-used-to-it experience**. Observers have an invasive influence on the classroom, and teachers being appraised need to learn to ignore this.

Tennant (2006) suggests that the main issue with observation is the way in which it is carried out: the observer 'arrives, fiddles with forms, puts ticks in boxes and leaves after 15-20 minutes' (ibid:8). He is not only referring to *quality check* observations, but also those relating to PD and collecting classroom data. He suggests that short observations are dangerous because they can lead to distortion and negativity, and there are few things more frustrating to a teacher than having spent time and energy preparing a model lesson when the observer either fails to turn up, or leaves before the climax of

the lesson. Therefore resolving this major issue would seem to be a key goal of those involved in the observation process. However, Fanselow (1988) is almost diametrically opposed to this, as he argues that teacher observations plus ensuing discussions should be limited to five minutes, claiming that a great deal can be seen in a minute, and providing the example of an advertisement. However, he omits the information that an advertisement, however short, has a beginning, a middle and an end, whereas a minute segment of a lesson might consist of absolutely anything, including silent learners engrossed in answering questions in a workbook.

In mainstream education Murdoch's (2000) reference to observation anxiety seems to reflect Samph's (1968) concerns about the effect of observation on the teachers involved. Sahakian and Stockton (1996) go further when they refer to the 'win-lose' situation that occurs when observation is seen as being punitive, and suggest that this creates an atmosphere of fear amongst teachers being observed. As such the unequal power relationship between teacher and observer causes tension (McBride and Skau, 1995) resulting in teacher isolation.

As there appear to be issues and challenges at almost every stage of the observation process, the following discussion is divided into three phases: pre-, during and post-observation. Not all authors share this nomenclature: for example Pennington (1983) describes the stages as the briefing, the observation, and the reflection, but the concepts are the same.

2.4.5.1 Pre-observation: the planning

The events occurring prior to a teacher observation are not the immediate concern of this research but need to be considered because they have bearing on the model lesson itself. In the literature the pre-observation session has been described as an opportunity for appraiser and appraisee to discuss mutual goals (Malderez, 2003) and as a situation where the teacher provides the observer with a lesson plan so that he/she can ensure that the teacher adheres to it (Bennet, 1992). The challenge, therefore, is to bring these goals together in order to establish a unified approach to appraisal observation. However, the existence, or otherwise, of pre-observation meetings seems to be the first challenge: Wang and Day (2002) report that few teachers in their research were given this opportunity. Malderez (2003:180) writes that 'pre-observation meetings, if they occur, tend to focus on procedures and the schedule being used', often perceived by the teacher involved as a checklist, and this claim would seem to reflect the more established views.

Another challenge mentioned previously is teacher anxiety. Pennington (1983) argues that any anxiety felt by the teachers prior to an appraisal observation taking place is almost eradicated when they discover that it is related to PD, rather than a search for things to criticise. She seems to be somewhat isolated in this assumption, as even a PD exercise will involve aspects of a lesson which may be the subject of corrective feedback, as this often seems to predominate over the confirmatory type (Kurtoglu Hooton, 2008).

Tennant (2006:8) argues that in order to incorporate good practice before the model lesson, the appraiser and the appraisee should meet and discuss the purpose, criteria to be used, as well as any issues that may relate to that particular class. They should do this because teaching is context-dependent, and criteria should be mutually developed so that the teacher involved can 'buy in' and give the experience a positive focus. They should also discuss the aims of the plan and the lesson, the length of both lesson and feedback, and the intended outcomes. This might not necessarily make the observation a pleasant experience, but it should allow the participating teachers to identify with the process, instead of feeling that their future has been prejudged as soon as the model lesson has ended.

2.4.5.2   *The model lesson itself*

The purpose of this research is to investigate the issues and challenges posed by the model lesson, and writing from an ELT perspective, O'Leary argues that:

> As teachers-at some point or other in our careers-we must all have gone through the process of having to plan a lesson that fulfils the requirements of an observer/inspector's checklist. In such circumstances, one might assume that most teachers choose to deliver the tried and tested lesson that they know has worked for them in the past, as they are reluctant to risk experimenting with anything new and innovative. In an age where teacher performance in the classroom seems subject to unprecedented heights of evaluative scrutiny, it is hardly surprising that teachers should stick with the safe option for fear of failure and criticism (2006:195).

He makes some interesting and relevant points here: as well as referring to the model lesson as a 'performance' he is also arguing that a rehash of tried and tested techniques

in the classroom is to be expected: his quote seems to summarise the views of many teachers. In contrast Marriot (2001) argues that observation is usually carried out for the complete benefit of the teacher being observed, which seems unlikely, bearing the above quote in mind, but does suggest that observers can also learn a great deal from the lesson. There are supervisors who learn something new from every lesson they observe, even if it is only to avoid a particular activity in class, or how not to ask questions. Others rely on appraisal observations to keep them up to date with the latest classroom techniques, so Marriot's (ibid) comments as to the benefits of the system could be highly relevant. Additionally, some teachers believe that the fact that their lessons are observed gives them a raison d'etre, and a positive appraisal is very important to them.

Observer behaviour during model lessons can be seen as an issue. Tennant (2006) recommends that the observer should record events by means of questions that come to mind, because, he argues, it is the teacher's actions that are observed rather than their thought processes. It may also happen that the teacher needs to make decisions that do not relate to the plan, so questions allow such issues to be explored and clarified. However, the pressure (either real or perceived) of the occasion can make many teachers reluctant to deviate from the plan for any reason. They would perhaps rather plan for every possible eventuality than leave themselves open to criticism, which means that unanticipated events are somewhat less likely to occur.

Good and Brophy, (2003:35) argue that there are also often problems of personal bias:

Teachers and observers can and do misinterpret classroom behavior, Not only is our ability to perceive behavior in the classroom reduced by a fast pace and not knowing what to look for, but

on occasion what we see is not congruent with our "reality". Our beliefs, past experiences and prejudices can lead us to interpret what we see incorrectly rather than to see, describe and analyse objectively what really happened.

This would seem to be a significant problem for observers and teachers during model lessons, and to relate closely to the way in which the individuals involved view their own practice.

2.4.5.3 Post-observation: the debriefing

The debriefing that takes place after an appraisal observation would seem to be a fundamental part of the process (Edge, 1993), despite Fanselow's (1988) comments that the complete observation and discussion should not exceed five minutes [2.4.5.1]. Feedback is not the main subject of this research, but a review of literature on the debriefing aspect of observation is useful in order to understand the implications for teacher behaviour during model lessons. Additionally, it is important to note that a debriefing may not always take place, and may instead be provided by written reports (Malderez, 2003).

Referring to mainstream education, Marriot suggests that 'the specific observation of the teachers' work has been one of the less carefully analysed aspects of education' (2001:vii), which certainly seems to be true in the current context. Her focus is on the fact that teachers are often unaware of their strengths and weaknesses, 'because they have not been systematically and constructively debriefed' (ibid:9). Feedback is indeed a very important area in terms of PD and future appraisal for the teachers

involved, and research has been carried out into the way that teachers are debriefed in ELT educational settings (Copland, 2008 and 2009; Farr, 2010 forthcoming; Kurtoglu Hooton, 2008). Copland writes about the need for teacher trainees to understand and adapt to the expectations of the trainer during feedback sessions, in order to avoid negative evaluation. This would seem to be equally important in the context of this research, as a model lesson is likely to be prepared in a way that would avoid negative evaluation as much as possible. Writing in the same source, Kurtoglu Hooton (ibid) focuses on the feedback itself, and identifies the fact that confirmatory feedback has a great deal to offer in terms of encouraging positive development in teacher trainees. Again, this has reverberations in teacher appraisal debriefing: confirmatory can be as effective as corrective feedback, although for many teachers the latter may have greater impact.

Pennington (1983) writes about observation checklists, arguing that exhaustive examples are demoralising and imprecise: it is unrealistic to expect to see every indicator of successful teaching in any one observation. If such a list was used for a 'box-ticking exercise, the appraisee would tend to notice only the crosses' (ibid:16), as this is the part of the assessment that will have most impact on his/her future career. Pennington (ibid) likens this process to tests for car roadworthiness: even if 98% of the car is working well, the focus has to be on the 2% which is not. To remedy this problem he suggests that the appraisal is based on four or five criteria, as opposed to attempting to observe and record everything, which is patently impossible.

To avoid problems, post-lesson, Tennant (2006) suggests that observer and observed adhere to discussing the agreed criteria, and, agreeing with Kurtoglu Hooton

(ibid), recommends always telling the teacher what was good during the lesson. Eken (2001) provides a range of criteria for observers to use in pre- and post- observation meetings, stressing the need for the observer to adopt a positive attitude from the beginning, bearing in mind the amount of effort that the teacher has expended in preparing the lesson. She argues that observers need to see 'both the 'wood and the trees'' (ibid:111) and use holistic tools to carry out the observation, rather than checklists of criteria.

Fanselow (1998) claims that too many words with a positive connotation during feedback carry the same danger as those which are negative, tending to mask potential developments in an individual's teaching. He also suggests that conversations about lessons tend to be more about the power relationships between the individuals concerned than about the lesson itself, and that when speaking participants in an interaction are not always in control of what they say, or how they speak. As a result, he claims:

> Post-observation conferences tend to be filled with judgements and tension provoking activities in which neither the teacher nor the observer, whether supervisor or friend, are having much fun! (ibid:4).

Walker and Adelman (1990) suggest that when responding to disagreement during the post-lesson feedback, observers should present counter-examples more or less without comment in order to remain outside the argument. Kyriacou (1997) also writes about supervisors who have to deal with hostile or nervous teachers, and that the process is 'formal and artificial' (ibid:39). This reinforces the position of the observer as a person entitled to make judgements, and suggests that the unequal power relationship is

certainly something that needs to be addressed in order to improve the acceptability of appraisal observations.

Referring to teacher education, Garton and Richards (2008:1) state that 'post-observation feedback is perhaps the single most important discourse that trainee teachers engage in and their success or failure may depend on their ability to deal with it effectively'. Not everyone would agree with this, but in the context of this research, I would argue that this is equally true when referring to appraisal observations, because if that discourse does prove to be negative in nature, then the teacher concerned must deal with it in terms of the consequences, whether that be a reassessment, a retrial, or termination of contract. Randall and Thornton agree, arguing that:

> any observation of a lesson is going to involve, by its very nature, judgements about what has been seen. This is perhaps the central conundrum of all teacher observation and feedback. Unless the feedback is to become so bland as to be of no use when moving a teacher on, the observer will need to make judgements about what went on in the lesson, These need to be expressed to the one being observed, and any criticism will at least have the capacity, if not the actuality, of causing pain (2001:20)

Clinical supervision might be a possible option, described by Wallace as:

> Face to face interaction between a supervisor and a teacher, or group of teachers, with reference to some classroom teaching that has previously been observed, the aim of the interaction being to discuss and analyse the teaching with a view to professional development of the teacher or teachers concerned (Wallace, 1991:109)

This could allow theory to emerge from practice, but the existence of the power relationships means that there is still a strong element of subjective judgement.

However, the concept of dialogicism in feedback (Copland and Mann, 2010, forthcoming) would seem to provide the best possible environment for such interaction to take place.

Finally, and with reference to the complete process, Kyriacou (1997) describes the concern that both teachers and observers feel about the time constraints imposed by observation, and the impact of having to leave the lesson or the feedback session rapidly because either or both have to teach another lesson.

2.4.5.4   *Deviant cases*

As Wragg (1999:104) claims, *'in some countries, the annual or biennial appraisal of classroom competence is a time when those judged to be unsatisfactory can be warned or even dismissed',* which is the situation in the parts of the Middle East where this research was carried out. The perspective has focussed so far on teachers who are dismissed for not working effectively, but it is also important to view the issue from the perspective of the employing organisation. Writing about mainstream education, Wragg terms such teachers as 'incompetent', and writes:

> Incompetence, like competence, is not unidimensional. It may include failing to keep order, not knowing or being able to impart subject matter effectively, inability to accept advice about improvement, treat the children properly, or achieve a reasonable standard of work from them. Often several of these may be noted in the same teacher (ibid:10)

From an organisational point of view, incompetence is costly, time consuming in terms of producing relevant documentation and has severe legal implications. Therefore it is

important to have a policy relating to appraisal observations whereby incompetent teachers are aware that they may be removed from post if they do not display an appropriate methodology in the classroom. However, this concept can create a real problem in terms of observation. Referring again to a mainstream appraisal situation, Wragg writes 'One of the most difficult problems occurred with teachers who were generally incompetent, but who were able to stage a satisfactory lesson when they were observed' (ibid; Samph, 1968). The solution, he argues, is to ensure that appraisal observation occurs at regular intervals, but also suggests that incompetent teachers are likely to have problems outside the classroom as well, and as such may, or may not, be open to rehabilitation.

2.4.6   Positive approaches to appraisal observation

Much of the focus in the literature seems to be on dealing with existing observation systems (Delaware, 1986; Early and Bolitho, 1982), and Tilstone (1998) describes one which seems to encourage a rather more humanistic approach, as utilised in the county of Kent (UK). Appraisers are asked only to record raw data during observations to be used in the subsequent meetings, and the teacher is given a photocopy, although there is a brief discussion before the observer leaves the classroom. However, the raw data is also discussed by teacher and observer within 48 hours, meaning that this particular form of observer training leads to (ibid:108):

- Factual descriptions rather than opinions

- Discussion of the present rather than the past

- *Sharing* rather than *giving* ideas

- Alternatives rather than prescriptive statements

- The individuals needs and how they can be modified

A draft summary of the observation precedes target setting and writing the appraisal statement, and both teachers and observers are involved in the process. This may not be an ideal solution, but the careful training beforehand does seem to suggest that Kent is moving towards eradicating some of the current inequalities apparent during observations (Figure 6).

Figure 6: Appraisal observation in the county of Kent (Tilstone, 1998)

Discussion		Preparation

Brief feedback		Observation (general focus)

Observation (specific focus)		Brief feedback

Preparation		Discussion
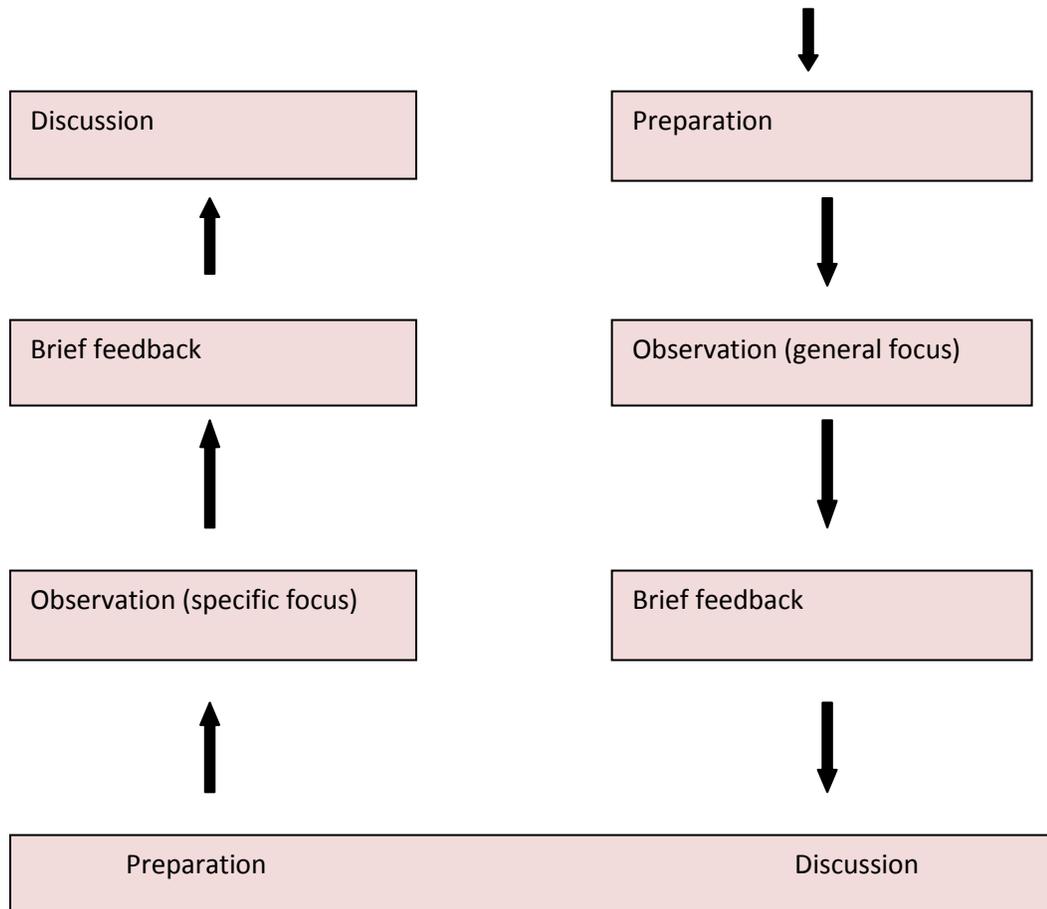
A teacher involved in this scheme writes 'I was initially very negative towards appraisal, but now I think it is very good. I wish that I had the experience before, it helps you to achieve individual focus: what you want to do; where you want to go. There is an opportunity to talk about yourself, which is very rare in teaching' (Tilstone, 1988:106). This is something that was also commented on by the research participants, and it seems that it might be a positive feature in advocating new systems.

In some countries, such as the USA, many teachers are familiar with the concept of having a video camera constantly set up in the classroom. However, experience has shown that this does not have a great deal of impact on changes in teaching practice (Good and Brophy, 2003), although it might help teachers to have observational tools to aid them in self-analysis and provide a conceptual framework.

2.4.7 The observers

In order for an observation to take place, an observer is needed, and there is an assumption that they are the experts who can make critical assessments (Delamere, 1986). Time and again discussions in the literature refer to the impact an observer has on a classroom [1.2], and, as Wragg (1999:15) states:

> It has to be recognised that when someone new comes into the classroom to observe, then the very presence of an additional adult who is not normally present may itself influence what happens. It is not easy to say exactly how things might change, because this will depend on many factors, such as how common it is for visitors to arrive in the room, the status of the person concerned, even such matters as the age, dress and sex of the observer

He describes the most common form of classroom observation as being the 'superior–subordinate model' (ibid:102), although he argues that peer appraisal can also be very valuable. However, in the current study the majority of teacher appraisal observations are carried out by supervisors, therefore it is reasonable to assume that the classroom visitor is of a high status, and likely to behave and dress in an organisationally acceptable manner. Supervisors can be defined as:

> anyone who has, as a substantial element of her or his professional remit, the duty of monitoring and improving the quality of teaching done by other colleagues in a given educational situation (Wallace, 1991:107)

As observers, college supervisors are representatives of management, ultimately responsible for the continued employment of those who are judged to be able to teach effectively. They also have the task of deciding who is not working to appropriate operational standards, and Huberman (1993) suggests that college principals often believe themselves to have an intuitive knowledge about teachers, which could be the basis for management decisions. However, White (1998:135) argues that 'the preoccupation with quality in education has tended to become associated with bureaucracy rather than professionalism', which could be considered to be a danger in any organisation, although possibly more prevalent in larger entities. Therefore the appraisal observation process can be bureaucratically based, and lack universally recognised standards, suggesting that the ultimate outcome may relate directly to the identity of the individual supervisor involved.

The supervisors in this study have been promoted from the ranks of the teaching staff, so it is reasonable to assume that they are familiar with the observation process

from the teachers' perspective. However, one of the dangers of holding a supervisory post is defined by King (1983:325), when he suggests that:

> Part of the problem of being involved in education is that most of us have a desire to 'educate'; that is to change or influence other people for what we believe to be the better, It tends to give us 'tunnel vision' and to make us dismissive of people who do not see things in the same way as ourselves.

This seems to be a real and present danger in any appraisal observation, as observers may be inclined to look for their own favourite tried and tested methodologies in the classroom. Observer bias is a distinct disadvantage, and Sideridis (1998) discusses its effects on the validity of direct observation, as well as observer drift, which occurs when an observer remembers or focuses on only some elements of his criteria. This relates closely to the coding system: if it is too complex, they may be inclined to focus on those criteria which have most resonance to them, rather than all areas. The suggested remedy for this problem is that the code is comprised of a few clear definitions, which would seem to make sense, but does not always happen in reality.

From the perspective of appraisal observations, the function of a supervisor in a college could be considered to be similar to that of a Director of Studies (DoS) in a language school (Pugsley, 1991). Lyons (1978:14) argues that commitment to the organisation can mean 'rejection of other situationally feasible alternatives', which could also affect the way that a teacher is judged during the observation process. There are also inherent dangers where supervisors have been recently promoted, especially when performance benchmarks have yet to be fully developed. Myers (1993:11) suggests that:

in areas which have undergone rapid growth – as is the case with TEFL – practitioners can be under pressure to take on roles within the organisation.. for which neither their initial training nor their previous work experience with the organisation has equipped them

Consequently there is always the danger that the person who is appraising teachers may not be either experientially or academically qualified to do so. It is possible that many teachers live with this reality during the appraisal process, thus explaining their negative perceptions. This emphasises the importance of training and preparation in the use of observation tools (O'Leary, 2006), which at least ensures that all observers in a particular institution are working according to the same benchmarks.

In terms of behaviour, Pennington (1983) suggests that observers should remain detached from the model lesson, and try to be unobtrusive, which is perhaps easier said than done. Richards and Lockhart (1996:24) agree, writing that 'an observer who is also a participant in the lesson cannot observe effectively'. However, appraisal observers seem to have differing opinions as to how much personal involvement is required during a model lesson. Although writing about observation for research purposes, Merriam (1988) identifies four different roles: as complete participant, participant as observer, observer as participant, and complete observer, who is hidden from the group in a public setting. Observers seem to have their own preferences along this cline of possible behaviours, although the level of involvement may alter depending on the particular stage that the model lesson has reached. However, there does not seem to be one standard that applies to all.

In addition to the impact of the observer [1.2] the response of the learners has yet to be clearly established. Kazdin (1982) argues that if they are concerned that they are

being judged, they might feel compelled to behave in a socially acceptable manner, and in response to prevailing conditions. This suggests that, where students were active during a pedagogic lesson, they might tend to be quiet and attentive during a model one. Pennington (1983) claims that they can be warned in advance, but this must be viewed in terms of what they are actually told.

2.5   Appraisal and effective (expert) teaching

The quality of the education service depends ultimately on the quality of the people who staff it (Wilson, 1988:102).

In order to continue the discussion of existing relevant literature, it is essential to carefully consider several important assumptions. The first of these is that in order to teach, teachers need to be able to transfer their knowledge and ideas to the students in their classroom, and the learners need to be able to remember these facts and ideas to either inform their future study and practice, or to pass examinations, or both. Teachers also need to be able to transfer the skills that are needed by the students to both acquire and utilise knowledge, and this is central to the education process. If the majority of students in a classroom are unable to use the information that they have been taught, then it would seem reasonable to argue that the teaching has not been effective, which, in turn, would suggest that the teachers themselves have not been effective either. Therefore when a teacher is observed for appraisal purposes, we need to assume that they are being assessed for their ability to teach well, or effectively. In a model lesson

the teacher is demonstrating their understanding of this concept, and teachers' reasons for behaving according to best practice are very important to this research.

2.5.1 The effective (expert) teacher observed

Appraisal and teacher effectiveness have often been linked, although much of the discussion relates to mainstream education. However, it is interesting to note that teachers can be described as expert (Berliner, 2001; Tsui, 2003; Turner-Bisset, 2001), effective (Gage, 1972; Muijs and Reynolds, 2001; O'Leary, 2006), and good (Moore, 2004): their practice can also be described as teaching quality (Wilson, 1988). As such, this topic can be addressed via the qualities that an expert teacher possesses, or via the expertise that a teacher demonstrates in the classroom, and both will be discussed in this section, with terms used interchangeably.

Wilson (1988) uses the term 'quality' to classify the effective teacher. He claims that appraisal must be linked to teacher quality, defined as being the teacher's 'capacity to deliver … the optimum curriculum to the individual learner' (1988:ix). However, in order to do this the teacher must fulfil certain criteria, and those identified by Muijs and Reynolds (2001:4) when writing about mainstream education are perhaps most useful in terms of observable outcomes. They claim that effective teachers are 'those whose students make stronger gains on standardised achievement tests', and suggest that the main features of effective instruction are:

- Clearly structured lessons
- Clear structured presentations

- Pacing

- Modelling

- Use of conceptual mapping

- Interaction and individual and group practice

These criteria are more relevant from an observer's perspective, because they are able to comment on teacher performance in all the above areas, and do not all focus on low-inference factors (Wragg, 1999). However, from an ELT viewpoint, Peacock (2002) identifies seven good teaching practices that do require more low-inference judgements, perhaps emphasising differences between this and mainstream education:

- Planning and preparing lessons carefully

- Actively involve all students in the lesson

- Good classroom management skills

- Arousing student interest and motivation

- Giving clear and careful explanations

- Use known language learning methodologies

- Good time management and pacing

Although it might appear to be the case, effective teaching is not solely linked to good lesson planning, but is also demonstrated by the way in which the teacher interacts with the students, maximises learning, and responds to unanticipated events in the classroom. Even if it is only marked by a tick in a box, an observer is able to identify whether or not a lesson has a clear structure, how much interaction there is between the students, and

whether or not the pace is appropriate for the different activities. However, activities proceed on the assumption that there is a right and wrong way of doing things, which may be acceptable in the context of teacher training, but perhaps less so when observing experienced teachers (O'Leary, 2006).

Not all criteria are clearly measureable, and Gage, referring to effective teacher behaviour, suggests that:

> "Successful" teacher behaviours or characteristics are those that have been found through empirical research to be related to something desirable about teachers. The "something desirable" may be improved achievement by students of any of the cognitive, affective or psychomotor objectives of education. Or, the "something desirable" may be a favourable evaluation of the teacher by students, a supervisor, a principal, or by someone else whose judgement is important (1972:28)

Although it is not easy to define exactly what the 'something desirable' is, the focus of the paragraph could be identified as being positive student, peer or supervisor appraisal and successful student achievement. The fact that a teacher feels positive about this experience has the potential to impact on her/his future behaviour, as this type of feedback has the same effect as confirmatory feedback (Kurtoglu Hooton, 2008).

2.5.2 The effective teacher: theories and issues

As Ingham and Greer (1992:153) write, 'teachers' use of effective instructional practice is key to adequate schooling'. They are referring to a special needs education context, but their claim has resonance in any educational setting, although some might take issue with the term 'adequate'. The assumption is that effective teaching relates to

the effective teacher, but, as Bowring-Carr argues, there is no 'generally accepted definition of a good teacher' (1993:316).

Turner-Bisset (2001) describes teaching as having many qualities: it can be viewed as being pragmatic, an art, a craft, an applied science, as a system, as reflective practice, or as a competence. Moore (2004) classifies teachers as being competent craftspersons, reflective practitioners, or charismatic (subjective), contrasting with Wallace's (1991) descriptions of Applied Science, Reflective Practitioner (Schon, 1983) and Craft Models. But Moore suggests that there are dangers attached to classifications and argues that:

> instead of seeking to become good or better teachers by matching the requirements of some externally provided profile or template – a practice which almost inevitably seems to deprofessionalise us and to limit our horizons – we need to develop our teaching by seeking better understandings of what it means to be a teacher, of the dialogic relationship between our classroom perceptions and practices and the wider social contexts within which those perceptions and practices are situated, and of possible <u>alternatives</u>, both to our practice and to those wider social contexts (ibid:10).

The concept of a good teacher is artificially embedded, and alters according to circumstances among competing discourses as to what this means. He (ibid) claims that teachers focus a great deal on how they are seen by others, and suggests:

> the balancing act between one's own preferred method of doing things and the preferred – often imposed and often antagonistic – methods and preferences of others appeared to be at the heart of the practitioner's self worth, self belief, professional satisfaction and consequent effectiveness in the classroom (2004:19)

Teacher appraisal seems to be a time when the preferred way of classroom behaviour may dominate, thus having a considerable effect on the teacher's self-worth, particularly if the observation does not go well. Moore suggests that teachers have a tendency to re-enact past experiences (Hermans Nymark, 2003 and 2006), textualising their own histories, which is not to be unexpected, as classrooms have provided a significant part of their everyday lives since they entered primary school. This also links with Erdogan's (2005) discussion of core constructs.

Moore argues that 'any search for a simple model of good teaching is ultimately doomed to failure. Each teacher must, ultimately, discover their own 'best way(s)' of doing things' (2004:25). As such teachers are aware that they are unable to resolve conflicting discourses, and their practice becomes eclectic. He claims that the concept of a good teacher is linked to that of a good school, as schools can be good for a variety of reasons, and what is good in one context may not be good in another (O'Leary, 2006). Apart from the charismatic teacher (Wilson, 1988) Moore (ibid) identifies the following progression of key discourses in teacher education and training:

A) Competent craftspersons

(Also the training discourse) Has its roots in books of practical advice and a competency basis (Malderez, 2003). However, this concept is historically situated, depending on which methodologies/teaching techniques are prevalent at any one time, therefore providing a dangerous model for teachers who are about to be observed.

B) Reflective practitioners

Observers are likely to favour the reflective practitioner, who Moore describes as having 'the particular skills needed to reflect constructively upon continuing experience as a way of improving the quality and effectiveness of one's work' (2004:100). He goes on to say:

> it consequently involves careful evaluation of the teacher's part of their own classroom performance, planning and assessment, in addition to and in conjunction with evaluation of their students' behaviours and achievements. It also implies a sound understanding on theories of cognitive, linguistic and affective development (ibid:101)

Johnson (2009) describes the 'reflective teaching movement' (Richards and Lockhart, 1996; Mann, 2005; Schon, 1983; Wallace 1991) arguing that practitioner knowledge 'is generated in and emerges out of teachers' lived experiences, it highlights the interconnectedness of how teachers think about their work, it is deeply connected to the problems of practice, and it is situated in the contexts in which such problems are constructed' (Johnson, ibid:33). As discussed in [2.4.5.3], a teacher needs to both reflect-in-action, and reflect-on-action (Schon, 1983; Kurtoglu Hooton, 2008), meaning that reflective practice is ongoing, thus making the teacher more effective in the classroom.

C) Pragmatists

Moore (ibid) describes pragmatists as coping, surviving and repositioning themselves: discourses are constantly re-negotiated in the context of their working environments. He argues that historically teaches have seen themselves as being either traditional or

progressive, but that effective teachers steer a middle course, having decided that pragmatism/eclecticism are professional positions: more experienced teachers are reluctant to appear polarised. Three types of pragmatism are identified:

- **Contingent**: teachers embrace changing concepts and approaches, depending on time and place, but realise that there are conflicting ideologies in their work

- **Principled**: introduced changes are adopted into practice, and teachers are content to justify these

- **Discursive**: teachers are ideological, with an orientation towards pragmatism. However, there is also a danger of dogmatism.

Moore et al (2002) argue that teachers need to become increasingly pragmatic in order to cope with current work situations (Sparkes, 1988), and that the dominant discourse of pragmatism is the result of politicisation of the teaching environment:

> pragmatic, eclectic approaches to teaching can be beneficial for teachers and students, but … there are also survival and political agendas to pragmatism and eclecticism that might prove rather less helpful and that we must also understand and address (2002:564).

Finally, in Wilson's discussion of quality teaching, he emphasises the terms 'deliver' and 'perform':

> the quality of a teacher's performance is likely to reflect the match of her skills to the teaching situation she is placed in (a reflection of management policies), and her personal capacities to deliver to a high standard. (1988:16)

Therefore, he writes, the quality of delivery is paramount, and 'performance' (Appel, 2007) relates presumably to the teacher's behaviour as well as the preparation that

occurs beforehand. Even though teachers may not be happy with this terminology, 'performance' links to criteria, and performance-related pay (Wragg, 1999), and seems therefore to be a key concept in teacher work and appraisal.

2.5.3 The effective lesson: theories and issues

In this research the focus is primarily on communicative language teaching (CLT) methodology, as this, in various forms, seems to have been the predominant means of teaching English for a number of years (Cook and Simpson 2008:42). Therefore a typical lesson in the current context is one that employs one of the many frameworks that have been discussed and developed by the (predominantly Western) authors in the field, and is likely to provide the framework for a model lesson.

One of the main arguments for the existence of the typical lesson comes from teacher education, as the main emphasis for student teachers in practical training sessions generally lies with lesson planning, and various formats are available to assist them to do this effectively. For example, in UK-based English language teacher training courses (the CELTA and DELTA) the concept of PPP (presentation, practice, production) has been very popular when introducing a new language item. Indeed Harmer (2001:82) refers to PPP as the 'main default model for teaching new language forms '. It is still well-used today, with numerous written and Internet references over the years in both in Europe and North America (Byrne 1976; Johnson and Johnson 1999; Maurer 1997; PPP, 2008). The aim is first to present the new language item in context, then to provide suitable controlled practice activities, followed by a production stage, where students ideally use language in an unstructured situation, although there are

many possible variations. As PPP is introduced in many ESOL teacher education programmes, it seems reasonable to assume that it might be a framework that teachers would adhere to during classroom observations, despite the fact that there are several alternatives.

Many variations to this format have been introduced (Harmer, 1998 and 2001; Lewis, 1993; McCarthy and Carter, 1995 Scrivener, 1996; Willis, 1996), and in the USA there is the 'Six-Point Lesson Plan` (Gaston 2008) which originated in primary education. A typical lesson might consist of focus and review, defining objectives, the teacher input ('presentation'), guided practice, independent practice ('production') and closure. To a greater or lesser extent these approaches to teaching link with Bloom's Taxonomy (Bloom et al, 1956), which many educationalists are encouraged to use in order to ensure that their lesson plans lead to desirable outcomes. Chapters on lesson planning and preparation (Harmer,2001; Hubbard et al, 1983; Richards and Lockhart, 1996; Woodward, 2001) imply that there may well be a typical way to conduct an English language lesson, and formats help teachers who feel that they need support. But it can also be argued that the existence of such texts suggests that there are correct ways to teach languages, and this is not good news for those teachers who perhaps operate on a more instinctive basis, or who work in contexts where this is not possible. Gabrielatos argues against the existence of 'pre-packaged, one-size-fits-all methods' (2002:1) suggesting that the preoccupation with the search for the best teaching method should end, and there is no one style of teaching that is particularly effective (Allwright 1988; Ellis, 1994; O'Leary (2006). However, formats do provide ammunition for those who

observe lessons in an appraisal capacity and need to justify their opinions, rather than appreciating the eclectic approach of principled teachers.

2.5.3.1   Frameworks for lesson analysis

This thesis is based on the analysis of lesson transcripts, and therefore it was important to do this in a way that effectively illustrated commonalities and differences between pedagogic and model lessons. The frameworks used are discussed more extensively in the research methodology [3.3.3, 3.3.4], and were chosen because they worked well in this particular context.

a) The first analysis investigates the **external features** of a lesson, i.e. those about which the teacher will have made decisions in advance. No existing framework was used, but external features relate directly to elements of a lesson identified by Goodson and Hargreaves (1996), Muijs and Reynolds (2001) and Richards and Lockhart (1996).

b) The key framework is Self-Evaluation of Teacher Talk (SETT: Walsh, 2006) which is used to categorise the **internal features** of each lesson: those aspects of classroom interaction that can only be identified by referring to the details of the transcripts.

c) The third method of analysing transcripts is via Antconc 3.2.1w (Anthony, 2007), a concordancing tool available on the internet. This has been used to

count the number of occurrences of certain lemmas in the text, both to support SETT, and to investigate the current relevance of Samph's findings (1976) relating to observed lessons. Samph (ibid) [2.4.3] is one of the earliest accessible studies of interaction in observation classrooms.

2.6   Teacher beliefs

Teacher beliefs about teaching and education must necessarily inform their behaviour during model lessons, and much has been written about their influence on classroom behaviour in both mainstream education and ELT (Ben-Peretz et al, 1986; Borg, 2003 and 2006b; Burns, 1992; Erdogan, 2005; Garton 2004 and 2008; Kagan, 1992; Richards, 2006b). Understandings about teaching are based on past experiences as a participant in a lesson, as either a pupil, a student, a teacher, or even an observer (Moore, 2004), and the past is a crucial factor in understanding the present (Dex, 1991). Teachers' previous experiences influence their core constructs (Erdogan, 2005) and need to be a consideration during data analysis, as well as during the interviews.

Erdogan (ibid) carried out research with experienced EFL teachers, by investigating their personal construct theories (PCT), and writes that 'to a certain extent… teachers' theories relating to classroom practices can be said to be guided by their core constructs, which relate to powerful formative experiences' (ibid:180). This seems to go a long way towards explaining why teachers do what they do in the classroom, and links with the research carried out by Hermans Nymark (2003, 2006). For example, an ESOL teacher may have undergone British training towards a CELTA

or DELTA (Leung 2009: qualifications gained in a particular political context). If s/he has this particular formative experience, it is likely that the concept of PPP may exist as a construct, as his/her perception of the way in which an effective language lesson is organised. However, if s/he was trained to be a language teacher via an American education system, then it is perhaps more likely that the construct might relate to the 'Six Point Lesson Plan' or equivalent, possibly explaining why teachers hold certain views concerning the way in which a model lesson should be organised.

2.6.1   Language teacher experience

Clandinin and Connelly (1998) claim that the social sciences are based on the study of experience, and argue that this is found in any field of educational discourse, but does not, in itself, have clear terms of reference. Experience is vital to education: effective teachers need to be experienced in their subject areas and teaching methodology (Borg 2006a), as well as being able to co-exist with both the parent organisation and with other teaching staff. It is also important in defining the way that teachers approach model lessons. Writing about ELT (as does Borg, ibid), Richards and Lockhart (1996) argue that language teaching has traditionally been described in terms of how teachers behave in the classroom, and the impact this has on the students. They claim that it is actually the teacher's subjective school-related knowledge which impacts on classroom-related events, suggesting that beliefs come from personal experience as language learners (Erdogan, 2005), experience of what works best, established practice (i.e. PPP), personality factors, and research or educationally based principles. From the

perspective of model lessons, it seems that factors relating to individual identity (Kaplan and Flum, 2009) are subsumed by those relating to established practice.

Richards and Lockhart (ibid) also identify beliefs about the programme and curriculum as being significant, and this is an area which has resonance for the teachers participating in this research, as the way that they teach does, to a greater or lesser extent, reflect the cultural values of the institutions themselves. As time progresses they are made increasingly accountable to the stakeholders (in this case generally the Ministry of Education), and college policy and curriculum surpasses all else, therefore teachers tend to take a pragmatic approach (Moore, 2004). However, the programme element is particularly strong, providing participating teachers with a clear group identity, as opposed to a more personal one.

2.7 Appraisal and professional development (PD)

Teachers' beliefs about ELT as a profession are important (Richards and Lockhart, 1996), and 'professional' is a key word in the appraisal education literature (Bartlett, 1996; Wallace, 1991). There seem to be many ways in which it can be defined and used, and Bartlet is pragmatic:

> Consider appraisal in this light, presented as part of professional development, but nevertheless compulsory. Various elements must be completed over a certain time, documentation and targets are required (ibid:9).

Much has also been written about teachers and PD (Bailey et al, 2001; Clair and Adgar, 2000; Day et al, 1993: Hargreaves, 1994; Ingvarson, 1989), with many sources

suggesting that it should be closely linked with appraisal (Moore, 2004; Wallace, 1991). Wallace summarises the relationship between teaching and PD in the following manner:

Professional knowledge

Fact, data, theories

Research-based received knowledge

Knowing-in-action, reflection

Experiential knowledge

Professional development
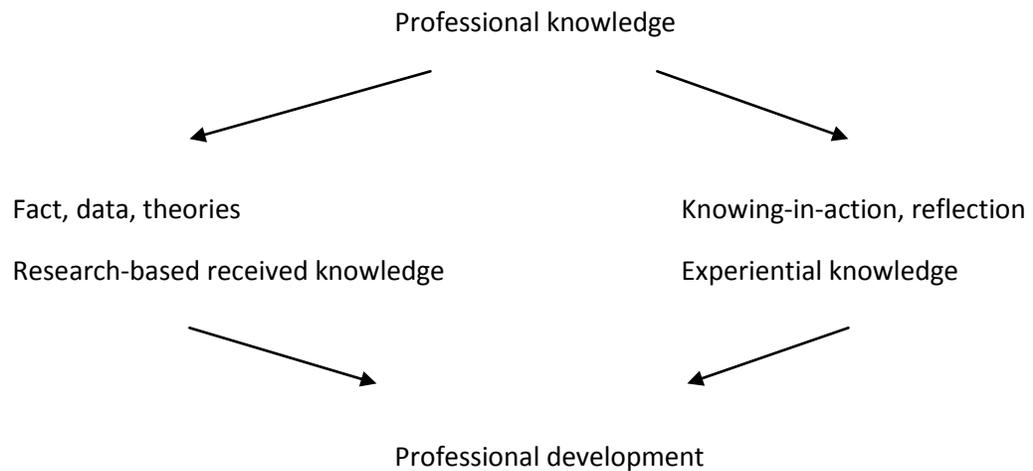
Figure 7: Links between professional knowledge and development (Wallace, 1991)

Thus Figure 7 suggests that the accumulation of professional knowledge and facts leads to PD. Burns and Richards (2009) argue that the current level of professionalism is much higher than previously, as ELT is now seen as an educationally specialised career, with recognised qualifications and standards. However, there is also an increasing demand for accountability (ibid) which impacts on the assessment of teachers, making competencies and standards more demanding. Therefore research into the way that teachers develop professionally and change their practices is important, because this impacts on the way that they decide to teach model lessons. Bennet writes:

> Classroom observation for some teachers will undoubtedly be a considerable threat. ….if….the
> teacher perceives that the purpose of the other's presence is to judge their effectiveness and

provide recommendations for future improvement, this will make an established head of department with 35 years experience much more nervous than a newly qualified teacher who has just spent 3 years training with regular visitors to the classroom (1992:39).

The assumption might be that the head of department described above would have years of PD to look back on, and therefore would be less fazed by a model lesson. But this apparently is not so, and would seem to suggest that in this particular situation, when the teacher sees appraisal observation as a threat, this element of PD may have been lacking during their career.

Personal experience is the main tool that teachers need in order to pursue PD (Bailey et al, 2001; Borg, 2003; Freeman and Richards, 1996). Freeman and Richards (ibid:13) define the characteristics of a profession as being:

- The existence of advanced education and training

- The establishment of standards of practice and certification

- An agreed theoretical and empirical base

- The work of people within the field who act as advocates

ELT appears to qualify as a profession within this context, so it seems logical that PD should be incorporated within an appraisal framework. However, Ingvarson (1989) defines the main challenge of teacher appraisal as being that of linking it with PD, as bureaucratic ideas of teaching outweigh professional conceptions. He suggests that appraisal has traditionally been seen by teaching unions as being the concern of management, which has had a negative impact on the process as a whole, and poses the question:

Given that a key characteristic of a profession is that its members take responsibility for setting standards for practice and monitoring adherence to those standards, have we been as rigorous as we should have been in setting our own standards for the evaluation of teaching and in establishing conditions and requirements that are effective in promoting its improvement? (ibid:142)

This question is certainly very pertinent to the current research, in that standards have been set, but often relate directly to the individual institution involved, rather than to more general standards that are professionally recognised. This would seem to be crucial, and to be closely linked to the final outcome concerning the way that teachers are appraised. Thus the tension is created between teacher appraisal and PD: each of which would seem to be aiming for the same results, whilst moving in diametrically opposed directions.

In order to develop the concept of professionalism further, Ingvarson discusses a framework taken from Schulman and Sykes (1983) identifying four main types of work structure (Table 8):

Table 8: Task definition and oversight structures (Schulman and Sykes, 1983)

		Direct/inspection Activity monitoring	Indirect/<u>licensure</u> Technique monitoring
TASK DEFINITION APPROACHES	Rationalised Preplanned <u>programs</u>. Routinized	LABOR (Loyalty /insubordination as a basis for evaluation)	CRAFT (precision /incompetence as a basis for evaluation)
	Adaptive Situation <u>Responsive</u> Flexible	ART (Sensitivity /frivolousness as a basis for evaluation)	PROFESSION (Responsibility /malpractice as a basis for evaluation)

What is most interesting about the definitions in Table 8 in the current context is that of a profession, where Ingvarson (ibid:144) writes that:

> evaluation extends to include malpractice, and it is the judgement of professional peers that are the recognised basis for the appraisal of practice, not those of superiors or supervisors.

From his, (and Schulman and Sykes, ibid) perspective, then, it seems that as evaluation is carried out by supervisors and superiors, this means that teaching is not a profession, therefore appraisal appears to be invalid in a professional context. It is actually very difficult to classify teaching according to the table above, as a teacher has many different roles during the course of the day. However, this would seem to suggest that if teaching is not, by definition, a profession, then PD may not be the main aim of the organisations that employ teachers. For this reason, perhaps, the PD aspect of teaching is often referred to as teacher development (TD). There may be reasons for this: in 1990, at his

time of writing, Ingvarson notes that in the USA the introduction of employment contracts meant that teachers were undergoing direct inspection of job performance to ensure that they were complying with the contract terms. He goes on to say:

> The language of employment contract links appraisal much more firmly with the discipline and dismissal of teachers than with professional development (ibid:145).

Many of those currently responsible for supervising and managing teachers were themselves working in the classroom, whether it be mainstream or ELT, during the late 1980s and early 1990s when these changes were taking place, so their ideas of appraisal may well be linked to their teaching experiences. The prevalence of employment contracts, particularly in this research context, means that renewal, as discussed above, is closely linked to appraisal. Assessors are looking for signs of malpractice, and weaknesses are identified by means of criteria as defined on the observation schedule: the means for using the appraisal process for PD are generally missing. Following the North American model, Ingvason (ibid) suggests that a range of PD courses should be linked to the appraisal process, so that when a particular weakness is identified a teacher is able to obtain support, or can opt to learn new pedagogic skills and strategies. Finally, he makes the strong argument that:

> policies for teacher evaluation should be based on a sound understanding of teacher development – that is the conditions under which teachers are willing and able to extend their competence and gain a greater sense of efficacy and job satisfaction (1989:153)

But the question remains as to how these policies are going to be devised and operated, and who is going to be involved in their inception.

2.8   How do teachers decide what to teach, and what are observers looking for in a model lesson?

The process of teaching a class is a highly complex activity, and in order to interpret the way in which an individual teacher behaves in the classroom, the assumption must be made that s/he is guided by knowledge, beliefs and personal experience. Classroom teaching provides the visible evidence of the move from theory into practice, and the way an individual approaches an appraisal observation is, in all probability, related to her/his concept of an effective teacher, and (in some cases) to PD in that particular teaching context.

Table 9: Observation wish lists, 2004

Supervisors' Criteria		Teachers' Criteria
Teacher involved in choice of observation focus		Part of PD
Material exploitation		Real situation and context
Teacher demonstrates decision making abilities		Clear purpose
Classroom management		Minimal disruption to the class
Rapport		Observer well prepared
Student involvement		Observer involved in lesson
Students learn something		Transparency
Teacher awareness of +ve and −ve features of the lesson		Teacher has time for post-lesson reflection and the discussion with the observer takes place as soon as possible afterwards
Teacher's ability to grade their language		

A 'wish list' was compiled by supervisors and teachers taking part in a workshop about observation at an ELT conference in 2004 (Table 9). The teachers seem to have thought in depth about the various aspects of a model lesson, and their comments go beyond the classroom itself, reflecting personal experience of the observation process, which was often negative. PD, as discussed in [3.6], seems to be very important to them, as does the fact that the observer is prepared, the teacher has time to reflect, and feedback occurs shortly afterwards. The suggestion that the observer be involved in the lesson is also interesting; teachers seem keen to avoid the presence of a non-participant member of the group. Compared to those of the teachers, the supervisors' desires seem to be relatively predictable: they have fairly structured ideas as to what they want to see when observing the lesson, and the points are very much as might be predicted.

Although there are some commonalities between the criteria, teachers and observers do seem to be looking for rather different things. However, participants agreed that during a model lesson the onus is on the teacher to provide the type of lesson that the supervisor is looking for, because they are the ones who are carrying out the appraisal and make the ultimate decision as to future employment. Therefore it is important that the observer is able to maintain objectivity, although they, like teachers, are only human, and any number of additional personal and organisational factors may come into play during the appraisal process.

2.9   Summary

Appraisal and observation are both complex subject areas, which have generated a great deal of discussion in the literature. Interestingly, although many of the texts written about observation view it favourably as a research technique, those related to appraisal have a somewhat less optimistic view, although this does not seem to be backed up with a great deal of firm evidence. A consensus of related literature seems difficult to locate, and, from an ELT perspective, relatively little has been recorded.

In contrast, ideas relating to good or effective teaching are varied and accessible, although the focus does seem to tend towards evidence provided by lesson planning. There are also existing formats in the literature relating to planning lessons, as well as extensive discussions about teacher beliefs. However, these have not been addressed in great detail here, as model lessons would seem to relate more to the beliefs of the observers than to those of teachers.

Finally, literature relating to appraisal and PD has been reviewed, as well as the status of ELT as a profession. The argument for using appraisal as a driving force for professional development would seem to be a strong one, and this is supported by evidence from the teacher/supervisor workshop. All the above research areas will be clearly related to the data analysis in chapters 4 and 5.

3.0   RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The aim of this qualitative study is to adopt a case study approach (Denzin and Lincoln, 1998b; Phillips and Pugh, 2000; Stake, 1998) in order to develop a deeper understanding of the ways in which observed and non-observed lessons vary, and the reasons why English language teachers behave as they do when under scrutiny. The research aims to establish whether or not there are methods of unifying these lesson styles for the benefit of the ELT profession as a whole, whilst also raising awareness of potential difficulties that may be encountered by individual teachers as a result of this appraisal process. In order to achieve these aims, recorded lesson segments have been discussed and analysed from the language classrooms of three BANA teachers, and related to subsequent interviews. The classroom research carried out for this study has taken place in naturally occurring situations: tertiary college classrooms where English is being taught as a foreign language. Whilst writing about naturalistic inquiry, Lincoln and Guba (1985) discuss axiomatic systems that could benefit from investigation. They refer to axioms as 'a set of basic beliefs' (ibid:33) accepted by convention or established practices, and as such it could be argued that the use of observation as a tool for teacher appraisal is axiomatic.

This research has been carried out over a period of several years, and interview and observation dates extend over this range, depending on teacher and supervisor availability. Because of the transient nature of contract teaching it has not been possible to maintain contact with all the original respondents, and the participants are located at

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great distances from one-another. The focus sample consists of three teachers, three supervisors, and six ex-students, and the composition is discussed in [3.1.2.2].

3.1   Classification

Research can be defined as being either quantitative or qualitative (Denzin and Lincoln, 1998a; Guba and Lincoln, 1998; Silverman, 2000), although there are many different perspectives on the way that these terms, particularly the latter, are perceived. This investigation takes place in educational settings, although Woods (1987) suggests that teaching is not a profession that bears scientific analysis. It is very difficult to classify classroom events in the same way as, for example, a chemical experiment would be approached, and a degree of informed flexibility is therefore required in order to establish the relationship between actions and words. Because much of this study is an investigation of words in the context in which they are uttered, the qualitative approach has been chosen, as the investigation concerns the 'socially constructed nature of reality' (Denzin and Lincoln, 1998a:8) and there are limited opportunities to quantify the data that has been obtained. However, this does not mean that there are no quantitative elements, as the use of corpora to analyse the transcription data means that the frequency of occurrence of certain language items has been considered, in order to establish whether or not they constitute a significant part of the classroom discourse. This, in turn, has impacted on the suitability of such linguistic items to merit interest in this study. Merriam (1988) claims that in effect, all data is qualitative, because even quantitative data needs to be written about, and this perspective reinforces the argument that the predominant focus here is the qualitative data. Guba and Lincoln (1998:197)

argue that 'human behaviour … cannot be understood without reference to the meanings and purposes attached by human actors to their activities', and, in this context, qualitative research gives the investigator the wherewithal to move towards an understanding of that behaviour, particularly when engaged in interviews with the research subjects.

Research can also be classified as belonging to a particular paradigm. Although there are many possible interpretations of this last word, Guba and Lincoln (ibid) state that inquiry, either qualitative or quantitative, is guided by four separate paradigms: positivism, post-positivism, critical theory and constructivism. They argue that these are the fundamental beliefs that underlie the research investigation and the methodology adopted by the practitioner. However, Cohen et al (2000) recommend that researchers use 'fitness for purpose' as a guiding principle, and argue that no one paradigm encompasses all the traditions. In the current study there is no fixed aim that the case studies will uncover a universal truth; the main purpose is to discover what, if any, are the differences between model and pedagogic lessons. Therefore, using Guba and Lincoln's suggestions (1998), the paradigm that has been adopted for this study is constructivist, as the aim is to construct a social reality out of the available data by means of the analysis of multiple perspectives.

Qualitative investigation (QI) seems to be an increasingly complex area that provokes many conflicting viewpoints concerning the way it is structured and what exactly is incorporated in the various traditions that it encompasses (Denzin and Lincoln, 1998b and 1998c; Richards, 2003; Silverman, 2000). For example, Hart (1998) lists forty-three different approaches to the way in which QI can be carried out, indicating

that the options available for anyone involved in such research are considerable. The word 'quality' is important (Somekh, 1993): the implication of this terminology is that the entity described is something that will be of worth both to those who will be involved in the research, and also to those who are able to view the result. Richards (2006a:9) states that

> When people describe qualitative research as 'soft' they have a point: its data sets have a plastic quality that yields to easy moulding. Far from making life easy for the researcher, this demands a particularly rigorous approach and constant vigilance in order to resist the seductive appeal of the superficial.

The quality of research lies in the fact that researchers are constantly honing their skills, and improving their techniques. They also need to be continually aware of their position in relation to that of their research subjects, as well as of the relevant data collection and analysis procedures (ibid), in order to ensure that bias is avoided, and validity and reliability are maintained. Trafford and Leshem (2006) agree that it is important to invest time and thought in the research process in order to achieve this quality, and that it comprises four separate components: clear conceptual vision, an ability to critique your own work, an ability to conform to existing protocols, and a demonstration of engagement with existing literature. The overriding implication is that the researcher needs to maintain a clear awareness of exactly what they are doing, and why and how they are doing it.

This study has endeavoured to take the above components into account, although there are overlaps into the different research areas and traditions of QI. The focus has been divided between triangulated data from discourse analysis of the teachers in the

classrooms, and transcripts of interviews with both teachers and observers. Trask and Stockwell (2007:239) write that authenticity is crucial in qualitative studies, which typically focus on a 'small numbers of speakers or texts' and employ 'observation, textual analysis, interviews and the recording and transcribing of speech' (ibid:240), as with this research.

The research area is provided by several tertiary colleges in the Middle East, which employed the participating teachers and supervisors during either the period September 2001-2002, or September 2004-2008, or both. Although some participants moved on during the intervening period, the majority was still employed there during the second research period from 2004-2008. This means that continuity has been provided in terms of contract conditions and status, as the external conditions under which the participants worked were comparative. I have some knowledge of the various institutions included in the study, and as such am aware of insider views relating to organisation policy and teaching conditions. This aided the research in that it defined my role from the teachers' perspective, and the study is ethnographic, in that it is based on 'observational work in particular settings' (Silverman, 2000:37). The 'particular settings' are provided by the English language classrooms of the tertiary institutions, and the research focuses on transcriptions of the interaction between teachers and students during model and pedagogic lessons. However, this focus relates directly to the teachers, and in classroom situations students are not individually identified as this does not form part of the research brief.

Interestingly, Silverman (ibid) uses the term 'observational' in his description of an ethnographic study, and Locke et al (1993) also use 'observed' in their definition,

therefore it is relevant to discuss the use of this particular word in the current context. They are using the term to describe what happens during a research study: the participants are observed in order to construct the social reality that they represent. But this study relates to observation as part of the research process, rather than in a formal context, and participants are not being observed by the researcher, but by their supervisors as a form of teacher appraisal. However, they are providing a basis for observation via the recordings of their classroom interaction, half of which relate to lessons which are being observed for appraisal purposes. Therefore 'observation' is fundamental to this research, both in the way it is carried out, and as the topic under investigation.

3.1.1   Case study research (CS)

Case studies are a well-established research method in the qualitative study methodology portfolio in mainstream education (Bassey, 1999; Elbaz, 1983; Mehan 1979; Merriam, 1988; Simons, 1996), although they are equally valid in terms of quantitative research (Denzin and Lincoln, 1998b). Richards (2003) refers to this multiplicity of purpose when using CS in the ELT context, because they are suited to a range of situations. It could be said that the term 'case study' does not really lend itself to any particular definition, and is often used as a 'catchall' category (Merriam, 1988) as there is a lack of training in this particular methodology. Denzin and Lincold (ibid) suggest that this is perhaps because CS can be known by other names, such as fieldwork. For this reason researchers will sometimes tend to avoid such an approach, as it does not appear to have sufficient academic rigour. But Bassey (1999:xiii), for example, states that CS is an important part of empirical research, and can be 'a prime research strategy

for developing educational theory which illuminates policy and enhances practice'. In addition, when Elbaz (1983) and Tsui (2003) are studied, it is evident that CS does indeed have a great deal to offer the educational researcher in terms of providing insights into the way in which teachers think and operate. Merriam (1988) claims that the aim of CS when used in educational studies is to construct theory, as opposed to testing it, and there are few, if any, predetermined outcomes, which is certainly the case in this particular research, where possible differences between actual model and pedagogic lessons have not been previously identified.

Research conclusions can be classified in a number of ways. Bassey refers to 'fuzzy generalizations' in CS research, defined as 'the kind of prediction, arising from empirical enquiry, that says that something *may* happen, but without any measure of its probability' (1999:46). He compares these with scientific and statistical generalizations, both of which seem more appropriate where a quantitative methodology has been utilised. For this reason, the application of comparisons in the lesson data has been carried out with as much precision as possible, to provide a scientific basis.

Denzin and Lincoln (1998b) define the subject of a CS as being a specific, unique bounded system, which is used to increase the researcher's understanding of a particular issue. They would identify this research as a collective CS, as several individuals are being considered at the same time, where researchers are looking for what is common and what is unique. Denzin and Lincoln (ibid) also suggest that each case is individual but operates within a range of contexts, and again, these features are applicable to this collective case study. They assert that more will be learned than is presented, which is certainly true, as it is not possible to evaluate all the available data in detail in a study such as this. But the overall responsibility for the information included

or excluded from such a study rests with the researcher, which is considerable. Those aspects of the CS that form part of the final report therefore need to have been incorporated for the very best reasons, and the onus is on the researcher to ensure this. For reasons of space and of interest it is not possible to cover each case in its entirety, thus informed choices need to be made about data selection.

This assumption of fairness in the research is very important, and Merriam (1988) argues for an approach from a holistic perspective, claiming that an understanding of the existing situation is essential in the event of a change in practice being required. A qualitative CS is defined as being 'an intensive, holistic description and analysis of a bounded phenomenon such as a program, an institution, a person, a process or a social unit' (ibid:xiv). In this study CS aims to provide an evaluation linking a particular individual (the teacher) with the process of teaching, in order to establish what they do, and when and why they do it. It can be defined as an intrinsic case study, (Stake, 1995) because the research is investigating a particular educational setting in order to gain information about that specific context. The use of interviews after the lessons accords with Merriam's claim that 'research focussed on discovery, insight and understanding from the perspectives of those being studied offers the greatest promise of making significant contributions to the world and practice of education' (ibid:3). This group of case studies thus follows the educational research pattern, by being qualitative, hypothesis generating, and by researching meaning in context.

3.1.1.1 *Qualities of CS research*

One of the most important features of CS research is that it is able to incorporate various forms of data: this study uses transcriptions of model and pedagogic lessons, as well as interviews, both single and paired, and documents providing supporting information. The research is inductive, in that it encourages understanding of the situation that exists in a classroom when a teacher is being observed. For all these data types, the researcher is the primary instrument of collection (Merriam, 1988), and needs to be completely familiar with the situation being studied.

CS researchers need several key qualities (ibid), such as a tolerance for ambiguity, because they often do not have ultimate control as to where and how data will actually be collected, and the research structure, of necessity, needs to be flexible. They also need to be sensitive to overt and covert agendas, whilst maintaining a sense of timing and awareness of non-verbal behaviour, particularly during the interviews. Empathy is important, and an ability to listen as well as to ask the right questions. CS researchers need to totally immerse themselves in the investigation in order to identify underlying patterns which make sense of the data that they are investigating, and to use existing theory where possible to inform their observations. Thus the research itself should exhibit the result of these various qualities, whilst providing a valid insight as to what actually occurs in the classroom situation.

3.1.2 The participants: teachers and supervisors/observers

This research is part of the field of social science, which can be seen as being a subjective way of viewing the world, as opposed to providing an objective perspective.

Cohen at al (2000:20) define this as 'dealing with the direct experience of people in different contexts', but it does mean that the degree of subjectivity is bound to be greater, as the number of classifications for a subjective study could be potentially infinite.

The teachers and supervisors are the source of material in this research, and a non-probability sample has been obtained by means of convenience sampling: participants were invited to take part on the basis of accessibility or opportunity (Cohen et al, ibid). They worked in a variety of tertiary educational institutions (subsequently referred to as 'colleges') situated throughout the Middle Eastern area, where I had been employed for a number of years as a teacher and teacher trainer when the research began. As such I had been involved with all participants in either a teaching or teacher educator capacity over the preceding period, and this element of personal knowledge seemed important, because of the type of information that it was important to access.

The initial impetus for the research arose during a meeting with a group of English language teachers on a PD basis, as it was agreed that appraisal observations were something that caused general concern in the teaching profession, and were generally viewed very negatively. As discussed in [2.3], teacher appraisal is seen by many as being a particularly sensitive topic, and to record a lesson where a teacher's practice is being judged by a supervisor can provoke a range of emotions. By allowing a researcher to analyse what they have done, participants were potentially exposing themselves to further judgement relating to their own best practice, arguing that the element of trust between researcher and subject is very important. Therefore it was important that all those who participated were comfortable with the subject of the

research, and happy to continue on a PD basis. Moving on from the initial group, there were also aspects of network selection in the study, and teachers named other teachers who they thought might be interested (Merriam, 1988): theoretical sampling has not been used. Table 10 below summarises the key information about teachers and supervisors whose transcripts have been used in the research: the CS participants have been shaded, and the other teachers provided supporting information.

Table 10: The research participants

Name	Job Title	Nationality	Teaching Experience (years)	Pedagogic Lesson: date	Model Lesson: date	Interview (I) or group interview (GI) date
Emer	Teacher	Irish	22	22.03.02	13.05.05	**GI** 23.04.06
Hannah	Teacher	American	12	11.01.06	11.01.06	**I** 23.04.06
Ophelia	Teacher	British	10	11.01.06	11.01.06	**GI** 04.04.06
Saskia	Teacher	British/ Dutch	18	19.03.02	03.05.05	**GI** 24.04.06
Theresa	Teacher	Canadian	7	11.05.05	11.05.05	**GI** 04.04.06
Juan	Teacher	American	13	14.04.02	none	**I** 23.04.02
Andrew	Supervisor	British	26	n/a	n/a	**I** 22.04.06
Ereberto	Supervisor	British	15	n/a	n/a	**I** 24.04.02
Katy	Supervisor	American	22	n/a	n/a	**I** 24.04.02

Participants were invited to choose their own pseudonyms, and although the names selected do not always appear to have a BANA basis, that is indeed the case. Spolsky (1999:537) divides NSs into six separate classifications, the first of which is an individual who '…. acquires the L1 of which they are a native speaker in childhood', which applies to all the research subjects. However, as his full definition is beyond the current scope of this thesis, I shall use that provided by Crystal (1997: 225) when referring to a NS:

> the implication is that this language, having been acquired naturally, during childhood, is the one about which the speaker will have the most natural intuitions, and whose judgement about the way the language is used can therefore be trusted.

Using the above classification the subjects of this research study are defined as NS, as they have all been communicating in English since early childhood. Where years of teaching experience are given, this refers to the number that each individual had achieved immediately prior to taking part in the research, and applies to both teachers and supervisors. Teaching experience includes cumulative teaching time, and is not necessarily related to the time spent in ELT: periods of some of the participants' teaching careers have been spent in mainstream education.

There were originally ten English language teachers recording lessons in their classrooms, but this number reduced over time and Table 10 includes only those who have provided data for this research. Teachers were not told the reasons for the research, but were simply asked to record a single model lesson whilst being observed for appraisal purposes, and the choice of date and occasion was left to the individuals involved. They were not asked for the identity of the organisational observer, and

problems were sometimes experienced where model lessons were cancelled or reconvened at short notice (Tennant, 2006), which caused changes of plan on several occasions. They were also asked to record a pedagogic lesson, and interviewed at a later date in order to establish their understanding of the appraisal observation process, and what they considered to be the key features. The three teachers whose data set comprises the CSs in this research, Hannah, Ophelia and Theresa, have been highlighted in Table 10. They were chosen because their model and pedagogic lessons were taught on the same, or consecutive, days, therefore providing apparent continuity in terms of time, situation, and lesson content. Theresa works at a male college, and Hannah and Ophelia work with female students, and they are all married and of a similar age and gender, although these factors were not directly related to the investigation. Data provided by the other participants has been used to support examples of both commonalities and differences identified during the data analysis.

The three supervisors (those responsible for appraisal observations) were interviewed over a period of time concerning their perception of the value of lesson observation and the way in which they carry out such forms of teacher .appraisal. A principled decision was made not to interview the teachers' actual lesson supervisors, as this would have invoked the OP (Labov, 1972) in terms of making them aware that an analysis would take place. Of the three supervisors, Andrew and Ereberto had observed some of the participating teachers, but this relationship does not necessarily have a great deal of relevance in this particular context, as, with the exception of Theresa and Ophelia, participants were generally unaware of the other individuals taking part in the study.

As all participants worked in similar organisational contexts, situational continuity was provided. Teacher participants agreed to take part in the research as a form of PD in the classroom; something that their parent organisations held to be important for professional growth at that time. Additionally they were encouraged to engage in reflective practice (Wallace, 1991), so by taking part in this study were potentially able to investigate the way in which they responded to students in the classroom, to identify effective lesson strategies. This is a subjective judgement, and each individual involved had their own reasons for taking part, but generally a greater understanding of classroom interaction was important to participants. Assumptions are made about human relationships when carrying out research (Scott, 2000), and ultimately surprisingly few participants wished to review the classroom data, so there was little opportunity for respondent review.

3.1.2.1   *Professional development and appraisal*

Participating teachers needed to be committed to reflective practice (Wallace, 1991) and exhibit a generally positive attitude towards teaching, communicating 'enthusiasm and a joy for learning' (Turner-Bisset (2001:164). This was not because it was felt that such teachers would be less affected by the pressures involved in recording themselves being observed, but rather because they exhibited a positive interest in the potential results of such research. Gage (1972) suggests that characteristics of good teaching might include warmth, indirectness, cognitive organisation and enthusiasm, and these qualities appeared to be present in the teachers involved, although such a judgement is highly subjective. This research does not intend to imply that all teachers

work in this way, but it was important that participants were able to vocalise their thoughts about the processes in which they were involved. However not all the teachers who initially expressed interest were able to take part in the study: two who originally expressed great enthusiasm and attended the introductory meeting withdrew before recording their classroom teaching as the pressure of the perceived expectations was too great and they felt unable to 'perform' (sic) suitably.

3.1.2.2   The participants: students

The teaching context is vital in this research, and it is important to understand something about this college environment. As tertiary education is a relatively new educational concept in this region, the students form a broad spectrum. Although they are part of the college strata, the majority are not necessarily academic, although a minority do well at degree level. The original aim of local colleges was to prepare students to become active members of the workforce and ease national dependence on expatriate labour. The colleges also go some way towards compensating for the discrepancies in the secondary school system, although these are rapidly being addressed at the time of writing. However, there are still many students who may benefit from time spent being educated at a tertiary college, particularly if they have no clear ideas about their future.

The majority of college education in the region involves immersion in an English language environment, as this is currently a fundamental part of adapting to future working conditions. Most colleges provide Arabic lessons, although this is not a key

component of all courses. Generally speaking, students are between seventeen and twenty one years old when they enter the colleges/universities, although some are mature. There is usually some form of foundation year of study where learners' abilities in English, Mathematics and computing are brought to an acceptable institutional level, and once this has been achieved students are able to go on and choose a course of study, depending on the college, and their sex. Traditionally males and females have been educated separately, and this does impact on career choices, although the situation is changing.

The classes of students taught during research recordings fulfil the above, somewhat abstract, criteria. There are usually between 12 and 20 students in each class, and for ethical reasons their individual identities are not disclosed. At the time when the study was carried out, teachers were encouraged to record their own classroom practice for purposes of PD, and students were not required to give their approval. Also, because CLT practices (Breen and Candlin, 1980) are favoured locally and students are generally encouraged to actively participate in lessons, it is often the case that they all respond to the teacher in unison, making it difficult to identify individual responses in the transcripts. Where students have been nominated they have been given English names in order to protect identities.

Finally, though it was not possible to gain access to the learners in the classes recorded, contact was established with a group of ex-students (all Middle Eastern nationals) who had become school principals as a result of the local policy of nationalisation, and were engaged in gaining post-graduate qualifications. A focus

group on the topic of observation from their various perspectives was recorded in April 2007, and the salient points of this discussion have been included in the thesis.

3.1.3 Ethical issues

The careful consideration of the ethical aspects is of high importance in qualitative research (Day et al, 1993; McDonough and McDonough, 1997; Tarone et al, 1990). In order to carry out this study it was important that all those involved understood what would be required of them, and that their participation would have no adverse affects on their standing with teaching colleagues. Richards (2003) emphasises the importance of honest consent from participants, which is vital in order to ensure that they are aware of the activities and elements that the research will involve. Therefore initial verbal consent was obtained during the early stages of the study, and they were later asked to complete an informed consent form based on a model suggested by Cohen et al (2000: **Appendix C**): overt access (Silverman 2000) was therefore gained. The informed consent form helped to provide a basis for trust, and, additionally, the nature of Doctoral research means that it is not a process that can necessarily be concluded within a short time frame (Philips and Pugh, 2000). It was important that participants were aware that a study is a developing entity which can possibly move in several directions simultaneously. Permission also needed to extend to public presentation of the data set, whether in written or spoken format.

'The purpose of case study is not to represent the world, but to represent the case' (Denzin and Lincoln, 1998b:104) which acts as 'an extension of experience'.

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However, it is also important to look at the wider picture. As Cohen et al (2000) remind us, critical research, especially in the educational field, involves both political and ideological contexts which can have a striking impact on the study itself. This particular project investigates the use of classroom observation as a form of teacher appraisal, which suggests that the results could have implications in both these areas. Further, as Denzin and Lincoln point out:

> case study research shares an intense interest in personal views and circumstances. Those whose lives and expressions are portrayed risk exposure and embarrassment: loss of standing, employment and self-esteem (1998b:103)

Therefore it is vitally important that the participants are protected as much as possible, especially as this research relates to the way in which professional performance is judged, and has implications for teacher contract renewal.

The ethical aim when working in this professional context has been to 'do as you would be done by': I have tried always to work in a way that I would consider acceptable if I was a research subject. When an individual allows their own words to be used for study purposes, they are effectively giving the researcher a part of themselves, and great care should be taken when discussing such information in the public domain. Ethics is an interpretative term (Howard, 2007), and the degree of acceptance of certain behaviours differs between cultures, but it is very important to be aware of participants who may be affected by the experience of being involved in a research study (Silverman, 2005). Therefore the onus is on the researcher to ensure that ethical practice is maintained at all times in order to minimise discomfort during the study process (Howard, ibid). Additionally, ethical constraints differ according to the situation that prevails in a particular classroom at a particular time (Simons and Usher, 2000), so that

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something that is acceptable in one locus may not necessarily be appropriate in another. In terms of individual teachers, there were no significant differences, but in the Middle Eastern context it is important to remember that there are differences in practice between classes of male and female students.

Finally, it is important to be aware of the dangers involved in the analysis of the teachers' discourse. Measor and Sikes, writing about the ethics and methodology involved in life history interviews, suggest that another term for this could be 'sociologically read biography' (1992:209) where 'biography' could be read as 'licensed voyeurism'. Although this research does not include such interviews, it is extremely important to ensure that the transcription process of interaction in a classroom situation is carefully monitored, and material that might later involve embarrassment to participants is not included without good reason. Likewise the material should be an accurate representation of the interviews that took place, rather than a focus on perceived aspects that could be potentially controversial. Ultimately it is crucial to be aware that the research focus changes, and the fact that the researcher is intimately engaged with the participants means that unexpected ethical problems may well arise (Silverman, 2000).

3.1.4 Reliability and validity

In order to succeed as a body of work, any research project needs to maintain both validity and reliability so that these factors can be readily established by those who are interested in the results. As this is an educational study, it is essential to look at both aspects from this particular angle. Scott (2000) maintains that there are several common

fallacies in such research, and one of these is homogeneity, where there is the ever-present danger that group characteristics may be assumed to apply to individuals. In this study the research subjects have been the result of individual attention, therefore are not analysed as a group. However, the students in the classrooms are adjuncts rather than the subjects of the research; therefore group characteristics have sometimes been applied to them during the transcription analysis, especially where responses are unclear, or originate from several individuals simultaneously.

Reliability is defined as being consistency and replication over time (Cohen et al, 2000: Kazdin, 1977): Merriam (1988) identifies it as the extent to which the findings can be replicated. Results should be dependable and consistent (Lincoln and Guba, 1985): Silverman (2000) agrees with the concept of consistency, and suggests that in order to provide credible qualitative research, discussions should be as objective as possible, interviews should be recorded, and transcriptions should include pauses and overlaps, all of which occurs in this study.

Scott (2000:19) warns that 'knowledge gathering is never a disinterested activity', and argues that good research can be distinguished from bad if it includes the consideration of several key factors:

A. **Internal validity**; the research itself should not affect the result, which, in this case, links with the OP. Merriam defines validity as the way in which the research findings capture reality, but writes that in CS research 'validity must be assessed in terms of interpreting the investigator's experience, rather than in terms of reality itself' (1988:167). In this study, in order to minimise the effect

of the recording on the teacher and students the equipment used was usually very small (an MP3 recorder), and there was no observer present to alter the physical situation in the classroom. However, internal validity is a persistent problem in interviews (Cohen et al, 2000) because without the research the interview would not have taken place.

B. **External validity**; meaning that the results could be generalised, and applied to other situations. Some problems can be identified in a multi-case or cross-case analysis such as this, and Merriam (1988) argues that in order to provide generalisability in the traditional sense, the use of sampling and pre-determined questions is needed, as well as specific coding and analysis procedures. Although the interviews were semi-structured, similar questions were asked of each of the respondents, in order to provide continuity, and in the analysis stages, the same methods of transcription and review have been used. This analysis has been carried out with just three teachers and three supervisors, and the results only apply to this particular sample in this particular location at this particular time. However, even though the sample is small, it should be possible to extrapolate the results in order to carry out further research into the validity of observed lessons. Anecdotalism has been avoided.

C. **Objectivity**; pre-conceptions and biases need to be accounted for, and every effort has been made to make the research as objective as possible. The researcher was not present in the classrooms, therefore there was minimal opportunity (with the exception of providing the recording instrument) to affect what actually went on during the teaching process. It was possible for preconceptions and bias to enter into the interview situations, therefore

researcher input was kept to a minimum. Additionally, the use of carefully prepared transcriptions of both teaching and interviews has allowed as much objectivity as possible in the analysis of the data.

D. **Credibility:** research should accurately represent the constructions of reality. Again, by recording lessons and interviews and then carefully transcribing them, social representations of reality have been reconstructed to the extent that it is possible to do so. Unfortunately it would not be possible to do this completely unless all multimodal and visual clues had also been recorded (Silverman 2000), but it is believed that the results are credible, and the .voc files have been carefully stored for future retrieval.

E. **Transferability**: Richards (2003) links transferability to external validity, and argues that the quality of the description has an effect on whether or not the research is of interest and relevance to those in similar situations.

F. **Dependability**; the researcher can identify their own effects during feedback and discount them. In this study feedback from the researcher was limited to the responses to interview questions. The aim during both teacher and supervisor interviews was to encourage individuals to provide as much input as possible: interviewer contributions in the transcripts are discounted unless they complement rather than distort the data.

G. **Confirmability;** the analysis should be qualitatively confirmable. Several methodological tools have been incorporated to provide a triangulated basis for the gathering of qualitative data, giving an inclusive and detailed picture from differing perspectives.

3.2   Data collection

3.2.1   Recording the teachers in their classrooms

In this study classroom data was collected in naturally occurring contexts (Bailey and Nunan, 1996) in order to make it as relevant as possible to the existing teaching situation. To ensure minimal pressure, each teacher participant was able to choose when and where the recording would take place, how the equipment would be set up, and the way in which it would be done. Their only criteria were that they had to supply a recording of one lesson where an observer was present (the model lesson) and another of a pedagogic lesson which reflected their regular teaching practices. Lesson lengths ranged from forty to fifty minutes, and this was the ceiling for transcription and recording purposes. However, as the teachers were responsible for personal data collection, some recordings exceeded this period and some were shorter. Therefore to facilitate direct comparison between model and pedagogic lessons, times for each teacher have been standardised according to recording lengths and available data.

Recording is often a key part of the tradition of CS research (Richards, 2003), and the OP will apply (Labov, 1972) meaning that, in this study, the teachers were aware that they were being recorded [1.2]. Richards suggests 'concealment through familiarity' (ibid:179) which, although not always possible here, did develop as the teachers adjusted to carrying the MP3 recorder: participants often found that they became unaware of its presence after the first few minutes. However, because MP3s are so easy to conceal and forget does mean that there are unfortunately some parts of the recordings where student responses are indistinct. As Richards and Lockhart (1996) remind us, recording devices often have a limited range, capturing only the voices of

those who are positioned nearby. After the lessons files were downloaded to the computer in .voc format, for subsequent transcription: the advantage of this system over cassettes is that files can be stored in several places for safety, whereas tape is vulnerable to outside forces, and can be lost or misplaced.

Croll (1986) argues that carefully defined recording criteria are required in order to obtain qualitative results, but this research suggests that this is not necessarily the case, as the teachers were able to produce valid recordings themselves with, as discussed earlier, a minimal number of rules. In addition, many students currently use MP3 players and mobile phones to record lessons, tutorials and lectures. Therefore it could also be argued that the fact that the teacher is also doing this is a natural extension of this process, and within the context of this research it was felt that stringent recording criteria would be counterproductive, for the reasons discussed above. Croll (ibid:11) also suggests that by recording in a classroom situation, a 'major purpose is in measuring the effectiveness of different approaches to teaching', which, in the context of the model lessons, could perhaps be said to be true, but only in relation to the possible criteria valued by the observers. However, in terms of the pedagogic lessons, the recording is perhaps less likely to provide a basis for a search for effective approaches, than to be a search for preferred behavioural style. This matter is revisited as the analysis progresses.

3.2.2 The interviews

Interviews are a common part of CS research (Merriam, 1988), and usually carried out to allow the researcher to discover information that cannot readily be observed: a particular paradox when the research is about observation. As the researcher's observation in this study is carried out by means of audio recordings made by the teachers, the only opportunity to work directly with research subjects was during the interviews, so these face-to-face meetings are a crucial part of the process. As such, their function is to provide data, rather than to collect it. Patton (1980:196) writes:

> We cannot observe feelings, thoughts and intentions. We cannot observe behaviours that took place at some previous point in time. We cannot observe situations that preclude the presence of an observer… The purpose of interviewing, then, is to allow us to enter into the other person's perspective.

But interviewing is rarely a simple process. In order to gain as much information as possible from the interviewee, it necessary for the interviewer to have a clear awareness of the degree of structure that is required during this encounter. In this study the relationship between the two is crucial, and it was important that the respondents did not feel restricted by the need to provide answers for a list of set questions. Therefore an active interview was needed (Holstein and Gubrium, 1995) in which interviewer and interviewee were able to co-construct meaning: teacher and supervisor interviews were semi-structured, and guided by a list of concepts that needed to be explored (Merriam, 1988). There was no pre-determined order for the questioning, therefore the interviews were both procedural and unstructured. As Wood and Kroger (2000:72) argue:

In discourse analysis, encouraging participants to speak fully means encouraging them to display the sort of variability that is seen as a major feature of discourse and that is employed as an analytical tool

The aim of both teacher and supervisor interviews was to find out how the participants actively construct meaning from the particular situation being researched (Gardener, 2001; Silverman 2002).   Another objective was to discover something about their teaching knowledge and beliefs: this is as important for observers as for the observed, as an individual's idea of effective teaching would seem to be what informs their analysis of a lesson. Fanselow (1992:40) writes, 'it is impossible not to reflect personal beliefs at some level … in the recollections from a lesson', and this was the most significant aim when carrying out the interviews, as personal beliefs underlying the teaching process are a crucial part of this research.

Seidman (1998) suggests the interviewer must be aware of the substance and the inner and outer voice, as well as physical constraints. The substance is the content, but the inner and outer voices could consist of any 'hidden agendas' that the interviewer need to be aware of, requiring appropriate prompting. Physical constraints such as the length of the tape, the timing of the subject's next lesson and the comfort of the interview situation are equally important, and the aim with the interviews in this study was to carry them out in a non-threatening situation. Choice of interview location was left to the participants: teacher interviews generally took place in domestic surroundings. Coffee shops were also used, although the surrounding volume of conversation was sometimes detrimental to the quality of the audio recording, but participants did seem to feel relaxed. Supervisors interviews were rather more difficult to arrange, due to

demanding work schedules: they preferred to talk in their offices, but there was always a danger that the discussion might be interrupted.

Silverman (2000) describes interviews as researcher-provoked data, and suggests that the skills of a good interview are shared by both the interviewer and the interviewee. In constructivist research participants actively create meaning, but he argues that it is more appropriate to use interview data for 'how' than for 'what' questions. However, interviewees may be concealing their true thoughts (Block, 2000; Sikes, 2000), or careful to avoid information that reflects bias, as with the supervisors. Therefore, for the subjective reasons outlined above, the status of the interview transcripts in this study is not as high as that of the lesson transcripts, and they provide a supporting role. However, if participants had not been interviewed, assumptions made about their behaviour would be much less valid, because the 'right of reply' would not have been available. Insights gained into classroom behaviour, and the opportunity for interviewees to add their own perspective has been increasingly valuable in all cases.

3.2.2.1   *The teacher interviews*

These were of a semi-structured nature, where the focus was to discover how they feel about model lessons, how they decide what should be taught, and the way in which this should be done (depth interviews: Jones, 1985). The discussion was not necessarily specific to the model lessons provided for this research, but also covered more general understandings of the observation process, and could be described as a 'conversation with a purpose' (Burgess, 1994:102). The teachers were later offered the

transcripts to study: Borg (1998) evaluates the benefits of teachers doing this and concludes that it is a useful process.

The main focus of the interviews was to discover what teachers felt about appraisal observations and available alternatives, how they prepared, and opinions about observers and feedback. As such the discussions fell into the following areas:

A   The function of observation

B   Student attitudes towards observation

C   The observer and the feedback

D   Frequency and types of observations and appraisals

E   Preparing an observed lesson

F   Student evaluations

It was necessary, as the interviewer, to use a range of prompts, especially as interaction time was relatively limited. Checking, follow-up and probing questions formed a significant part of the discourse, and it was occasionally necessary to use a structuring question. However, topics tended to be self-developing, especially in the paired interview context, and the majority of interviewer participation consisted of responses at the lowest level of directiveness (Whyte, 1984). As the interviewees were aware of the overall context of the discussion, they were able to focus on the topics rather than guessing what might be required in terms of responses, which was certainly of benefit in terms of content.

The paired interview format was used because some participants lived at a considerable distance from the research centre in the Middle East, therefore access was a

problem. They worked at different institutions, and preferred to discuss the model and pedagogic lessons, in a neutral location: a colleague's home. Ophelia and Theresa were only able to attend immediately after work on the day when this was available. However, a major benefit of the paired interview approach was that discussion could be generated in order to produce ideas relevant to the research, rather than exposing each teacher to a set of pre-determined questions. The disadvantage of the paired interview was that material was sometimes awkward to transcribe when participants talked in unison and utterances overlapped.

3.2.2.2 *The supervisor interviews*

Because of the organisational structure in the colleges where this research was carried out, the observer in the classroom is usually a teacher's direct line manager, otherwise known as their supervisor. The number of annual appraisal lessons varies from college to college, but the academic year is divided into two semesters, so the average teacher may have two annual observation visits from their supervisor, particularly where they are near the beginning or end of their contract. The later observations occur to establish whether or not teachers will be offered contract renewal. Appraisal observations are also sometimes carried out by peers, because it is difficult for one supervisor to observe all his/her teachers several times a year. Where teachers are observed by college visitors, they are coming to see one or more particular aspects of the teachers' pedagogic repertoire: but in all cases the pressure of having such an observer in the classroom often requires special preparation.

Supervisor appraisal observations can be seen by the teachers as 'hire and fire' occasions, and the aim of the observer interviews was to establish just what they are looking for when observing a lesson, and how they think they should make judgements. Another aim has been to establish beliefs about teaching of the supervisors themselves, as that is likely to have a significant impact on the way that they view model lessons. The nature of their job, and demands of their management role mean that it is perhaps less likely that supervisors are able to relax completely in an interview setting, whilst there is also a distinct possibility that they may be reproducing organisational policy. They seem to be very aware of body language and what they should say (possibly as opposed to what they would like to say) therefore some contributions are perhaps less easily expressed than might be desirable. However, as regional policy on recruiting and/or promoting supervisory staff is reasonably stringent, for the purpose of this study it can be assumed that the views expressed are those that are actually held by the individuals themselves, and are also those that inform their practice. Unfortunately an extension into the realms of organisational theory is beyond the scope of this research, but it is certainly true that the supervisors who volunteered to take part were all promoted from the ranks of the English language teachers.

3.3   Data interpretation

As Feldman (1995) writes, the task of interpreting data can be overwhelming, and in this study the most important factor was to make the information from both the recorded lessons and the interviews available in a useable format that enabled effective

interpretation. This resulted in lengthy documents where teacher and learner turns, or interviewer and interviewee turns, over a period of time (between twenty five and fifty minutes) were represented orthographically. As such it could be described as discourse: 'a connected piece of speech or writing in its social context' (Trask and Stockwell, 2007:76). However, the aim was to construct social identities from this discourse, and, as Benwell and Stokoe (2006) argue, identity, or the way in which people display who they are to others, is very closely related to the way in which they participate in discourse and interact with other people. Therefore the investigation if discourse is fundamental to the understanding that will be gained regarding events in the classrooms, as well as the subsequent discussions with teachers and supervisors.

3.3.1   Transcription

Transcription is a process where private words become public (Cameron, 2001) and should be undertaken with great care in order to present as true a picture as possible. Without a written representation of the language used it is not really possible to analyse the information gained from a recording in a systematic manner. However, there are inherent dangers, as the transcriber is working according to her own rules and values, despite aiming for impartiality and objectivity.

Halliday (1994) describes language as making sense in the context in which it is being used, and the analysis of this context is the core of the transcription process. This is summarised by the author, ten Have, in the context of Conversation Analysis (CA) when he writes that 'the purpose of a CA transcription is to make what was said and how

it was said available for analytic translation' (1999:33). Although the transcription used in this study does not involve the rigour of the CA tradition, the 'what' and 'how' can still be used to establish the probable intended meaning of a particular utterance, situating it in a social context.

Roberts (1997) defines transcription as a social act, arguing that it is not possible to be natural or objective, so the transcriber should aim for accuracy and readability. Fortunately this is aided in this study because, with the obvious exception of the students, it has not been necessary to transcribe the speech of NNSs, which could easily have cultural and ethical implications. The process of transcription was facilitated in the lesson transcript, as the teachers involved, especially those of students at lower levels, generally seemed to use standard English (British or American), because emphasis is usually on accuracy of pronunciation. However, where pronunciation in the recordings is significantly different, in either the classroom or the subsequent interviews, folk transcription has been used, i.e. 'cos, wanna, or hiya.

All the classroom recordings were made independently of researcher intervention (Silverman 2000), thus substantially reducing the possibility of interference. Audio tapes of lessons provide an excellent opportunity to analyse the way in which a social world is constructed in the classroom, and he suggests that they have three distinct advantages when compared to other data:

A. They provide a public record

B. They can be replayed, and the quality of the transcripts can be improved

C. They preserve talk in sequence, and allow the reader to identify alternative samples that have not been identified by the researcher.

However, as he also argues:

> there cannot be a perfect transcript of a tape recording. Everything depends on what you are trying to do in the analysis, as well as upon practical considerations involving time and resources. (ibid:189)

The main difficulty encountered when transcribing classroom data occurred as a result of inaudible sections of the recording, usually whilst the teacher was moving around and monitoring students. However, this was also a key feature of the particular discourse that I was working with: the size of the device meant that the learners were usually unaware of its existence, therefore it was not a barrier to interaction in terms of a perceived observer. Quality and clarity of perception were sometimes sacrificed, but, as the teacher utterances were the main focus of the research, this did not have too great an impact on what was actually said. As van Lier (1988:139) claims, 'many can speak at once only if they say (roughly) the same thing', which often happens in the classroom recordings (particularly the pedagogic lessons), but means that the volume of sound becomes unintelligible. Finally, sections of the interview recordings that were not relevant to the topic of observation have not been transcribed.

The transcription symbols chosen for data interpretation (**Appendix D**) do not represent those of any one school of thought, but have been chosen for their practicality and applicability in the current context. The reasons for their inclusion will become apparent during the evaluation stage, as features of discourse such as pauses, for example, can be vital (Silverman 2002), as they can be indicators of stress or anticipated difficulty.

3.3.2   Analysing discourse as a research tool

Discourse analysis (DA) is a huge and constantly expanding area, which can be viewed both as a process and a result, and as having many different perspectives. Over the last few decades the main concerns have adjusted considerably, and there are many key texts in which it is discussed (for example Brown and Yule, 1983; Cameron, 2001; Coulthard, 1992: Denzin and Lincoln, 1998a; Fairclough, 1995: Gee, 1999; Silverman, 2000; Stubbs, 1983; Wood and Kroger, 2000: Yule, 1996). Some authors relate DA directly to educational settings (Adgar, 2003: Cazden, 2001; Christie, 2002, Mehan 1979; Schiffrin et al, 2001: Walsh, 2006), whilst others link their discussion to ELT (Allwright and Bailey, 1991; Sinclair and Brazil, 1982: Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975; Walsh, 2006). Baker (2006) argues that discourse is a problematic term, but one of the accepted definitions is that it is 'language above a sentence', suggesting that patterns may be evident in larger structures (Cameron, 2001). She states:

> A distinctive feature of discourse analysis ….. is its overt concern with what and how language communicates when it is used purposefully in particular instances and contexts, and how the phenomena we find in 'real language' … can be explained with reference to the communicative purpose of the text of the interaction (ibid:13).

She suggests that 'language in use' might be a better term for discourse, which is certainly the concern of the current study: primary sources have been used, and much of the discourse is situated in the classroom. In order to investigate the way in which language is used in communication, the researcher must study the discourse carefully in order to identify the devices and information that will provide content and evidence for the research. Brown and Yule (1983:1) agree with Cameron (ibid), suggesting that 'the

analysis of discourse is, necessarily, the analysis of language in use' and argue that the primary concern is to 'give an account of how forms of language are used in communication' (ibid:ix). In this study there are two key types of discourse that need to be analysed: the classroom lessons (both model and pedagogic) and the subsequent interviews with teachers and supervisors. The lessons coincide with the requirements as specified by Brown and Yule (ibid), where the main focus is on the interactional aspects. However, in the interviews the interest in the content itself is greater than the way in which forms of language are used in communication, therefore the greater focus is on transactional aspects. No analysis of the structure of written texts has been carried out in this study, although the content of written replies to questions has been used to support research evidence in places.

3.3.3 Analysis of spoken discourse

It could be argued that discourse analysis of a sample size of three teachers is too small to permit generalisation of results, but the six lessons and corresponding interviews produce quite a large volume of data. From the outset the researcher gains some awareness of structures that are likely to be significant in the research, and it is important to remember that:

> the endpoint is not that one stops finding anything new with further cases, but that the analysis of
>
> the cases considered to date has been thorough (Wood and Kroger, 2000:82)

Features of spoken discourse differ in many ways from written discourse. Working with spoken discourse is a multidisciplinary enterprise (Cameron, 2001), which

can have two separate functions: either as a study of the complex speech mechanisms that are involved in any spoken interaction, or as a source of discourse data, giving the transcriber the opportunity to reflect on the meaning of the interaction. Such discourse can be defined by the actual context and the relationship between the participants. The interaction itself may consist of requests followed by responses, or free-standing acts and exchanges, which can make analysis more complicated.

Speaking and listening are active skills (Sinclair and Brazil, 1982) requiring the participant to engage fully with the activity, unlike reading and writing, where the time frame is more flexible. Therefore the context and relationship are very important in providing the analysis with structure. In any classroom situation, the teacher should have some form of control over the discourse that actually takes place (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975), even in a free practice activity. In addition, it is important to view the speaker as being at the centre of the interaction (Brown and Yule, 1983), as they are responsible for the communication that takes place in a given situation. However, in classroom discourse it is usually the physical situation that dictates the way in which the participants behave and interact: a teacher meeting his pupils outside the classroom might respond to them differently, but classroom interaction is often assumed to have a more formal basis. Christie (2002) reminds us that we are not studying the discourse for the sake of the discourse itself, but in order to gain understanding of the pedagogic surroundings: for example, a transcript provides a record of classroom interaction, but it is not made to change the situation, but rather to gain a better understanding. She argues that language in the classroom is a structured experience and the participants create a joint construction, whilst the researcher looks at the 'total sequence of classroom talk in

order to make judgements about the relative value of these or any other patterns of discourse' (ibid:5). But, as Burman (1991) argues, it is important to ensure that these judgements are as apolitical as possible. Adgar (2003) also warns the analyst that DA has localised failures when the cultural background of the teacher and pupils does not match, as is the case in this study, and that it is not universally accepted in the educational establishment, which is an important point to consider.

DA has been described in various ways (Burman, 1991; Chafe, 2003; Fairclough, 1995), from differing perspectives. It is relatively uncomplicated to identify the language itself and record the order in which it has been produced, particularly in the interviews. However, those working with spoken language also have a range of devices available to help them understand the intentions of the participants, including pauses and changes to tone, stress and pace. In this study all these features have appeared as part of the discourse to be transcribed, and have been incorporated into the texts.

Baker (2006:4) argues that discourses allow people to be 'internally inconsistent', meaning that they can frequently change their mind and change direction whilst they are speaking. He goes on to state that:

> discourses are not valid descriptions of people's 'beliefs' or 'opinions' and they cannot be taken as representing an inner, essential aspect of identity such as personality of attitude. (ibid)

However, it could be argued that this is not necessarily true in the language classroom, although it is likely to be more prevalent in the interviews. As such, an important point to consider when analysing the genre of classroom language (teacher talk) is that it takes place in an institution, and could thus be considered to be institutional language (Drew

and Heritage, 1992; Stubbs, 1972). However, Silverman (2000) writes about the dangers of assuming that institutional talk has a different structure just because it takes place in organisational settings. For some individuals, the setting is not of prime importance; therefore their discourse may remain relatively unchanged to an observer. Drew and Heritage (ibid) define the significant features of institutional language as being:

A.   It is usually oriented to achieve organisational goals

B.   It is usually shaped by certain constraints

C.   It is linked with specific ways of reasoning or inference making

In the case of classroom language it does not seem to be wise to discount the possibility that institutional language is being used, as it may be that teachers prefer formal language in certain contexts, where it is deemed to be more appropriate. Thus the context in which the language is used becomes highly relevant, although the research does not engage with either the political or cultural content.

3.3.3.1   *Analysing the interview data*

When an interviewee engages in discussion with an interviewer, they are constructing a representation of themselves (Cameron, 2001) which may, or may not, be accurate. So it is important to pay attention not only to what interviewees say, but also the way in which they say it. The institutional talk that was the focus of the classroom becomes the more natural language of an interview situation, and it is important to find

out what participants think about their classroom actions, and why they behave in a particular way in a particular situation. There are features which the interview transcripts do not share with those from the classrooms, such as topic changes, where boundaries are clear but the sequences are unconnected, and topic transitions, where the content changes direction, and moves onto a different path.

3.3.3.2   *Limitations of the use of DA for classroom analysis*

Although much has been written about the benefits of using DA, some authors take the approach of discussing what it does not do (Burman, 1991; Christie, 2002). Writing from a psychological perspective, Burman (ibid:325) warns us that 'an uncritical or wholesale commitment to discourse analysis' is dangerous on several levels, as this may be theoretically inappropriate, unhelpful, and sometimes counter-productive'. She argues that there is a great danger of DA being used for political purposes, then reminds us that the meanings are tied to the particular interpretation of the analyst, urging us to counter this tendency. Although this research was carried out independently, there is an ever-present consideration that those involved may have political ends. Also, a cited danger (Silverman 2001) identifies one of the main possible defects as being that the researcher only chooses those pieces of data which support their argument. This would seem to be a real possibility in this study, so, in order to address this problem, it is necessary to find an analysis tool that will encourage balance in the data, whilst avoiding anecdotalism (ibid) by means of the provision of a variety of contextualised examples.

3.3.3.3 Alternatives to DA

A clear and potentially viable alternative in this research might have been to use CA to investigate the data, which has been extensively covered in the literature (Hutchby and Wooffitt, 1998: Richards and Seedhouse, 2005; Seedhouse, 2004; ten Have, 1999). However, as Richards and Seedhouse write:

> CA research is characterised by close, detailed and intensive analysis … of relatively small data sets. There is generally nothing particularly 'representative' about CA data corpora: most commonly they have been assembled as and when opportunities arose (2005: xix)

As the current corpus consists of a large number of full lessons firmly representative of the tertiary teaching context in the Middle East, it would seem that 'close, detailed and intensive analysis' (ibid) is not the best way to study the data. They argue that 'the rigours of CA offer adequate protection against the seductive appeal of neat and easy solutions' (ibid: 14), but, despite this, the size of the current data set and the scope of the analysis means that CA is not a viable option.

3.3.4 Analysing the classroom interaction

Before making a decision on the tools to be used with the classroom data, it is important to consider English language lessons as entities, and establish exactly what needs to be analysed.

3.3.4.1   Characteristics of a language lesson

There are some dangers to be considered when establishing what might comprise the typical elements of such a lesson. It is reasonable to assume that it will take place in a recognisable educational context (be it classroom or computer laboratory) between two kinds of participants (teachers and learners) and consist of recognisable activities: as such, lessons are 'distinguishable from other kinds of speech events' (Richards and Lockhart, 1996:113). However, it is inaccurate to argue that they have a 'recognisable structure' (ibid) because this is not necessarily true from the perspective of those who are present, as in a study cited by Allwright (1989) from a secondary school in Algeria. One student discussing his language learning experiences expressed the view that by the time the teacher had taken the register, and the class had settled down, he did not know if they would call the remaining fifteen minutes an English lesson. This is an interesting comment, as it suggests that the format of an actual lesson might be very different from common frameworks: time allocation for taking the register in typical lesson formats is not a predominant feature.

TESOL lessons have been broken down into two component parts, and all references in this section relate directly to this discipline. The **internal features** are those which arise directly from the lesson itself, and can be ascertained by studying details of interaction in the transcripts of classroom discourse using the SETT framework (Walsh, 2006), discussed in [3.3.3.4]. The **external features** are the more holistic aspects, which can usually be determined prior to the start of a model or pedagogic lesson.

3.3.4.2 *External features of classroom interaction*

Richards and Lockhart (1996) argue that teaching is essentially a thinking process, bearing in mind the number of decisions that teachers have to make whilst working in the classroom and confronted with a range of options. However, not all decisions have to be made whilst the lesson is taking place: many of those relating to pedagogic practice can be made in advance, and for the purpose of this research they, along with the more holistic aspects of classroom interaction, are termed the **external features** of a lesson. They (ibid) have identified three key areas of teacher decision making: planning (lesson goals, language and learning content, and materials), interactive and evaluative, but this last category takes place after the lesson, so has not been included.

Decisions to be made by a teacher about a lesson that have not been considered by Richards and Lockhart (ibid) have been defined in this research as relating to classroom management. Under this heading Cohen et al (2000) include aspects such as talk that students can understand, moving around and monitoring, disciplining students, optimum seating, communicating time limits, and anticipating problems. Although they do not discuss administrative tasks such as taking the register, from the data such activities do form a significant part of teacher decision-making, particularly during pedagogic lessons, so have been included in this context.

A Planning

The focus of this research is on model lessons, where the teacher is assumed to have taken part in some degree of forward planning: however, it is important to bear in mind that this may well be atypical of his/her normal pedagogic practice. Assuming that

a teacher has planned a lesson in advance, either model or pedagogic, there are several popular models relating to the way in which it should proceed, either at the macro or micro-level, or along a cline between the two. During initial TESOL teacher training, the emphasis is on solid planning of lessons (Bowers, 1987; Freeman and Richards, 1996; Harmer, 2007; Tanner and Green, 1998; Thornbury, 1997; Ur, 1996; Wallace, 1991), and generally the teacher is expected to adhere closely to this plan whilst in the classroom. Lesson plans usually contain some or all of the following: the aims, objectives and desired learning outcomes of a particular lesson, the way in which the tasks/activities will be carried out, the materials used, and the anticipated problems and interaction between students and teachers. Proponents in the field argue that there are many advantages to making such outcomes explicit, for example, Nunan (1988) claims that this helps the learners to understand where they are going, and how they are going to get there, making goals achievable. However, for practicing teachers working in busy schools and colleges, there is not always time to go through the lengthy preparation involved in formulating detailed lesson plans, and they may be downsized to form a series of activities. There are also teachers who work purely from a mental image of what will take place in the classroom, as well as those who address lessons in terms of individual learners.

Amongst several other authors, Gaston (2008) and Richards and Lockhart (1996) have defined the key factors of language lessons:

Openings: the teacher focuses the learners on the aims, and boundaries are clear. At this stage, for example during PPP lessons, the teacher reviews previous learning, and

establishes current goals, perhaps by means of a warmer activity. This could also cover administrative duties featuring in pedagogic lessons, such as taking the register.

Sequencing: assumes that the teacher has planned a series of linked activities in order to achieve a pre-defined goal. Richards and Lockhart (ibid) suggest that experienced teachers often have a mental format to cover such lessons, which is useful, but in reality it cannot cover all eventualities: principles for ordering and developing activities do not provide assistance when there is a computer malfunction, or the teacher discovers that they have an examination deadline to reach and a limited amount of time available. It might be fair to suggest that model lessons exhibit sequencing, but in pedagogic lessons this would seem to be far from a foregone conclusion.

Pacing: 'the extent to which a lesson maintains its momentum and communicates a sense of development' (ibid:122), frequently considered to be a fundamental teaching skill. Received ELT wisdom suggests that pacing should be varied, activities should have time limits, avoid repetition, and student interest should be maintained at all times. This is, once again, a highly feasible scenario for a model lesson, but pedagogic lessons are often taught amidst constraints of examinations, equipment malfunctions and administrative tasks, and it is not always possible for the teacher to maintain a varied pace in order to pre-empt a loss of student interest.

Closure: the final part of the language lesson. Richards and Lockhart (ibid) refer to its importance in reinforcing the material that has been learned, integrating and reviewing lesson content, and preparing students for future learning, suggesting that teachers

develop strategies accordingly. Again, closure could be an achievable feature of a model lesson. However, a pedagogic lesson teacher, being less constrained by the presence of an observer and/or a lesson plan, is more likely to run out of time to carry out such an effective closure, so there is the possibility that it could be abandoned, or relocated in a following lesson.

A lesson format as defined above could be considered to be achievable and desirable when teaching a model lesson. Thus the observer can follow the different stages with minimal difficulty, experiencing a clear outcome, whether or not it is the one that the teacher being observed originally anticipated. However, pedagogic lessons also form part of this research, and, bearing in mind the number of administrative tasks that a teacher may have to perform during a lesson, as well as the all-encompassing need for examination preparation by both teacher and students, it may not be possible to adhere to the stages identified above. Additionally, dealing with unforeseen hardware/software problems, as is so often necessary where student laptops are the norm, can also be time-consuming and wreak havoc on carefully structured lessons. Saskia refers to pedagogic lessons as being part of the 'Lamb Chop Syndrome': she feels she can only impart one key nugget of language-related information (the meat of the chop) during a lesson, and the rest (the fat) is comprised of administrative and other non-language-related tasks.

Lesson planning is a huge topic, and its nature is beyond the scope of the current study. However, in the eyes of the supervisors/observers involved in this research it seems to be integral to a successful outcome of the appraisal process, and teachers are expected to submit an appropriately designed plan for their model lessons. The basis for this does not appear to have been questioned a great deal by either teachers or supervisors, but does seem to come from the concept from teacher education that by

producing a valid lesson plan teachers can demonstrate what they are doing, and why they are doing it. More importantly, it would seem to be a useful document that also acts as an 'aide memoire' for the observer, and provides a basis for post-lesson feedback.

B   Teacher/student interaction

Interactive decisions are made whilst a lesson is taking place, but there are also interactive aspects that can be planned in advance, and hence form part of the external features. Thornbury (1996:280)) argues that in situations when achieving lesson aims is important (as in a model lesson), this 'is often at the expense of spontaneous, student-generated interaction'. For example the teacher will have anticipated where certain forms of interaction, for example pair or group-work, will occur. S/he will know when s/he wants the students to respond as a group, and when they should be working in pairs or individually, and such considerations are an important part of the teaching process.

Research suggests that whole class teaching is the most common classroom format in mainstream education (Richards and Lockhart, 1996), especially at the outset of the lesson, They (ibid) go on to claim that individual, or 'seatwork' is the second most common form of instruction, and although it does not give learners opportunities to interact, it does give them the opportunity to demonstrate learning during teacher monitoring.

Pairwork is another popular approach to classroom interaction, as with insufficient time available for students to interact with the teacher in the L2, they can practice with their fellow learners. It is often seen as one of the key tenets relating to CLT (Richards and Lockhart, ibid) and is a technique that many English language

learners are familiar with, so custom and practice seem to decree that such activities form part of the model lesson scenario. However, its effectiveness as a language learning tool is reduced in the case of weak students, or those who lack confidence. Groupwork is believed to build on the advantages of pairwork, because the L2 learner is able to interact with a number of her/his peers, increasing student participation, and allowing the teacher to work as a facilitator. Group size and activity purpose have an important impact on the interaction that takes place (ibid) and Jacobs (1998) argues that the advantages of encouraging students to work together means that their affective filter goes down, and motivation, enjoyment and social identity increase, as well as interaction with peers. However, groupwork and pairwork are not necessarily as desirable as they may seem: Thornbury argues that 'while groupwork is a commonly used participation structure, it is frequently conducted at the lowest possible level of involvement' (1996:280). Jacobs (ibid) identifies the dangers of freeloading, arguing, take-overs, increasing use of the L1, and problems relating to classroom management. It may also appear that the teachers concerned are not doing their job, and these are all considerations that need to be taken into account when a lesson is being planned, as the emphasis should be on successful teaching and learning. Within the context of this research, it is often difficult to establish grouping arrangements from an audio recording, although there may be some clues given by the teacher in terms of instructions or comments on classroom arrangement.

C   Classroom management and administration

In this study classroom management could include the way in which the teacher physically arranges the classroom, as well as dealing with latecomers and possible disciplinary issues (Cohen et al, 2000; Harmer, 2007). Wright (2005) describes the core elements of classroom management as being time and space, engagement and participation. Engagement is the affective domain, and refers to people management, linking clearly to the issue of space and time (ibid:18). Participation, his third core element, relates to the interactive decisions described in B above. This is potentially a huge area which is beyond the scope of the current research, but the way in which a teacher organises the classroom environment can have a significant impact on the events that take place there. Additionally, the teacher may have necessary classroom duties such as taking a register, or ensuring that all students are present. They may also have information to share with students about forthcoming examinations, or other administrative details, so these factors are included within the scope of classroom management.

D   Teacher self-evaluation

This is another key decision identified by Richards and Lockhart (1996) occurring after a lesson has been taught. This has particular resonance in terms of model lessons, as the teacher is generally expected to provide a realistic evaluation of what has just taken place in the classroom, and is something that s/he learns to do from the early stages of ITT. Kurtoglu-Hooton (2008) and Copland (2008) have explored the feedback event in great detail, but the consensus is that this is something that should happen when teachers, either in ITT or practicing, are observed. However, the criteria that teachers

use to evaluate themselves change with time and experience (Richards and Lockhart, ibid), so their reliance on feedback from the observer may not be so immediate when they reach the stage of the current research subjects. Additionally, although feedback seems to be a recurring theme during this research, it is not a core topic and therefore does not form part of the data analysis.

3.3.4.3   Internal features of classroom interaction

For the purpose of this research, these are the features of a lesson, either model or pedagogic, that can be identified using a transcript of an audio recording of that lesson. Teachers have a considerable impact on the interaction that takes place in their own classrooms (Richards and Lockhart, 1996), which has particular significance for language teachers. Walsh argues that, in such a setting:

> communication is unique because the linguistic forms used are often simultaneously the aim of the lesson and the means of achieving those aims. Meaning and method are one and the same thing (2006:3)

So, where meaning and method are the same, the actual language used becomes crucial to the interaction. He goes on to say that 'it is the teacher's ability to manage learner contributions which will, ultimately, determine the success, or otherwise, of the lesson' (ibid): therefore a successful outcome would seem to be the focus of a model lesson. Walsh argues that a key feature of the language classroom is the potential number of linguistic misunderstandings that need to be sorted out, but classroom language is unique and complex, and can take a huge variety of forms. For example, if teachers focus on using only display questions, they are both controlling the lesson, and denying learners

opportunities to access the new medium. He (ibid) argues that from a teacher's perspective, discourse in the L2 classroom has four representative features:

I   Control of patterns of communication

Traditionally teachers control the majority of the lesson (Breen, 2001). Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) carried out some of the early research into classroom discourse, and the initiation, response, feedback sequence (IRF, or IRE if the term evaluation is used instead of feedback) has been the basis of continuing work over the years. Although there are alternative models available, this is the one which is most familiar, as it uses classroom discourse as the basis for analysis, as is the case with this research. Several assumptions have been included in this model, such as the fact that the teacher is in control of the classroom and students' discourse, that teachers initiate, and that the teacher does the most of the talking. It has been argued that this particular model is no longer as relevant as it may have been previously, as with the advent of CLT relationships in the classroom have altered, and students now take a larger part in communication. However, the IRF sequence can be a significant part of model lessons, and, as Thornbury (1996:287) argues, 'reducing an over-reliance on IRF sequences can leave teachers disempowered and 'unteacherlike''. Wells also argues in favour of the 'triadic dialogue' (1993:1) claiming that it contributes strongly to the co-construction of knowledge in the classroom, and there are several reasons for this:

- Expectations of both teacher and students as to how a lesson progresses
- The comfort factor provided by teacher feedback on student utterances

- The asymmetrical roles caused by the power relationship that exists in the classroom

- Time constraints: teachers need to advance the discourse to finish the lesson within a certain time frame

However, although the IRF sequence seems to be a recurrent pattern in classroom discourse, it actually encourages minimal interaction, and teachers continue to control both the lesson content and structures by the language that they use.

Discourse markers in speech (Cameron, 2001; Thornbury and Slade, 2006) are the contextual co-ordinates of talk (Schiffrin, 1987 and 2001) and indicate changes of information, or state (Seedhouse, 2004). They are another means by which teachers maintain control of the classroom, and, as Schiffrin writes (1987:317) 'markers which seem very different if considered just as miscellaneous expressions may actually share functions in the same discourse component'. They are defined by their places in discourse components, whilst not conveying meanings on their own, and will be termed 'signposting' (Fung and Carter, 2007) in this thesis.

II   Elicitation techniques

Classroom interaction differs from typical communication in terms of the number of questions that are asked, and the purpose in asking them: questions need to perform a particular function at any point during a lesson, and have purpose in terms of what is actually being taught. They have been found to comprise up to 70% of teacher talk in a lesson (Chaudron, 1988), and a common classification defines display questions

(Nunn, 1999), where the teacher already knows the answer, or referential questions, where s/he does not (Banbrook and Skehan, 1990; Cullen, 1998; Henning, 2008; Long and Sato, 1983; Nunan, 1987; Thornbury, 1996). A teacher asking referential questions is taking a risk, as they need to pay attention to the meaning of what the learner is saying, rather than just the form (Thornbury, ibid). For the purpose of this research, question definitions introduced by Richards and Lockhart (1996) are also used. They identify three particular types:

A. **Procedural questions**: relate directly to classroom management, rather than the actual content of learning, and frequently form part of the beginning and end of learner activities.

B. **Convergent questions**: generally require short answer responses, and often focus on recall of information that has previously been shared with the students. Learners are not generally required to engage in 'higher level thinking' (ibid:186).

C. **Divergent questions**: can be defined as the opposite of convergent questions, in that they require the learners to think and provide their own information, or version of events.

Richards and Lockhart, (ibid) claim that teachers use a lot more convergent than divergent questions, therefore students have limited opportunities to practice the language. Convergent questions are also often a feature of a lesson which contains recurrent IRF patterns. Wait-time is important when a teacher asks questions: much of the research that has been carried out into this relates to mainstream education (Rowe, 1986) but does suggest that the longer a teacher is able to wait after posing the question,

the more likely is the answer to demonstrate quality and quantity. Student questions are another possibility, although they are possibly more likely to be referential and convergent, as in terms of clarifying instructions or requesting information.

III   Repair

Repair is another main characteristic of L2 classrooms (Walsh, 2006), and, contrary to the majority of other discourse situations, does not incur any loss of face. Language students usually expect to be corrected as part of the lesson format, although for the teacher the degree of repair can depend on whether a lesson is accuracy or fluency based (Brumfit, 1984). It can also provide feedback to learners on their performance, relating to either content or form (Richards and Lockhart, 1996). Chaudron (1988) claims that teachers are most likely to repair content errors, followed by vocabulary, and then grammar errors, but it is also important to note that some errors may not be identified at all.

IV   Modifying speech to learners: teacher talk

Teachers are individuals, and, as such, bring their own personal teaching styles to the classroom (Katz, 1996): the English that they use is key to their students' progress, and for NS teachers, the L2 is likely to predominate over the learners' L1. There is a clear link between understanding and learner progression, as if students do not understand the teacher's model of the target language, then they cannot communicate.

Chaudron (1988) identified four ways in which this language is modified, and his list has been extended by Richards and Lockhart (1996). Language teachers use strategies such as self-repetition, linguistic modelling, providing additional information, expanding utterances, and using extensive elicitation. Speech which contains the above modifications is often referred to as *teacher talk* (Cullen, 1998; Krashen, 1985; Lynch, 1996; Porter, 1986; Sinclair and Brazil, 1982; Stubbs, 1972; Thornbury, 1996).

Conversation in the classroom also has a significant role to play (Day, 1984; Henning, 2008). With reference to the input hypothesis (Krashen, ibid; Lightbown and Spada, 1999), and Vygotsky's (1978) theories about language and socialisation, any exposure that the learner has to the target language is important. As Burns and Richards (2009:6) write, the sociocultural view of learning is not the transfer, but the 'co-construction of knowledge and understanding through social participation'. As such, indirect learning can be a significant part of any form of classroom interaction, but only if it is not a simply a recitation, but also involves some discussion.

> the discourse moves common to a *recitation* consist of a very simple form of dialogue: the teacher asks a question to which there is a right or a wrong answer, a student responds, and the teacher pronounces the answer to be correct or incorrect. In contrast, a *discussion* may include some form of recitation, but only as one part of a far more complex discourse (Henning 2008:2, author's italics).

It would therefore seem that, in order to increase the range and use of classroom language, the incorporation of discussions into classroom activities would be preferable to over-reliance on recitations. In fact, according to Henning (ibid) this would seem to encourage just the sort of learner and teacher participation that Samph (1968, 1976) noticed in his observed lessons.

3.3.4.4   Self-Evaluation of Teacher Talk (Walsh, 2006)

SETT (Self-Evaluation of Teacher Talk) was developed by Walsh, who claims that the L2 classroom is a social context just like any other, arguing that:

> participants in classroom discourse, teachers and learners, co-construct (plural) contexts. Contexts are constructed through the talk-in-interaction in relation to specific institutional goals and the unfolding pedagogic goals of a lesson' (ibid:16)

He goes on to state that the absence of clear goals in teacher turns means that a lesson is difficult to follow for the learners, supporting Seedhouse's (2004) concept of interactional architecture, which can be summarised as follows:

a. Interaction is the most important part of the curriculum, so needs to be understood

b. Good teaching is more than good planning

c. In order to provide PD, teachers need to investigate their own interaction

d. There is not yet a metalanguage available for describing interaction (at the time of writing, in 2004)

SETT was originally designed so that teachers could investigate their own classroom interaction, and utilises spoken corpora to identify different modes of discourse in the classroom. However, it has also proved ideally suited to the current research context, where it us used from an outside researcher's perspective. Walsh suggests that analysing classroom discourse requires 'selection and mastery of particular tools' (ibid:39), and defines SETT as being distinct from either systems based (i.e. Flanders, 1966), DA approaches (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975) or Conversation Analysis (Hutchby and

Wooffitt, 1998: Richards and Seedhouse, 2005; Seedhouse, 2004; ten Have, 1999). It is an 'ad hoc' instrument (ibid), which gives participants ownership of the design process, allowing detailed analysis of particular aspects of the interaction, although in this study the participant is the researcher.

SETT is based on the assumption that a language lesson has a structural format (McCarthy and Walsh, 2003). Walsh (2006) argues that there is no clear metalanguage to describe classroom interaction, and in order to understand what takes place we must refer both to pedagogic goals, and the language that the teacher uses in order to achieve them. He refers to the 'locally negotiated microcontexts' that comprise each lesson as modes, which he describes as the:

> Interrelatedness of language use and teaching purposes. …. we define mode as an L2 classroom microcontext that has a clearly defined pedagogic goal and distinctive interactional features determined largely by a teacher's use of language (ibid 62)

He goes on to argue that 'a modes analysis recognises that understanding and meaning are jointly constructed, but that the prime responsibility for their construction lies with the teacher' (ibid:63). His research utilised a corpus of similar size to the one created for this study, and he concludes that the teacher 'participants both contribute to and demonstrate understanding of the interaction through the ways in which turns are managed' (ibid:64).

Walsh's data was initially analysed using a CA methodology that focussed on turn-taking, turn sequences and management of topics, and when a pattern had been identified, the data was subsequently investigated for repeating patterns. As a result four clear patterns were identified, although Walsh does not claim that they include all

aspects of classroom interaction, and these are included in **Appendix E**. They are *managerial mode, materials mode, skills and systems mode* and *classroom context mode*, and each is subdivided into the relevant pedagogic goals and interactional features (see **Appendix E** and [4.0]). Walsh (ibid) provides a description of these interactional features, which will be analysed in the transcripts where they occur as examples of the modes which are identified.

Each mode has additionally been sub-divided into pedagogic goals and interactional features which are described in **Appendix F**. His (ibid) classroom data included deviant cases, where identification of modes was more complex, including examples of the following features:

A. **Mode switching**: identified by demarcation problems, where a multi-layered discourse moves from one mode to another in rapid succession.

B. **Mode side sequences**: there is a brief departure from the main to the secondary mode and back again.

C. **Mode divergence**: based on the assumption that all interaction in the L2 classroom is goal oriented, this occurs when pedagogic aims and language use do not coincide, i.e. the language used by the teacher hinders learning rather than supporting it.

Therefore in this study there were several key reasons for choosing SETT as a research instrument:

a) The participants took part because they were interested in the results as a form of PD, and Walsh's table has been developed in order to help teachers analyse their teaching for PD purposes.

b) The format can be adapted for different situations: items can be added and removed, so it is extremely versatile.

c) SETT allows the teacher/researcher to investigate classroom dialogue in terms of turns, rather than individual lines, and this coincides with the methodology in the current transcripts.

3.3.5 Using corpora in discourse analysis

Each teacher has recorded a model and a pedagogic lesson, and these spoken texts have been transcribed using the format described in [3.3.1] resulting in six transcripts, each reflecting a large volume of recorded material. There are also transcriptions of teacher, supervisor and student interviews, again running to many pages. It was therefore important to find a method of comparison where similarities between lesson outcomes could be reliably contrasted, and various elements of speech could be investigated in context. This is necessary when looking for discourse features like signposting, but particularly important in terms of investigating whether or not differences between model and pedagogic lessons identified by Samph (1976) are still applicable.

Baker (2006:1) defines corpora as being 'large bodies of language data stored on computers', and corpus linguistics is a growing field of research into language use by

studying real examples (Louw, 2007). The researcher uses 'computational procedures which manipulate this data in various ways' (ibid) in order to identify linguistic patterns and gain a deeper understanding of language use. Corpora and discourse have not been extensively linked in the past, and he (ibid) suggests that this may be because people may have been wary of the use of computers, which might imply quantitative rather than qualitative analysis. There are also arguments against corpora suggesting that the process is too broad, and does not allow the investigation of minutiae, therefore other, less mechanically perceived, methods are preferred. However, corpora do restrict cognitive bias on the part of the researcher, and they can discover how language is 'employed, often in quite subtle ways, to reveal underlying discourses' (Baker, ibid:13).

An element of quantitative research has entered the study, as the number of times a word or sequence of words appears in the spoken transcripts is often significant. But a corpus also allows the researcher to identify features of classroom interaction as pauses and laughter, so is not solely related to the language itself. Sinclair (2004) argues that the use of a corpus allows the user to discover meanings in a text that were not previously visible, so the point of having a corpus is to:

> observe things which cannot directly be observed because they are too far apart, they are too frequent or infrequent, or they are only observable after some kind of numerical or statistical process. (2004:189)

This view would seem to coincide with that of this research.

3.3.5.1   *Antconc 3.2.1w (Anthony, 2007)*

The concordance tool used to analyse the data is Antconc 3.2.1w (Anthony, 2007) as it is easily accessible on the internet, and has been developed in a reputable context. One of its great advantages is that it is able to analyse data in a range of formats, and does not rely on codes and tags. It is also relatively uncomplicated to use, especially when investigating frequency data, and identification of the use of a particular word or phrase in an individual lesson is straightforward.

3.3.6   **Flanders' Interaction Analysis (FIA)**

FIA (Flanders 1979; [2.4.2]) has been incorporated in order to investigate the features identified by Samph (1976) as being more frequent in a model lesson, as this is what was used in his original study. FIA involves documented recall at a rate of approximately 20 tallies per minute whilst the lesson is taking place (Wallace, 1991). In the current research chronological tallies were not used to identify these features, but relevant examples were located using Antconc and the lesson transcripts.

Samph's research (ibid) identified an increase in indirect behaviour during observation, which consisted of:

a) Praising or encouraging a pupil

b) Accepting or using pupils' ideas, feelings or attitudes

c) Asking questions

The lesson transcripts have therefore been investigated to establish whether or not the above behaviours continue to be significant features of model lessons.

3.4   Methodological approach: stages of the research

This research has been carried out in the stages identified below (**Appendix N**):

I. **Model lesson: audio recording**. Each teacher was asked to record an observed (model) lesson in their language classroom using either a tape recorder or an MP3 player that could be carried easily. Lessons were of 40 – 50 minutes duration, and the actual mechanics of the recording process were the responsibility of the individual teachers. However, transcripts do not exceed the lesson length of 50 minutes. Participants were asked to record an appraisal observation, and did this according to college practice, so the observer could be a peer, or a classroom visitor. However, the important feature was that there was another individual present in the classroom observing teaching.

II. **Model lesson: transcription**. The recorded lessons were transcribed for each teacher, so that key features of the discourse could be evaluated and identified according to SETT (Walsh, 2006). Areas of interest suggested by Samph (1976) were also investigated by means of corpus analysis, first individually, and then compared in order to identify commonalities and differences.

III. **Pedagogic lesson: audio recording**. Each teacher involved in the study was also asked to record a pedagogic lesson in the manner suggested in (I) above. This recording was typical of a lesson that they regularly taught.

IV.   **Pedagogic lesson: transcription**. As with the model lesson, the recording of the classroom discourse during the pedagogic lesson was transcribed. For each teacher in the study these transcripts have been compared with those provided from the model lesson, in order to establish commonalities and differences between them, as in (II), above.

V.   **Teacher interviews**. The teachers were interviewed in order to discover why they behaved as they did during the model lesson, and the reasons behind particular interactional choices. This was not stimulated recall, but it was an opportunity for them to discuss events in the classroom, and relate them to a more general understanding of the observation process. This interview was recorded and transcribed. Where timetable and access limitations dictated, debriefing took place as part of a paired interview (three people including the interviewer).

VI.   **Supervisor/observer interviews**. Three relevant individuals were interviewed in order to establish their perceptions when carrying out teacher observations for appraisal purposes, and these interviews were transcribed in order to establish exactly what observers are looking for in a model lesson.

VII.   **Student feedback**. Six ex-students who have decided on local careers in education were interviewed together, and the resulting data has been transcribed and compared with the views of teachers and observers.

VIII.   **Respondent validation.** Once the analysis of transcripts had taken place, those teachers who took part in the study and were still accessible were asked if they wished to view the lesson transcripts, but this was generally declined.

IX. **Evaluation and analysis.** Commonalities and differences have been identified between the transcripts of pedagogic and model lessons, initially in terms of lesson categories. Significant discourse features and/or structural differences have then been compared for each teacher and further developed with reference to the transcripts of teacher and supervisor interviews. Information gained from the interview with past students has also been used to inform this discussion.

3.5   Summary

Gitlin (1990:444) argues that 'educational research is still a process that, for the most part, silences those studied, ignores their personal knowledge, and strengthens the assumption that they are *the* producers of knowledge'. In order to avoid such a situation arising, the multiple perspective approach adopted in this study means that participants have had the opportunity to cover many aspects of their teaching, as the way in which their personal knowledge informs their teaching style is critical to the evaluation process.

4.0   FINDINGS: PEDAGOGIC AND MODEL LESSONS

In this section the research findings are systematically analysed: firstly with reference to the three transcripts of pedagogic lessons, and then those of the model lessons, and commonalities and differences are indicated by the use of relevant examples. Bearing in mind that the transcripts cover approximately 6.5 hours of classroom interaction in total (an example is provided in **Appendix G**), a broad range of factors have been considered in this analysis and evaluated in three sections. Theresa, Ophelia and Hannah's lessons are firstly analysed in terms of **external features,** referring to the holistic aspects of the lesson as identified in the literature review: these include the way the lesson is planned, the interaction and the occurrence of administrative tasks. The **internal features** are then discussed, which have been established from the transcripts and identified using the SETT framework (Walsh, 2006). Further information relating to the interactional features and pedagogic goals of SETT can be found in Appendices E and F, but the four modes identified by Walsh are summarised in Table 11 below:

Table 11: L2 classroom modes (Walsh 2006, 66)

Mode	Pedagogic goals	Interactional features
Managerial	To transmit information	A single, extended teacher turn which uses explanations and/or instructions
	To organise the physical learning environment	The use of transitional markers
	To refer learners to materials	The use of confirmation checks
	To introduce or conclude an activity	An absence of learner contributions
	To change from one mode of learning to another	
Materials	To provide language practice activities around a piece of material	Predominance of IRF pattern
	To elicit responses in relation to the material	Extensive use of display questions
	To check and display answers	Form-focussed feedback
	To clarify when necessary	Corrective repair
	To evaluate contributions	The use of scaffolding
Skills and systems	To enable learners to produce correct forms	The use of direct repair
	To enable the learners to manipulate the target language	The use of scaffolding
	To provide corrective feedback	Extended teacher turns
	To provide learners with practice in sub-skills	Display questions
	To display correct answers	Teacher echo
		Clarification requests
		Form-focussed feedback
Classroom context	To enable learners to express themselves clearly	Extended learner turns
	To establish a context	Short teacher turns
	To promote oral fluency	Minimal repair
		Content feedback
		Referential questions
		Scaffolding
		Clarification requests

After this analysis there follows a section concentrating on the **Samph features** in the data, where pedagogic and model lessons given by the teachers are directly compared. These features relate directly to the three key areas identified in Samph's research (1976) concerning the way in which observed lessons differed from non-observed lessons, according to FIA. Relevant features (praise, questions and response to student contributions) have been identified in the transcripts with the aid of Antconc 3.2.1w (Anthony, 2007), an Internet concordancing programme. They have then been totalled in order to establish whether such features really are more prevalent in model lessons. Finally there is a concluding section, where the results are correlated, and commonalities and differences are clearly identified.

At this stage it is important to note that the descriptions of the model and pedagogic lessons are not narratives, but provide a guide as to what actually took place in the classrooms during the recordings. The teachers were asked to provide recordings of model and pedagogic lessons that were, as far as possible, directly comparable, and in every case the model lesson was recorded first. However, in this chapter the pedagogic lessons are analysed first in order to establish a basis for possible alteration during the model lesson when an observer is present. The salient details of the three pedagogic and three model lessons have been summarised in Table 12 below:

Table 12: Key information about pedagogic and model transcribed lessons

Teachers and lessons	Length (mins)	Total turns	Total words approx	Students M/F	Topic	Student equipment
Theresa, pedagogic	50	290	4305	M	Vocabulary: weather words	Laptops
Theresa, Model	50	548	6377	M	Vocabulary: weather words	Laptops
Ophelia, pedagogic	40	354	3854	F	Spelling test review and oral examination preparation	n/a
Ophelia, model	40	521	5454	F	Speaking test review and oral examination preparation	n/a
Hannah, pedagogic [1]	50: 24 recorded	291	4389	F	Preparing reading and writing portfolios, preparing for oral examination	n/a
Hannah, model	50	460	6217	F	Preparing writing portfolios, completing feedback form and discussing examination rubric	n/a

[1]Values represent approximately. 50% of the lesson

4.1   Analysis and evaluation of the classroom discourse: pedagogic lessons (P)

4.1.1   Theresa: external features (P)

Theresa's pedagogic lesson covers the topic of 'weather words' is 50 minutes long, totals 290 turns, and contains approximately 4305 words (Table 12). When indecipherable sections of the discourse (xxxxxx) and bracketed pauses have been discounted, the pedagogic lesson pace is just over one word per second. Although there is some individual work, the majority of the lesson is teacher-fronted (Richards and Lockhart, 1996). Her enunciation is clear, and she uses brief pauses and intonation to indicate key concepts and vocabulary, although both of these linguistic features can also indicate frustration. From a transcription perspective, the pedagogic lesson is relatively complex as the talk frequently overlaps, and much of the interaction between teacher and students takes place above a background of students talking, often in their L1. This can be termed off-task talk (Markee, 2005), defined as any interaction that is not on-task (ibid: 197). As a further complication, students at this particular college use laptops as a form of learning support during the majority of lessons, which means that the process of opening the computers and logging on to the College Internet can often be lengthy, and, on occasion, unproductive.

4.1.1.1   Planning

The lesson has obviously been planned, but contains some unusual elements. The opening is clear in that the lesson begins with an administrative task (taking the register) and then students are asked to turn on their laptops and log onto the Internet, but from this point pacing and sequencing become more complex. Students seem to experience a large number of problems in activating their laptops and are noisy and easily distracted, so Theresa decides that it is preferable to do the weather words exercise on paper instead. The students initially require a lot of instruction as to what they are supposed to do, and later, having finished the exercise they correct their own work according to an answer sheet, whilst she actively monitors. Theresa then consolidates the answers by requesting responses from the group, and there is a great deal of nomination at this stage. Teacher talking time is also extended during this part of the lesson, and the focus is on correct pronunciation and understanding of the key terminology.

Theresa asks the students to store their worksheets in their vocabulary folder, reminds them of a card with a number on that they were given in another lesson, and asks them to find the other members of their team with the same number. By embarking on an activity that requires the students to move beyond their comfort zones and regroup, she demonstrates her willingness to take risks in the classroom. However, there are times when her tone seems to suggest that she may have underestimated the task requirements, especially when a student points out a typing mistake in the activity rubric. Further instructions are issued relating to the task, which involves comparing the weather in several different cities, then an example is concept checked, but shortly after

this the lesson ends. Pace is generally maintained throughout in that the students are not given the opportunity to remain inactive, but there is no clear closing strategy.

It is arguable that this lesson has no clear structure: Theresa attempts to provide a structure to the lesson in the early stages, but problems with the Internet mean that she is continually reordering her plans for the session in response to external stimuli, and is unable to predict what will happen next. That being said, she has planned ahead in order to provide paper copies of the quiz for her students, which would seem to suggest that she is aware that the laptops may not be able to cope with the demands of the lesson.

4.1.1.2   *Interaction*

The majority of interaction in this lesson is teacher-led. Students work individually on the initial activity, and are just beginning to group by the end, but for the vast majority of the fifty minutes Theresa is interacting directly with the class, unless she is monitoring whilst they are working on an exercise. For 14 of the 290 turns the students are interacting with each other and engaging in background communication (4.8%) often in their L1. However, Theresa maintains a firm hold on her class by means of signposting and nomination, and ensures that there is little extended opportunity for students to converse in their native language.

4.1.1.3 *Management and administration*

There is no physical re-arrangement of the classroom during this lesson, but administrative tasks do form a significant part, and Theresa seems to incorporate them easily. Within the first minute she is taking the register in a highly structured manner, using a format that the students are obviously familiar with, and student responses seem to reinforce this familiarity. However, although the use of computers to aid learning is familiar to these particular students, they do give rise to some managerial difficulty during two stages of the lesson. There are initially problems when students are trying to start up their laptops, and also towards the end when they have to move from their chairs during the final exercise, and relocate. The students are not engaged in any form of portfolio completion or examination preparation, as is the case with Ophelia's and Hannah's lessons.

4.1.2 Theresa, internal features (P)

Theresa begins the lesson in *managerial mode*, and as soon as she has taken the register moves on to refer learners to materials, transmit information, and to introduce the activities. She uses stress and extended wait time to provide emphasis, and allows students time to complete this initial task with ongoing background noise.

Extract 4.1

| Turn 9 | T | **OK gentlemen!** The two things I need for you to do for me right now are number 1 |

		take out the last exercise we did on weather on Wednesday that I asked you to
		complete for homework (1.5) and please start your laptops (0.5) log on to the Web
Turn 10	S	{What about homework?
Turn 11	T	{Yeah, we're going to do that later (4) Keep it could
		you make sure your name's on it. (8) Once your computer is logged on the Web I
		want you then to turn your screens to face me (7)
Turn 12	Ss	[xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx: 10 secs]
Turn 13	T	Make sure your name is on that please (0.5) you need to write your name on that
		Adrian (2) **Gentlemen** I see some papers without names on them (0.5) please make
		sure you write your name

In Extract 4.1 a transitional marker is used in turn 9 to gain the students' attention and during this lesson there is a total of 26 instances of signposting ('OK', 'yeah', 'right', 'alright', 'now'). She transmits three separate instructions in rapid succession and provides three more in turn 11, whilst also dealing with a student's question and giving the class time to respond to her instructions. In turn 13 she repeats the same instruction three times, using stress and wait time to provide emphasis. Much of her classroom metalanguage involves repetition, as she often makes the same requests of the students, using emphasis to reassert authority in parts of the lesson. As an experienced teacher she generally speaks with a specific focus, and the language that she uses performs a variety of different functions, as in turn 25:

Extract 4.2

Theresa   {A ha (2) O. K. I think we'll just do it on paper so turn your screens back
                 around the other way (0.5) don't shut your laptops down because we're going to use
                 them a little bit later (1) I'll give you instead a **paper** copy of the quiz (6) Please put
                 your name on the page (3) Just turn your laptop screens the other way (5) we won't do it
                 on the laptop (0.5) it takes **too** long (14) Everybody have a **paper**?

In Extract 4.2 Theresa is attracting attention by reminding the students that she is still present and involved in their learning: she is also vocalising her thoughts so that they know that she is engaged in actively searching for a solution to the problem. By telling them that she will give them a paper copy of the test, she is letting them know that she is prepared and that they will definitely have to do it, and her emphasis on names and laptop orientation means that she is also maintaining physical control of the classroom environment.

Theresa's use of nomination is noticeable, with 56 occurrences, and she seems to use this technique to ensure that students are aware that she knows what they are doing at all times. She refers to the members of the class as 'gentlemen', often emphasising this word, and in turn 15 (Extract 4.3) she reprimands one of the students by asking:

Extract 4.3

Theresa   Adam, what're you doing? (2) Did I ask you to talk to Adrian?

This is just one of the examples where she observes that students are not doing what they should be doing, suggesting a certain restrained impatience. Her dissatisfaction seems to be effectively conveyed to the students, each of whom responds to her comments before Theresa moves on to the next one. However, this does suggest that she is carefully monitoring her students' actions and reactions in order to speed up the general progress of the lesson.

Use of *materials mode* is relatively limited in this lesson, and illustrations in the transcript are quite challenging to find. The students are not engaged in many language practice activities as their focus is often on technical manipulation of the materials, which impacts on teacher opportunities for providing form-focussed repair. One of the 13 examples is given below:

Extract 4.4

Turn 47	T	Doesn't look like it! (9) Arnold, please tune in when you've finished (12)	
		Have you finished?	FI
Turn 48	S	Was er not hard ..	R
Turn 49	T	Was not difficult	FI
Turn 50	S	It was un difficult	R
Turn 51	T	OK, when you've finished with H, count out. When you've finished with A,	
		count out	FI

The IRF sequence in Extract 4.4 begins in turn 47 when Theresa asks Arnold a referential question, he responds in turn 48, and Theresa provides form-focussed

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feedback in turn 49. However, she does not provide feedback on the student's interesting attempt to create his own vocabulary in turn 51, and she does not try to extend his contribution. Examples of *materials mode* are probably difficult to find in this lesson because there is much less focus on form, and student turns generally consist of several words, and/or short sentences.

Examples in the transcript of *skills and systems mode* are easier to locate, as learners seem to be manipulating the target language more frequently. During much of the interaction Theresa switches backwards and forwards to *managerial mode* in order to provide instructions for the relatively complex tasks that the students are performing. Most of her questions are addressed to individuals rather than the group, and students have a limited time to respond:

Extract 4.5

Turn 177	T	We have sand storms, like the one last weekend (1.5) so we did number ten and then also eleven (0.5) twelve we finished earlier (0.5) thirteen is **sun** (1) what is the meaning of **sun**? Hamish? (4) No? Ad Adam do you have an answer for number thirteen?
Turn 178	S	It shines in the sky
Turn 179	T	That is correct, it shines in the sky (5) number fourteen (0.5) clear (0.5) Stephen, do you have an answer for number fourteen?

In Extract 4.5 there is mode switching between managerial and *skills and systems mode* in turn 177, plus extended wait time (Thornbury, 1996) whilst Theresa waits for Hamish

to answer. When Adam provides a competent answer in turn 178, she responds with positive feedback and echoes his answer before moving rapidly back into *managerial mode*.

Classroom context mode is not evident in this lesson and learners do not personalise or express opinions at any point. There are attempts to promote students' oral fluency, but extended learner turns are not apparent, as the learners do not reach sentences above one clause. Moreover students are not given the opportunity to manage the exchange mechanism, and the predominant mode throughout is *managerial*.

4.1.3   Ophelia, external features (P)

To correspond to her model lesson, Ophelia's transcript lasts 39 minutes and 40 seconds, with approximately 3854 words in 354 turns (Table 12). The lesson is predominantly based on class preparation for forthcoming oral examinations, although there is also a review of a previous spelling test, and it culminates in a highly interactive activity where students and teacher are creating a spider-gram on the whiteboard. This caused some complications in preparing the transcript, as the students' enthusiasm and interest in the lesson meant that they had a tendency to talk at the same time, often making their input indiscernible.

4.1.3.1   *Planning*

This lesson appears to operate with a flexible plan. The opening is clear as Ophelia begins by ascertaining the location of absent students, but there is a great deal of background noise, so she tells those present that they are going to have a spelling test in order to gain their attention. It seems that they had a test in the previous lesson, and she goes on to review in detail the questions that students had difficulty with. The main topics covered in this discussion are personal appearance and major victories, which have little relationship to one-another, and are approached in the manner of a guided discovery. Ophelia goes on to tell the students that they have writing to do: the 'little boxes' they started the day before. They are asked to work in pairs and think of interesting things about their families, and given time to work on the task. Then, as a group, the class creates a web diagram on the board, although in the initial stages both students and teachers are momentarily diverted by a student-generated story about a poisonous spider from Australia. However, the focus of the spider-gram then moves to weddings, and the learners become highly engaged, as these are a major feature of their lives. Ophelia obtains spidergram information by asking referential questions about local wedding customs, which leads the students to start asking her about those in her country, until the lesson ends. The pace throughout is active and varied, but even though the students are using the featured language freely by the end of the lesson, there does not seem to be a clear closing stage.

4.1.3.2 Interaction

As with Theresa, the majority of the interaction in this lesson involves the teacher and the whole class, although students do have a brief opportunity to work in pairs in the early stages. However, this teacher-led interaction pattern does seem to be extremely effective during the creation of the spider-gram, as in Extract 4.6:

Extract 4.6

Turn 299	T	So who chooses the groom? (1) Is it the bride, or the bride's family? (3) Who wha who decides on the husband?
Turn 300	Ss	Well he is usually (0.5 sec) usually she says to her father that she wants to get married, then she search, then she find someone (0.5 sec) she ask him (0.5 sec) he agree, then they go
Turn 301	T	Is it always a relative?
Turn 302	S	No, no my sister that she has she has er a friend of my brother

There is a lot of background noise caused by students talking together, which seems to relate directly to the wedding discussion and their keenness to participate. As such, much of the student interaction is in their L1: 100 of the 354 turns (28% of the lesson) feature this background conversation. However, Ophelia does not seem to object to this as the bursts of L1 occur in clutches and are usually directly related to a referential question where they are needed to supply information.

4.1.3.3 *Management and administration*

There is no physical rearrangement of the classroom, or outside interruption that Ophelia has to deal with. Administratively, she investigates the whereabouts of absent students at the start of the lesson, but without actually calling a register. Additionally she discusses the salient points of a recent spelling test with the learners, which can also be construed as an administrative task in that the results are recorded for the college management as evidence of learning.

4.1.4 Ophelia, internal features (P)

As the lesson relates to test review and examination preparation, it could be assumed that *managerial mode* might be a prevalent internal feature. However, for Ophelia this mode is much less pronounced than with Theresa, as she tends to direct her class by means of display questions rather than instructions. This means that single extended teacher turns are rare, as are transitional markers. There are only 18 examples of signposting ('now', 'right', 'well', 'OK', 'yeah' and 'look') and 14 nominations: considerably less than in her model lesson. Confirmation checks are rare.

Extract 4.7

Turn 27 T   That's alright we're just waiting for them to come back before we do the spelling test

Turn 28 Ss   Spelling test! [class respond with horrified noises] No miss? xxxxxxxxx (20)

Turn 29 T   And now (2) there's one question (4) one question nobody answered

Turn 30   Ss   Which one?

Turn 31   T   Which was this one.

In turn 27, Extract 4.7, Ophelia uses the concept of a spelling test to introduce a new activity, and it takes a relatively long time for the class to settle down after she has done this. Having gained the students' attention she uses a transitional marker (turn 29) to focus attention, although the use of 'And' mitigates the emphasis. However, the students' attention is fully engaged by this time, as evinced by the choral response in turn 30.

A relatively clear example of *materials mode* occurs at the start of the lesson, when Ophelia is discussing the spelling test referred to in Extract 7, but as the lesson continues student contributions increase to such an extent that display questions and the IRF sequence become difficult to isolate.

Extract 4.8

Turn 37	T	Yeah (1) we've got a verb and	FI
Turn 38	S	Appearance?	R
Turn 39	T	Appearance (0.5) what does it mean?	FI
Turn 40	Ss	What does he do?	R
Turn 41	T	No	F
Turn 42	Ss	La [Arabic for 'no']	R
Turn 43	T	Appearance	I

In Extract 4.8 she initiates in turn 37 and the students respond in turn 38 with the required noun. Ophelia provides feedback in turn 39, and initiates again. The students' response is incorrect so she replies negatively, and they, obviously thinking carefully about this, translate her reply into their L1. She then responds by providing the definition once again in order to again initiate a reply. Thornbury (1996:282) terms such interaction as 'ritualised behaviour', but such 'examples of traditional classroom discourse' are not typical of Ophelia's teaching.

Skills and systems mode is probably that which predominates through the early and middle stages of the lesson, although extended teacher turns are still not particularly common. Ophelia provides her students with a range of scaffolding, as demonstrated in Extract 4.9:

Extract 4.9

Turn 095	T	Both years, so that's it [Writing on board] (5) world championship when?
Turn 096	S	And he have won one and um twenty five grand er grand prix
Turn 097	T	That's right grand grand prix [with French accent] (0.5) French
Turn 098	Ss	Grand prix [students emulate French accent] prix
Turn 099	T	Grand prix (2) he won the world championship in (0.5) when?
Turn 100	S	1980
Turn 101	T	And?
Turn 102	S	Err (0.5) 1980? 1981
Turn 103	T	Eighty, or ninety?
Turn 104	S	Err 1990 sorry!

There are display questions (turns 95, 99, 101 and 103), the use of scaffolding (using a French accent) and a clarification request (turn 103), but there is no teacher echo, and form-focussed feedback exists only in turn 99. Ophelia provides further scaffolding in turn 103, when she provides the students with a clue as to what they should be saying. As such this interaction appears to have a closer relationship to classroom context mode, especially when the student apologises for getting the answer wrong in turn 104.

Towards the end of the lesson it is *classroom context mode* that prevails, as the students become personally engaged in the discussion about weddings. Learner turns are extended throughout this time, but they do not really start managing the exchange mechanism until towards the end of the lesson when one of them asks Ophelia about her own wedding, thus realigning the discourse roles (Lynch, 1991):

Extract 4.10

Turn 332	S	But um on Saturday too er Tuesday it will be er Bethany day the family the family have the xxxxxxxx (3) what about you, Miss?
Turn 333	T	What about me? (1) The wedding? (1) Just one day, that's it (0.5) everyone has just one day
Turn 334	S	Are you dancing all night, or?
Turn 335	T	No, some people don't have dancing (0.5) some people do, so they're different (0.5) if (0.5) nobody (0.5) it's not the same we don't have particular traditions in the West to do with the wedding, really (0.5) you know the bride normally wears a white dress usually, but she doesn't have to (1) some people get married in a church

Here the student involved in the exchange in Extract 4.10 is gaining fluency practice, and the focus of both parties is on the message rather than the form. The questions are referential, but on behalf of the learner rather than the teacher (turns 332 and 334), and as Ophelia is providing information, the teacher turns are atypical for this lesson in that they are extended. As Thornbury argues (1996), if a lesson aims to be communicative then students should be initiating questions, and Ophelia certainly achieves this.

4.1.5 Hannah, external features (P)

Although this analysis is of a 50 minute lesson (Table 12), and provides a transcript of the same length as Theresa and Ophelia's (ten pages), Hannah paused the recording device after 15 minutes and 49 seconds, and only turned it on again when there were 8 minutes and 13 seconds of the lesson remaining, providing a total recording of 24 minutes 2 seconds. Apparently this occurred because she went to get some additional printouts for her students and forgot about it, but this does mean that approximately 50% of the data is not available for transcription. As this was a unique recording opportunity it was not possible to obtain any further data, however, the lesson structure is clear from the existing recording. Hannah later confirmed that the missing 25 minutes was spent working on parts three, four and five of the practice examination (sections are clearly indicated in the existing transcript), meaning that word and turn totals, at 4389 [2] and 291, only represent about 50% of the lesson. It can be assumed that these totals would increase significantly, was the recording complete, therefore in order

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[2] Approximate value as calculated from a 24 minute transcript

to be comparable with those of her model lesson, they are provided as a percentage of lesson time for all participants.

4.1.5.1   Planning

Again, the lesson shows that it has been planned, but incorporates a degree of flexibility. There is a clear opening when Hannah greets her students, then realises that a large number of them are missing, as this is a pre-examination day. Those present are congratulated, told they are going to be working on their reading and writing portfolios, and getting extra practice before the examination starts. She then takes attendance, hands out marked papers to individual students, and asks the learners to hand in their portfolios. The students have timetabling questions, which Hannah refers to a notice on the back of the classroom door, and the class goes on to discuss the requirements and exact procedure for the speaking examination and who will be present. She then asks them if they would like to look at an extra practice test about recycling, however, having said that they are going to review sections three four and five, she pauses the recording.

The recording resumes after a further 25 minutes: the class is now working together on part five of the examination. Hannah guides them through the questions together and the students provide the answers with some scaffolding: they discuss waste in countries like the UK and Thailand. She asks the students where they would find information about such countries, and identifies a travel website. The class is then out of time for practice exercises and Hannah asks the students to complete a reflection paper for their reading portfolio, and provide some honest feedback. The questions are covered

together as a group, and she tells them to return them to her later. She then surprises the students by telling them that she may not teach them next semester and thanks them for their efforts, which provides a clear closing before the recording ends. Pace is maintained throughout the lesson, but sequencing of activities appears to relate to external educational management pressures as opposed to a logical sequence of learning objectives, and is clearly affected by time constraints.

4.1.5.2   Interaction

All the interaction in this lesson takes place between teacher and class. There is a brief period at the start of the lesson when students are putting papers into their portfolios and organising them, but apart from that the lesson is teacher-centred. Even when the students have an opportunity to complete the reflection papers individually, this becomes a group exercise. Bearing in mind Hannah's demonstrated practice in this transcript, it can reasonably be assumed that the missing 25 minutes of the lesson whilst the class worked on parts three, four and five of the recycling exercise were also teacher-lead.

Students' background talking occurs during 90 of the 251 turns, which constitutes 36%[1] of the existing lesson. Much of this background noise can be attributed to the fact that this is an examination preparation lesson, which means that learners feel the need to confer in their L1 to ensure that they all agree about Hannah's instructions and explanations. This discussion occurs particularly during extended teacher turns, suggesting that it may be linked to comprehension.

4.1.5.3 *Management and administration*

The content of this lesson relates comprehensively to management and administration, as the main teacher concerns are collecting student portfolios for assessment, and preparing them for a college-administered examination. Therefore key linguistic content is missing, except in terms of covering the requirements of some individual questions in the practice test which students are already familiar with. Administratively, aside from collecting some of the completed portfolios, Hannah feels compelled to take the register when she discovers how many students are missing. She also has to return a number of marked papers to the class, and to make sure that they know where to go, when to go there and what to expect during their examinations. It therefore seems that *managerial mode* could well be a key component of the internal features.

4.1.6 Hannah, internal features (P)

The lesson begins in *managerial mode*, as Hannah notices absences and tries to establish the whereabouts of missing students. However, she is similar to Ophelia in that she uses questions, both referential and display, in order to transmit information to the students, as opposed to direct instructions like Theresa. The function of the majority of activities in this pedagogic lesson is managerial, therefore there are many extended teacher turns, but they are mitigated by the use of questions, as in Extract 4.11 below:

Extract 4.11

Turn 17   T   Today is a (0.5) regular (0.5) day (1) Any student that is not here is marked absent

(0.5) and (0.5) especially missing on days like today (0.5) [the Supervisor] is really

checking those names. Of course you girls are here (1) good job (1) so you're fine, but

as they're friends you need to pass that message on (0.5) so (1) do you have other

classes in the afternoon today?

Turn 18   Ss   No

Turn 19   T   You only have this one?

Turn 20   Ss   Yes

Turn 21   T   Um (0.5) still (1) Hey, I'm very important! (1) One of the most important things today

is that we're gonna just spend some time is just to making sure that we organise all of

the last little things related to your reading and writing portfolio (1) and= go over any

extra questions from practice exams (0.5) give you a little extra practice before the

exam starts, and answer any questions that you have, OK?

The use of questions in turns 17 and 19 allows the students to contribute to the discussion and provides Hannah with information. Although the 'OK?' in turn 21 is rhetorical, it performs a similar function, and she uses this type of question a great deal in her teaching (there are 27 instances in this lesson). In turn 17, although she is congratulating the students that have actually turned up to the lesson, she is also providing a veiled threat by telling them that the Supervisor is checking names of absent students. Although not immediately apparent, such warnings could have implications for the students' behaviour when the supervisor is in the classroom, as during appraisal observations. Turn 21 provides an example of a clear opening, in that Hannah is telling the students exactly what they can expect to do during the lesson.

As it is important for Hannah to transmit information in a lesson like this, there are 39 extended teacher turns (i.e. those with more than 30 words) containing explanations and/or instructions, whilst turns in excess of 100 words are common. Even if it is assumed that there are no extended teacher turns during the 25 minutes of missing transcript (because the students were reviewing examination questions) it would still seem that 7.8%[1] of Hannah's turns have a strongly managerial function. In terms of signposting, she uses this 45 times ('OK', 'yeah', 'right', 'alright' and 'now') in the 24 minutes of transcribed interaction, therefore it does not seem unreasonable to assume that if this figure was extrapolated proportionally it might exceed 80, which again demonstrates a considerable amount of *managerial mode* input. She does not often use transitional markers at the start of her extended teacher turns (as evinced in extracts 9 and 11 above), but she does use them mid-turn, and when giving instructions for activities.

Extract 4.12

Turn 68	T	OK? Would you like to take that one out and just put that one on your desk (0.5) OK?
		Did you have a chance to do that one?
Turn 69	Ss	No not yet
Turn 70	T	OK that was extra practice, yes?

In Extract 4.12 'OK' is used both as a transitional marker' and as a rhetorical question and comprehension check in turn 68, and has a transitional function at the start of turn 70. However, Hannah does not seem to favour nomination as a method of classroom

control, as this is only used whilst taking attendance and during questions about the examination. Much of the interaction between teacher and students in this lesson is choral, especially after extended teacher turns, with the students providing a limited response together to the information they have been given. Having said that, *materials mode* is difficult to locate, particularly because so much of the interaction does relate to the examination rubric and does not encourage language practice using the IRF pattern.

On one of the occasions where Hannah is switching between modes she makes a spelling mistake which is not corrected, and it is interesting to consider whether this would have occurred in a model lesson:

Extract 4.13

Turn 201	T	Which company **provided** the information (0.5) what is the source?
Turn 202	S	Stats International
Turn 203	T	Stats International (0.5) OK? (0.5) so remember this word source **S O U R S E** (2) OK? (2) Which country has the highest **waste** per person (0.5) meaning how much rubbish do we throw out? Each person. (0.5) Which country has the highest waste (1) per person?

In Extract 4.13 Hannah initiates by asking the question in turn 201, the students answer correctly in turn 202, and she provides confirmatory feedback in turn 203, with a rhetorical 'OK'. She then goes on to miss-spell 'source' whilst emphasising this with both pauses and stress on the individual letters. It seems that she is concentrating on formulating her next display questions, restructuring the information in order to obtain

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the correct answer from the students, and this is something that Theresa also does in her pedagogic lesson transcript.

As with Theresa, there are no real examples of *classroom context mode* as the maximum length of recognisable student utterances is 7 words, and Hannah has a lot to get through in this lesson, therefore fluency is not one of her main goals. There is no discussion of feelings or emotions, and at no point is the exchange mechanism managed by the students.

4.1.7   Pedagogic lessons: summary

4.1.7.1   External features.

The predominant interaction in all three pedagogic lessons is teacher to whole class, administration forms a significant part and the lessons contain a maximum of three different activities in which the students can participate (Table 13).

In each lesson the opening is clear and marked by a teacher greeting, brief non-lesson based interaction, and either formal or informal taking of the register. The teachers all seem to have planned their lessons in order to complete outstanding tasks, but both Ophelia and Hannah base theirs on examination practice and/or preparation, which would seem to suggest that this particular lesson goal may be a significant part of their teaching context. Only Theresa teaches a lesson where there is some linking of activities by means of the language items in focus. She has prepared these in advance, but her approach seems to be flexible, in that there is no clear demonstration of any

related sequencing. For example, when the students encounter difficulties in starting up their laptops she is able to allow them time to do this, where this might not be possible in every lesson situation. The sequencing in Ophelia's lesson is also difficult to ascertain, but the success of the spider-gram activity means that this particular component is extended, although it is not apparent in the transcript as to how the students will actually use this information. From the outset it is clear that Hannah intends to use her lesson to complete outstanding tasks at the end of the semester, so her sequencing seems directly related to the time available in which to complete them.

Pacing is apparent in all three lessons: at no time are the students either permitted or able to relax or to cease using either receptive or productive skills, as the teacher interaction is continuous. However, the closing part of the lessons is not marked except in Hannah's case, although this could perhaps be because Theresa and Ophelia's students were due to have another English lesson later in the day. Thus none of the pedagogic lessons demonstrate all the elements of the opening-pace-sequencing-closing structure (Richards and Lockhart, 1996; Woodward, 2001). The structure does not appear to follow any prescribed framework, but rather to consist of completing outstanding tasks and reviewing student knowledge. Activities do not seem to be clearly sequenced, although Theresa's are related in that they both use weather words. This therefore suggests that sequencing of activities may be more closely related to external educational management pressures as opposed to a logical sequence of learning objectives.

Interaction between teacher and students shows some significant characteristics. In all three lessons there is a great deal of interaction between students, and much of this

takes place in the L1 whilst their teacher is speaking. Averaging the percentages for the amount of background noise in the pedagogic lesson, in this data sample there is at least a 25% chance that students will be talking together at any point in time. It is reasonable to assume that this interaction is to some degree related to the lesson input, but, bearing in mind that students are not using English, it is equally possible that they could be discussing topics unrelated to the lesson.

Finally administration seems to be a significant feature of all the pedagogic lessons, as a register is always taken, and the location of absent students established. Two of the three pedagogic lessons also relate to examination preparation, which links to administration in that they are a key part of the academic year, and there are also references to tests. In Hannah's lesson her students are also completing portfolios and reflection papers on their reading to date, demonstrating that necessary administration can take a variety of forms, and that lessons often consist of much more than teaching language items and skills.

Table 13: Summary of external features of pedagogic lessons

	Theresa	**Ophelia**	**Hannah**
Planning	Register forms the opening, followed by a practice exercise and then a group exercise which does not get started. Sequencing and pace but no clear closing.	Register opening. Lesson starts with review of a spelling test, then moves on to an unrelated writing exercise. Students involved in creating a spidergram, so much of the interaction is oral. No clear closing phase.	Register opening. Return of papers, completing portfolios, going over examination procedures, followed by a review of practice test questions and completion of a review form. Clear closing, but no real sequencing – completing outstanding tasks.
Interaction	Teacher-class, teacher-individuals, groups (though difficulty in arranging this), teacher-class. 28% of turns have background noise.	Teacher-class, pairwork, teacher-class. 26% of turns have background noise.	Teacher-class. 36% of turns have background noise.
Management and administration	Register taken at start of lesson. Problems when laptops do not operate properly.	Attendance review at start. Examination practice forms content.	Attendance review, return of papers, portfolio completion, examination practice.

4.1.7.2   *Internal features*

The internal features (Table 14) are also somewhat mixed in content in the pedagogic lessons, but, with the exception of Theresa and Hannah and *classroom context mode*, all the SETT modes (Walsh, 2006) are demonstrated. For Theresa *managerial mode* predominates, there are brief periods of materials and *skills and systems mode*s, but *classroom context mode* is not apparent. Ophelia teaches a multilayered lesson and all the modes are present, with greater emphasis on those which encourage learner independence. There is a great deal of mode switching during her lesson, and the spider-gram activity means that *classroom context mode* is included, as the students begin to control the exchange mechanism. However Hannah's use of modes is similar to that of Theresa, as she does not demonstrate *classroom context mode* either, maintaining *managerial mode* throughout. However, her pedagogic practice differs slightly in that she encourages the learners to manipulate the language, and *skills and systems mode* seems to predominate over *materials mode*.

Table 14: Summary of internal features of pedagogic lessons

	Theresa	Ophelia	Hannah [3]
Managerial	Yes – predominates throughout the lesson. 29 transitional markers and 56 nominations used.	Yes – but covert rather than overt. 16 transitional markers and 14 nominations used.	Yes – predominates throughout the lesson as she is discussing the exam rubric. 45 transitional markers and 8 nominations.
Materials	Yes – but occurs rarely; 13 IRF exchanges used	Yes – at the start of the lesson; only 5 IRF exchanges	Yes – 19 examples in available transcript.
Skills and systems	Yes – Ss manipulating language throughout the lesson.	Yes – increases towards the end of the lesson	Yes – mode switching with *materials*
Classroom context	No	Yes – but without extended teacher turns	No

4.2   Analysis and evaluation of the classroom discourse: model lessons (M)

In this section the three model lessons will be analysed along the same lines in order to establish the extent of commonalities and differences between these and the

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[3] Values based on a 50% transcript

pedagogic lessons. The research rubric specified that this should be an appraisal observation, but the observer's identity is not provided.

4.2.1 Theresa, external features (M)

Theresa's model lesson also covers the topic of weather words and is fifty minutes long, but contains approximately 6377 words in 548 turns which is almost double that of her pedagogic lesson (Table 12). Student contributions are limited and the main focus is on understanding the key lexis.

4.2.1.1 Planning

The basic structure of this lesson appears to be relatively clear and to follow what might be considered to be conventional or established patterns (Harmer, 2001; Woodward, 2001). No register is taken at the start of the period, but it does have a clear opening in that Theresa introduces the observer to the students, and asks them to make her welcome. She then informs them of the lesson content and aims (reviewing weather words), and asks them to highlight, with a partner, the weather words in a text they have been given. She uses this text as part of an inductive exercise in order to identify the key terminology, and the IRF pattern is particularly evident at this stage, as is a great deal of concept checking. Student answers are generally restricted to a few words, whilst Theresa uses a lot of display questions.

The inductive exercise forms part of a worksheet, as she then asks the students to read the weather forecast individually using the key, and then answer the questions; she offers them an answer key to use when they have finished, so that they can self-assess. Whilst the students are working on the exercise, Theresa provides extensive individual monitoring, and as students reach completion they are asked to turn on their laptops to access the CNN website online to carry out some comparisons between cities using live data, as computers are considered to be a key part of learning at her college. Initially during this activity she gives a great deal of support and relies strongly on concept checking. Those students who are unable to complete a paper-based information gap exercise in the classroom are asked to finish it for homework, which provides a clear indication of closing. Thus pace is maintained throughout by the provision of a sequence of carefully arranged activities, suggesting that the lesson has indeed been carefully planned, and, in comparison with her pedagogic lesson, the stages appear to be much more structured.

4.2.1.2   Interaction

The interaction in this lesson is either teacher with whole class, as in the revision and concept- checking stages, or teacher with individual students whilst mentoring, and consequently teacher talk (Sinclair and Brazil, 1982) dominates the lesson. This is very similar to the interaction recorded in Theresa's pedagogic lesson. Students are given the option of working in pairs during the initial exercise, but the low level of noise in the classroom indicates that they may have chosen not to. They also interact individually

with their laptops. Theresa asks the questions and the students respond with just a few words, but at no point in the lesson are they required to use sentences, or to ask questions, so much of the interaction is recitation rather than discussion (Henning, 2008). However, this is in marked contrast to her pedagogic lesson, where there was a great deal of ongoing student discussion (often in the L1) and student contributions, particularly relating to the understanding of instructions, were more extensive.

4.2.1.3 *Management and administration*

There are no obvious incidences of classroom management in this transcript of a model lesson, even though laptops form part of the learning focus. Students do not work together, so this is not a factor, although they are asked to share the answer sheets, which may involve a degree of passing papers around. The other aspect of classroom management occurs when Theresa asks the students to turn on their laptops in order to access the webpage: fortunately they seem to achieve this successfully, although some take a little longer than anticipated to log on to their student accounts. Because this is a model lesson, it would seem that administrative tasks have been dispensed with in order to expedite the flow of the initial stages, as the register taking, which formed a significant part of the pedagogic lesson, has been dispensed with. Neither teacher nor students make reference to any subject that is not directly related to the topic of the lesson, and there are no technical difficulties.

4.2.2   Theresa, internal features (M)

As with her pedagogic lesson, Theresa uses *managerial mode* frequently. She seems to feel comfortable doing this, as evinced by the considerable amount of teacher talk that occurs. From the outset she is transmitting information, introducing activities, organising the environment and referring learners to materials:

Extract 4.14

Turn 7   T   OK you can work with your partner to highlight the weather words together (11) If you
                      want to work with a partner you can (13) Only highlight the weather words, not the
                      other words (4)

Turn 8   S   And the other words?

Turn 9   T   Only weather words (27) Are these all the weather words?

In Extract 4.14 Theresa uses extended wait time to allow the students to act on her instructions, which are given consecutively (Nunan, 1991: Thornbury, 1996) as in her pedagogic lessons. It is interesting to note how carefully the students seem to be following these instructions, as indicated by their response in turn 8. In Extract 4.15 she is again in *managerial mode* and about to change to *materials mode*, and uses a transitional marker in the form of 'OK' to do this, as she switches from a general response to focus on a specific task ('let's have a look').

Extract 4.15

Theresa   What else have you got? No, just do the front page (8) Just the front page (2) Just the weather words here (4) OK, let's have a look in the top left hand corner, there's a small box there at the top, what are the weather words in that small box there at the top on the left?

Walsh identifies transitional markers as being an important feature of *managerial mode*, and Theresa uses 'OK' preceding a pause on 16 occasions during this lesson as a signposting feature. Other signposting is provided by 'yeah' (5 incidences), 'right' (4 incidences), 'alright' once, and 'now' four times: the totals being similar to those for her pedagogic lesson. She does not use ''OK' irrespective of the message' (Thornbury, 1996:282) as she consistently responds to what her learners are actually saying. There are 36 examples of student nomination, but most of these occur as she is mentoring the class during the inductive exercise, and are not used to maintain focus on the teacher, as they were in the pedagogic lesson.

Theresa also uses *materials mode* frequently, as much of her classroom talk seems to revolve around the lexis which the students are using. Most of the interaction demonstrates the IRF pattern (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975), and there is an extensive use of display questions, with form-focussed feedback, 143 in total during the lesson, which exceeds the number for her pedagogic lesson. There is little direct repair as the learners rarely make mistakes, but that could be as a result of having an observer present in the classroom. Student contributions are instantly evaluated, and there is scaffolding, as demonstrated in Extract 4.16 below:

Extract 4.16

Turn 61	T	Yeah, and again we have degrees Celsius and degrees Fahrenheit. We also have?	FI
Turn 62	Ss	High and low	R
Turn 63	T	High	FI
Turn 64	Ss	And Low	R
Turn 65	T	And low. We learned two different words for **high** and **low** yesterday. What was the word that we learned for the high temperature?	FI
Turn 66	Ss	Hot hot er warm	R
Turn 67	T	Yeah (0.5) the word hot (1) is when the is when the degrees are very high	F

If students do ask questions they tend to mirror Theresa's sentences with a raised intonation at the end, rather than developing their own examples. Therefore the lesson seems to follow a generally simple IRF pattern, where Theresa echoes every response that she gets from students, and this echo constitutes the feedback. As such the students are repeatedly exposed to the same vocabulary items, both in context and as discrete entities, and as the lesson progresses their confidence in using the terminology seems to increase perceptibly.

Skills and systems mode is also demonstrated in Extract 14, where students are encouraged to manipulate the target language (turns 62 and 64) and to produce the appropriate forms by means of confirmatory feedback which is provided by echoing (turns 63 and 65). Teacher turns are extended (turns 61 and 65) when Theresa is establishing the extent of student knowledge. Learners also have skills practice in terms of skimming and scanning the weather charts and reading the CNN reports, as the focus

is on receptive rather than productive skills, and this happens along similar lines to her pedagogic lesson.

The vast majority of questions used in this lesson are display questions, with only a few which are referential when Theresa is in *managerial mode* and establishing whether or not students have a red pen. However, there is no real demonstration of *classroom context mode*, and learners are not given the opportunity to personalise, other than choosing a city for the homework exercise. There are no extended turns on the part of the learners, although their responses can sometimes number four or five words, and oral fluency does not appear to be an aim of the lesson. However, *classroom context mode* was not apparent in Theresa's pedagogic lesson, either, and from these examples it seems that she does not favour encouraging the students to manage their own interaction.

4.2.3 Ophelia, external features (M)

This model lesson lasts thirty nine minutes and forty seconds, and consists of 521 turns and approximately 5454 words, almost doubling her pedagogic lesson total, as with Theresa, above (Table 12). Ophelia's main focus is on preparing the female students for an oral examination, although they also carry out a review of an earlier speaking test. She asks a large number of referential and display questions during the lesson, and the students maintain constant involvement in the classroom interaction.

4.2.3.1   *Planning*

Ophelia initially establishes the whereabouts of the missing students, as she did with her pedagogic lesson, and by asking about their weekend provides a clear opening phase to the lesson. There is also some humour on the part of both teacher and students. After this period of informal interaction she asks them to remember what they did in the last lesson, her technique being to review this from the perspective of the previously missing students by asking the others to tell them what happened. In this way Ophelia reviews an earlier discussion about a forthcoming speaking test by asking a series of referential questions about possible areas for discussion in 'Part One', and writing key vocabulary on the board. As an example she then personalises this by asking the students to describe their own houses, keeping her own contribution to a minimum. The class go on to discuss 'Part Two' of the speaking exam as a group, and then she puts students into pairs so that they can practice the dialogue in front of the class. Other students subsequently provide support by suggesting how their dialogue could be extended. The closing phase of the lesson occurs when the paired students practice the dialogues on their own.

The model lesson differs from her pedagogic lesson in that it seems to have been carefully planned using a typical format, focussing on fluency. Ophelia presents the ideas and required lexis by reviewing a previous lesson, then goes on to introduce new vocabulary on the board. Students are encouraged to practice this in the context of describing their own homes, and the production stage is evident when they practice the examination in pairs, in an increasingly unfettered context. Pace and careful sequencing are maintained throughout.

4.2.3.2 *Interaction*

There are initially problems in setting up the interaction in this lesson, as some of the students have apparently been attending interviews and arrive individually as the session progresses. However, after a great deal of teacher-fronted activity the revision phase eventually becomes pair work as the students practice the examination dialogue, for which there is group feedback. However, TTT predominates, and Ophelia asks a large number of questions in this lesson: the extent to which they are referential means that student responses often exceed teacher prompts. This follows similar lines to her pedagogic lesson, although the students do not experience as much freedom to discuss their own choice of topics.

Student attention remains focused, and, in marked contrast to her pedagogic lesson, there are very few instances where a background of conversation is noticeable: this occurs most often following the many external interruptions that occur during the lesson.

4.2.3.3 *Management and administration*

For Ophelia classroom management is significant in this lesson as she has to deal with eight separate disruptions (involving entrants to the classroom) during a forty minute period. For most teachers this would be unusual at any time, and she becomes increasingly frustrated with the interruptions to her examination preparation, despite the presence of the observer. Aside from the fact that the lesson is based on preparations for college examinations, administration is kept to a minimum, although she does establish

the whereabouts of missing students at the start of the session. However, it seems that Ophelia does have to deal with a large amount of College-based administration on a regular basis, as three of the interruptions relate to institutional record-keeping matters. Bearing in mind this somewhat unusual number of disturbances, she seems to be successful in maintaining the overall coherence of the lesson.

4.2.4   Ophelia, internal features (M)

Ophelia starts her model lesson in *managerial mode*, organising her environment in terms of the students present, and then going on to transmit information and introduce an activity relating to a previous lesson. Her use of transitional markers is frequent: there are 40 in total, using the words 'right' (17 instances), 'good' (7), 'yes' (5), 'OK' (4), 'yeah' (2) , and 'now' (3). Bearing in mind that there is an observer present she seems to use these as a control mechanism, and nomination (of which there are 42 examples) is, for her, another method of doing this.

The lesson interaction is relatively complex, in that mode switching and divergence are frequent occurrences and *classroom context mode* is often identifiable. From the outset students are attempting longer utterances in order to communicate in English, as in the example of *managerial mode* below:

Extract 4.17

Turn 18   T   Right then (3) did you have a good weekend?

Turn 19	Ss	What?
Turn 20	T	Did you have a good weekend?
Turn 21	Ss	Yes no, not good
Turn 22	T	Why not?
Turn 23	Ss	It's very boring! We don't know what we do, where we go, hot very hot!
Turn 24	T	Hot? You could go inside the Malls (2) and
Turn 25	Ss	Hot inside!
Turn 26	T	[laughs] Well, they have Starbucks! [laughs again]

It is interesting to note in Extract 4.17 that Ophelia seems to carry out much of her organisation by means of asking questions, both referential and display, so that the students are involved at every stage, and are encouraged to respond by providing additional information, rather than just short phrases. She starts with a transitional marker in turn 18, pauses for effect, and then asks about the students' weekend: at this point in a model lesson she could be taking a considerable risk, as she does not know how they will answer. They respond with 'What?' in turn 19, which could mean that they did not understand her earlier question, but could also mean that they are not used to being asked about their weekend, and are somewhat surprised. Ophelia repeats her question in turn 20, and there seem to be a range of opinions in the classroom, in which the negative view predominates (turn 21), and on being asked why this is (turn 22) a couple of the students reply. Their language does not display a great deal of accuracy, but it does seem to work in terms of explaining why it was not a good weekend, and Ophelia does not correct them but goes on to make a suggestion as to what they could have done instead, as she might during interaction outside the classroom (Seedhouse, 2004). As the lesson continues, Ophelia moves to *materials mode*, where students are

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asked to recall the previous lesson, and the materials themselves are provided by writing on the whiteboard.   The extract below illustrates several of the examples of the IRF pattern that appear in the transcript:

Extract 4.18

Turn 61	Ss	Your likes?	R
Turn 62	T	[writing on board] Your likes (2) and (1.5) opposite?	FI
Turn 63	Ss	Dislikes	R
Turn 64	T	Dislikes, good (3) and	FI
Turn 65	Ss	Studies	R
Turn 66	T	Good (2)	FI
Turn 67	Ss	Interests	R
Turn 68	T	What's another word for interests?	FI
Turn 69	Ss	Hobbies?	R
Turn 70	T	Hobbies (1) good. What else?	FI

In Extract 4.18, as with Theresa, her feedbacks are also initiations, and Ophelia does not always need to make the IRF sequence explicit: in turn 67 the students respond to her positive feedback. Bearing in mind that she had only been teaching these students for just over a month when the lesson was recorded, it seems that they have a fairly accurate understanding of their teacher's interactional requirements.

There are also some clear examples of *classroom context mode*, when Ophelia asks students specifically about their feelings, although this is done with reference to the

impending oral examination. She asks numerous referential questions, and exhibits a real interest in her students' environments. In the following extract when they are talking about their feelings the speech exchange mechanism is being managed by the learners themselves, as in *classroom context mode*.

Extract 4.19

Turn 200	T	Go on carry on telling me about your house you're doing really well
Turn 201	S	It's big and er there is er the main the main the main house er we have six roo bedrooms
Turn 202	T	Mmhm
Turn 203	S1	Three in the first floor and er three in the second floor and each er room has er her own bathroom bathroom and have also a kitchen and er second floor
	S2	I like my room
	S1	yes I know I like my room because it's purple colour
Turn 204	T	Mmhmm
Turn 205	Ss	And silver xxxxxxxx
Turn 206	T	Oh is this a new house?
Turn 207	S	Yes

A student is describing her house in Extract 4.19, and in turn 200 Ophelia provides encouragement and content feedback and asks her to continue. At this stage the learner is manipulating the language effectively, and self-corrects in turn 201: the other students are following the interaction closely. Ophelia again provides encouragement in turns 202 and 204, allowing her students to maintain oral fluency. In turn 203, S1's description of

her house is interrupted by a friend who also wants to talk about her room, but S2 then allows the first student to continue by adding further details about her home.

As the lesson itself focuses on preparation for a speaking examination, one of the goals is to encourage the students to speak without teacher intervention. Conversational interaction continues as the lesson progresses, with the majority taking place in *skills and systems mode*. However, as stated in [4.2.3.3] above, Ophelia does have to deal with a large number of unanticipated external interruptions which do not form a part of the planned lesson. By the time the eighth and final interruption to her lesson occurs Ophelia's patience is wearing thin, and despite the presence of the observer she switches back to *managerial mode* very rapidly in Extract 4.20, turn 446:

Extract 4.20

Turn 444	T	Two choices
Turn 445	Ss	First off
Turn 446	T	Do you prefer to [knock at door] I don't believe this
Turn 447	Ss	[laugh]
Turn 448	T	[student at the door asking for another student] No they are in the class (1) and if anyone else interrupts my class I am going to explode like a bomb. No, all the teachers know they have lessons now (2) and this is a final exam, and their exam is in two weeks (1) so no! [slams door] In a minute girls you're going to see the self-destruct button here go, and then you're going to see me go pshewwww! All over the classroom
Turn 449	Ss	[laugh: discussion in Arabic]

In all the model lesson transcripts, Ophelia is the only teacher to demonstrate personal emotion, and the degree increases in relation to the number of interruptions. She is not annoyed with her own students, but her frustration is apparent in the way that she speaks to the interrupting student in this extract, and could well be increased by the presence of the observer in the classroom. However, the incident does not seem to bother the students in any way: as they find it amusing (turn 447), suggesting that this may be an opportunity to dispel the tension generated by the model lesson. This is in marked contrast to Ophelia's pedagogic lesson, where there are no interruptions, the interaction is ongoing, and laughter is not used in order to disseminate tension or feelings of discomfort that teacher and/or students may have.

4.2.5   Hannah, external features (M)

Unlike her pedagogic lesson, Hannah has recorded the full 50 minutes of the model lesson, and there are approximately 6217 words in 460 turns (Table 12). The lesson focus is the same as for the pedagogic lesson: students are again preparing writing portfolios, completing course feedback forms, and reviewing the examination rubric. However, this lesson is also rather different because the observer has apparently had to go and get something to eat before the observation, and does not make her appearance until turn 212, meaning that the interaction up to this point shares some features with pedagogic lessons. However, apparently this situation is not unusual, as teachers report that observers are often delayed, and sometimes do not arrive in the classroom at all (Tilstone, 1998).

The lesson has a clear opening when Hannah tells the students that an observer will be coming later to the classroom when she has had some food and not to worry, and establishes who is present. On discovering that some students are still completing an examination she decides not to mark them absent, and the class goes on to discuss the writing portfolio. At this stage it seems that she is trying to get administrative tasks out of the way before the observer and the other students arrive. Hannah collects the writing portfolios and as soon as all the students are present she asks them to complete feedback forms, and they discuss the books that they have read during that semester. She collects the papers from the students, although she also has to establish how many need replacement forms as they have left theirs at home. Thus an active pace is maintained, although activities so far in the lesson relate more to completing administrative tasks than providing a demonstrable sequence of skills activities, and resemble those in the pedagogic lesson.

Just before the observer arrives Hannah asks the students to prepare a seat for her, and then gives them five minutes to complete the feedback forms. Once the observer is established Hannah tells the students to put the feedback forms in their reading portfolios, and then goes on to speak about the English writing and speaking examinations that they have the following day. She finds that the door timetable (used in the pedagogic lesson) is missing, so then takes questions about the examinations. At this point teacher turns become extended, as Hannah is transmitting a lot of information, with regular comprehension checks. They then move on as a group to look at part three of the writing examination, and, as with the pedagogic lesson, she does this by using

display questions. Students are asked to provide the metalanguage as well as key content vocabulary and go on to expand on the examination by extending their existing lexis. As the class approaches its conclusion, Hannah provides a clear closing by telling the students this, and also what they need to do if they want their papers marked. Her final turn thanks the observer.

Although the first part of this model lesson does not include the observer, it seems that the period has been carefully planned to include non-sequential tasks prior to her arrival, whilst allowing the observer to see those which demonstrate pace, sequence and the development of student understanding about the requirements of the examinations. The tasks and activities are almost the same as those in the pedagogic lesson, but are carried out in a different order.

4.2.5.2   *Interaction*

As with the other five lessons providing the data, the majority of this one is teacher-lead. In the initial stages Hannah is giving information and dealing with administrative tasks, although students do spend time working individually whilst they are finishing their portfolios and completing feedback forms. When the observer is established in the classroom the lesson again becomes teacher–fronted, as Hannah takes control and goes through the examination rubric taking pertinent questions from the students, as she did in the pedagogic lesson.

In the 211 turns that occur before the observer's arrival in the classroom, 38% have a background of students speaking in both English and the L1, whilst of the 249

turns that take place when the observer is present, only 15 turns (6%) include student background noise. This increased attention as the lesson progresses could be due to the content in the later stages of the lesson, but is perhaps much more likely to be due to the presence of an observer in the classroom.

4.2.5.3   *Management and administration*

Unusually for a model lesson, both the above elements feature quite strongly, although it seems that this is because tasks need to be completed before the observer arrives. Bearing in mind that the student feedback forms are handed in almost precisely before the observer makes her entrance, it seems that she and Hannah may already have established an anticipated arrival time, possibly because the teacher had so much administration to get through in this pre-examination lesson.

Administrative tasks include taking the register, returning work, and completing feedback forms, as in the pedagogic lesson. Again, the lesson content itself is related to college administration, as the students are being prepared for an examination, and this is a parallel class to that featured in the pedagogic transcript. There are also elements of classroom management evident in this lesson, as the students physically prepare an area for the observer to sit.

4.2.6 Hannah, internal features (M)

As with all the other transcripts, Hannah begins her lesson in *managerial mode*, as she explains to the students in Extract 19 what is going to happen, and how it is going to affect them.

Extract 4.21

Turn 02	T	OK (1) **ladies**! [sigh] **Hi!** (1) Um alright my S1girls now I'm gonna start the class (0.5) [the observer] wants to come in to= observe to watch (0.5) you because this is something that we do (0.5) OK? So [the observer's] just going to come in a little bit later on after she has something to eat. Umm (1) it's not a test for you (1) you know Jenny so just relax, OK?
Turn 03	Ss	Whoa!
Turn 04	T	[laughs] Umm (0.5) OK? So we have some students who are absent today?
Turn 05	Ss	No! No! xxxxxxxxxxx
Turn 06	T	Aahh (0.5) so some of the students are late because they are still finishing the exam
Turn 07	Ss	Yes, yes
Turn 08	T	O=K= but everybody's here at the college?
Turn 09	Ss	Yes, yes
Turn 10	T	OK, alright, I won't mark them late then. OK (1) here's what here's what I need to ask then (0.5) do you have the paper for the writing portfolio that says 'I love it'?

It is interesting to note the different purposes served by 'OK' in Extract 4.21. It is used as a transitional marker (turns 2 and 10, twice), as a question (turn 2, twice, and turn 4) and for agreement (turn 8). However, her overall purpose in using it seems to be to

ensure that she maintains overall control of the dialogue, particularly as she is in *managerial mode*. Her emphasis on the fact that the observation is not a test for the students in turn 2 is interesting, as is their response to the information about an approaching observer (turn 3), which is presumably why she tells them to relax.

Materials mode is not prevalent in this model lesson as a whole, and this is mainly because the first part is spent completing outstanding administrative tasks, as in her pedagogic lesson. Although Hannah goes on to provide language practice around a specific piece of material, there continue to be a lot of extended teacher turns. However, there are some IRF examples, as in the following exchange:

Extract 4.22

Turn 308	T	No? Alright. (1) Ali and Moza are?	FI
Turn 309	Ss	Married [laugh]	R
Turn 310	T	Married. They love (1) are we are you sure we didn't check this one?	FI
Turn 311	Ss	Only two	R
Turn 312	T	Oh, we only did two (0.5) OK. I thought I'd take your bluff with that one, OK. Ali and Moza are married, they love travelling. Last year they got	FI
Turn 313	Ss	Married	R
Turn 314	T	And they went to?	FI
Turn 315	Ss	Turkey	R
Turn 316	T	Turkey. For their?	FI
Turn 317	Ss	Honeymoon	R
Turn 318	T	{Honeymoon	F
Turn 319	Ss	{honeymoon	R

Turn 320	T	They went to the big villa	I
Turn 321	Ss	Near Istanbul	R
Turn 322	T	OK, remember that one (0.5) Istanbul (0.5) and visited	FI
Turn 323	Ss	many famous	R
Turn 324	T	{Many famous place?	FI
Turn 325	Ss	Places	R
Turn 326	T	Why? (1) Why places?	I
Turn 327	Ss	Because many	R
Turn 328	T	AAh= so if you write that word on the writing test you're going to check to make sure you put an S on it?	I
Turn 329	Ss	Yes	R
Turn 330	T	Good= (1) On the first day they went to a	FI

The type of multilayered interaction represented in Extract 4.22 is repeated several times during this lesson. From an initial IRF pattern in turns 308-310 there is a rapid mode side sequence as Hannah moves to *managerial mode* to check details with the students, and then tells them that she was calling their bluff (turn 312), perhaps for the benefit of the observer. There are then several clear examples of the IRF pattern, a feature of *materials mode,* where either a conjunction (turn 314) or echoing (turn 316) make the teacher turn act simultaneously as feedback and initiation. In turn 317 the students respond with 'honeymoon', Hannah interrupts them to echo this in turn 318, and the students do the same to her in turn 319. The IRF pattern continues from turn 320, but from this point they move into *skills and systems mode*, as she is encouraging the students to manipulate the target language. Hannah deliberately uses an incorrect display question in 324 as a form of prompt, and the target language is elicited in turn

325. This would seem to be a high risk strategy in a model lesson, but appears to be a repair technique with which the students are familiar. In order to consolidate learning she does not feed back in the following turn, but instead asks the students why they would use this particular construction, and they respond correctly in turn 327. She does not feed back in turn 328 either, but instead asks a further question as a form of clarification request, which the students concur with in turn 329. In turn 330 Hannah praises the students for their efforts, and initiates again.

Perhaps because this is a lesson based on examination practice with an observer present, Hannah asks a large number of display questions, which seem to have the purpose of carefully controlling the interaction, and are more frequent than in her pedagogic lesson. However, many of these prompts do not use rising intonation, as in Extract 4.23 below:

Extract 4.23

Turn 390	T	OK? (1) Then let's keep going and then we'll check the meaning of the next words (2) OK. (2) The next morning (.5) read with me one two three Andrea read with me everybody one two three (1) the next morning they visited
Turn 391	Ss	Sultan Ahmed Square

This is an example of multilayered discourse, as in turn 390 Hannah is firmly in *managerial mode* before switching to *materials mode*. It seems that it is very important that the students learn this particular example for the examination, as they respond in a

choral manner (turn 391). This is a pattern that is often repeated throughout her classroom interaction. In turn 390, Hannah asks the students to continue the dialogue, but without employing rising intonation to do so. She could be using this technique because it allows the class to continue with the interaction without pausing to answer questions, as she has already informed the students that time is limited. Her focus is on getting through a lot of work in the time available, therefore *classroom context mode* is not apparent, and extended learner turns are missing as Hannah controls the interaction. This pattern is similar to that demonstrated in her pedagogic lesson.

4.2.7   Model lessons: summary

4.2.7.1   External features

Table 15: Summary of external features of model lessons

	Theresa	**Ophelia**	**Hannah**
Planning	Reading skills. Clear opening, sequencing, pacing and closing, with students allowed increasing degrees of choice.	Oral exam preparation. Clear opening, sequencing and pacing, activities changing interaction patterns. Closing as students practice in pairs.	End of term tasks and examination preparation. Clear opening, pace and closing. Sequencing more apparent after arrival of observer.
Interaction	Teacher-class, teacher-individuals.	Teacher-class, student-student.	Teacher-class, individual, teacher-class.

Manage- ment and administra- tion	No apparent management or administration.	Deals with eight unforeseen interruptions. Verbal check on students present at outset of lesson.	Administrative tasks (register, feedback) completed before observer arrives.

From the data in Table 15 it can be seen that, in terms of external features, the model lessons correspond to recognisable formats, as they have an evident structure, demonstrate several forms of interaction, and administration only intervenes inadvertently. Both Theresa and Ophelia appear to follow a format similar to PPP, with previously introduced language being revised, then practiced, followed by a form of less controlled practice. Hannah also does this, but in a more limited way: she discusses the examination rubric, and then proceeds to go over examples as to how students should react to specific questions.

All three model lessons appear to have been carefully planned, and in the case of both Theresa and Ophelia, the word density and number of turns are considerably greater than in their pedagogic transcripts, meaning that coverage increases. Although sections of Hannah's pedagogic lesson are missing, it seems that both her lessons would be of similar length and density, as she is teaching the same pre-examination lesson. The lesson openings are clearly indicated: the teachers explain what they are going to do and how they are going to do it, and the students know what will happen. Pace is maintained throughout the model lessons, just as in their pedagogic counterparts, and this can presumably be attributed to the experience of the teachers providing the data. Sequencing of activities and tasks is such that the logic of the progression is apparent to

the observer: necessary lexis is revised and/or introduced, and then students are provided with controlled practice giving them increasing degrees of freedom. Although the higher levels of production are not evident in Hannah's lesson because of the time factor, all three model lessons could be said to comply with a typical format. There is a clear closing phase for each lesson, although in the case of both Theresa and Ophelia the students are engaged in an activity at that stage.

Interaction is similar to that in the pedagogic lessons in that the majority is teacher-led. In both Theresa and Hannah's lesson the students have an opportunity to work on their own, and Ophelia's students finish their lesson with pair-work, but teacher talk does seem to dominate throughout. However, with the exception of Hannah's lesson prior to the arrival of the observer, the ongoing background noise of students talking in their L1 is notable by its absence, and students seem to maintain continuous focus on their teacher. This is clearly in line with Labov's (1972) claim that the presence of observers has an impact on the situation that they are observing, especially because in the current institutional context there are evaluative, even disciplinary, implications.

Management and administration in model lessons are also notable by their absence. Theresa does not include any in her lesson, and Ophelia only makes a verbal check on absent students at the start. She also manages to deal with eight separate interruptions to her model lesson, and none of these could have been anticipated. Hannah places all her management administration tasks (register, feedback forms, arranging the room) at the start of her lesson whilst the observer is getting food, so that she can focus on providing the students with skills practice once she has arrived.

Table 16: summary of internal features of model lessons

Mode	Theresa	Ophelia	Hannah
Managerial	Yes – used throughout the lesson. 30 transitional markers and 36 nominations.	Yes – mainly at start of lesson. 38 transitional markers and 42 nominations.	Yes – used throughout the lesson. 99 transitional markers and 34 nominations.
Materials	Yes – used throughout the lesson: 143 IRF exchanges.	Yes – but IRF pattern rare; just 5 exchanges.	Yes – IRF pattern apparent in places but generally discourse is multilayered.
Skills and systems	Yes – but occurs very rarely.	Yes – occurs frequently.	Yes – as above.
Classroom context	No.	Yes – in exam context.	No.

Walsh (2006) posits that the SETT modes are represented in structured lessons, and this does seem to be the case in these recorded model lessons, as shown in Table 16. However, *classroom context mode* could be considered to be the most advanced of these, and neither Theresa nor Hannah demonstrate this in their model lessons. But the absence of *classroom context mode* exactly coincides with the data findings for their pedagogic lessons, therefore this would seem to be linked to their normal pedagogic practice. Ophelia, however, again incorporates *classroom context mode* in her lesson.

For both Theresa and Hannah *managerial mode* is used throughout the model lesson with extensive mode switching, although Ophelia uses it mainly in the early stages before changing to *skills and systems mode*. However, being closely linked with *managerial mode* all three teachers use transitional markers often to signal the stages of the lesson, particularly Hannah. Nominations are also used in order to control the discourse and signal which student is required to respond: for Ophelia and Hannah these are more common in the model than the pedagogic lesson.

The teachers differ in their use of the other modes and the proportions seem to correspond with the patterns exhibited in their pedagogic lessons. Theresa often uses *materials mode*, having prepared the materials herself, and provides 143 examples of IRF exchanges, many more than in her pedagogic lesson. She occasionally switches briefly to *skills and systems mode*, but *classroom context mode* is not apparent.

Ophelia, however, provides opportunities for a multilayered discourse, and *materials mode* only appears a few times as much of the interaction seems to take place in *skills and systems mode*, as evinced by the length of student responses. They begin to manage the exchange mechanism themselves towards the end of her lesson, but they do this within the context of their forthcoming examination, and do not mirror the extent of their efforts demonstrated in her pedagogic lesson by the wedding discussion.

Hannah teaches extensively in *skills and systems mode*, working within a multilayered discourse, and this blends with *materials mode*, much as in her pedagogic lesson. However, like Theresa, she does not use *classroom context mode*.

4.3   Samph features (1976)

Samph is one of the original researchers into the effects of classroom observation on teachers' classroom behaviour, and therefore it is important to be able to review his research in the current context. Antconc 3.2.1w (Anthony, 2007) has been used to help establish the occurrence of his observed features in the teachers' classroom discourse, which all link to 'teacher-talk'. Samph's research identified that model lessons demonstrated an increase in affective factors (Wallace, 1991) when compared to normal lesson: increased praise or encouragement, increased use of teacher questions, and greater acceptance or use of student answers, as categorised by FIA (Newman, 2001). These features have therefore been compared in pedagogic and model lessons for each teacher, in order to establish if Samph's thesis continues to be the case, bearing in mind the methodological and pedagogic changes that have occurred in classrooms since his research was first carried out in the 1960s. It is not possible to exactly replicate his data gathering technique [3.5], but it is possible to establish the occurrences of these features with reference to the lesson transcripts.

4.3.1   Praise

The FIA category for praise and encouragement includes jokes, head nodding, and using words such as 'umm' in an affirmative manner. As the classroom data consists of transcripts of audio recordings it has only been possible to classify those forms or encouragement that can be heard, and not those which are multimodal, and the occurrences are summarised in Table 17.

4.3.2   Questions

By 'questions' Flanders means prompting about content or procedures based on teacher ideas, so that the pupil will respond (Newman, 2001), therefore rhetorical questions, such as 'OK?' have been excluded from the data. Although the vast number of prompts in the transcripts are indicated by rising intonation, those which do not feature this aspect of speech have also been included in the results. These questions have been calculated as a percentage of total teacher turns, and where several prompts occurred in one teacher turn (as when the teacher asks a question, waits, and there is no response) they have been counted as one (Table 17).

4.3.3   Acceptance and/or use of student answers

In FIA this category is demonstrated when the teacher clarifies, builds on or develops ideas suggested by the pupil. If examples of the IRF sequence are excluded because their main relationship is with an immediately repairable focus on form, this suggests that such teacher/student interaction will mainly occur during *managerial*, *skills and systems* and *classroom context mode*. Instances of acceptance have been identified as those where students use language beyond the direct form and function of the lexis they are working with, and/or ask questions (Table 17).

Table 17: Comparison of instances of Samph features in model and pedagogic lessons as a percentage of teacher turns

	Theresa		Ophelia		Hannah[4]	
Lesson	Pedagogic %	Model %	Pedagogic %	Model %	Pedagogic %	Model %
Praise	20	36	29	27	21	13
Questions	65	67	59	57	74	50
Focus on student answers	28	17	63	45	16	13

Table 17 summarises Samph's features, comparing the six transcribed lessons, both model and pedagogic, with the figures as a percentage of the total number of teacher turns. In terms of praise, contrary to his (1976) findings, both Ophelia and Hannah have greater praise and encouragement incorporated in their pedagogic lessons. Theresa, however, uses almost double the amount of praise in her model lesson, which could relate to her procedure orientation as a teacher (Garton, 2004) and the way she views appraisal observation as a demonstration of her abilities.

In terms of teacher prompts that stimulate answers, Theresa and Ophelia have approximately the same percentage of turns whether they are being observed or not, but Hannah uses a great deal more questions in her pedagogic lesson. This certainly disproves Samph's thesis, but Hannah's reason for this increase appears to relate to the

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[4] Based on a 50% transcript

fact that she is giving the students a lot of information about the examination in her model lesson, and questions are not appropriate, as students will not have the answers. This approach is mirrored by her reduced focus on student responses: her lesson aims to provide information, rather than stimulating replies. However, Theresa and Ophelia's data on focussing on student answers does not correspond to Samph's thesis either: both teachers are more interested in student responses during their pedagogic lessons. This perhaps relates to their concentration on the lesson topic during the model lesson, and reluctance to lose control by allowing themselves to be diverted from their lesson plans.

4.3.4   Samph summary

Although the above data brings out some interesting anomalies, it does not confirm Samph's (ibid) findings in any way; in fact the opposite is often the case. This could well be related to the emergence of a range of 'communicative' teaching methodologies in ELT, and the reduction in the perceived desirability of an authoritarian approach by the teacher since the research was carried out. However, this does mean that it is no longer viable to take Samph's findings into account when investigating the differences between model and pedagogic lessons.

4.4   Conclusion

The pedagogic and model lessons in this research sample have commonalities, but they also have some very clear differences. Therefore at this point in the analysis it is

necessary to be able to combine the results for both pedagogic and model lessons in order to establish exactly what these are. Table 18 below identifies the salient features:

Table 18: Comparison of features of pedagogic and model lessons

Type	Feature	Pedagogic	Model
External	*Planning*	*Planned but flexible – staged sequencing is not apparent*	*Evidence of careful planning, and the lessons appear to follow an existing format*
	Sequencing	*Sequenced to cover tasks (both pedagogic and administrative) that the teacher believes to be necessary at that point. Time constraints important*	*Activities favour a logical sequence, with increasing opportunities for language practice as the lessons progress*
	Opening	*Clear opening where teacher records attendance*	*Clear openings providing a description of anticipated activities*
	Closing	*Closing is affected by time constraints, and may not be as clear as the opening*	*Clear closing sequences*
	Pace	*Businesslike pace maintained throughout*	*Pace maintained – speed varies with activities*
	Interaction	*Generally teacher-led, although students work together if activities require this. Inter-student*	*Majority of interaction teacher-led, but also pair and group work. Student use of L1 not evident.*

		discussion in L1 evident.	
	Management and administration	*Pace is maintained: teacher may have several activities and tasks to get through*	*Pace maintained throughout*
Internal (Walsh 2006)	*Managerial mode*	*Tends to predominate from the start of the lesson, but may not always be overt*	*Generally teacher-lead, but with some variation (individual and pair-work)*
	Materials mode	*The least prevalent, possibly because the basic IRF format is restrictive/time consuming*	*Not evident, with the exception of an informal attendance review, and in examination-related tasks*
	Skills and systems mode	*Evident throughout, as students are manipulating the language in order to deal with requirements of managerial mode. Correct answers important*	*Strong presence in all lessons: transitional markers and student nomination maintain control*
	Classroom context mode	*Not present in 2/3 of the lessons. Present in Ophelia's lesson because the spider-gram activity was highly personalised.*	*IRF sequence evident in all lessons, as all have a materials focus*

4.4.1 Commonalities

The main commonalities between pedagogic and model lessons seem to be in the way that the teachers themselves behave. Using Walsh's SETT framework (2006) it is possible to establish that they use the same modes in approximately similar proportions,

although their technique might be slightly more strategic in the model lesson, in that modes are adhered to more consistently because there is less mode switching. For example, Theresa frequently demonstrates *managerial mode* in both her lessons, uses the IRF pattern in *materials mode*, and sometimes moves into *skills and systems mode*. She does not use *classroom context mode*, and student utterances do not exceed 7 words. In her model lesson she is slightly more structured in that her use of *materials mode* is extended, but apart from that, her classroom behaviour follows similar lines.

The same applies to both Ophelia and Hannah. Ophelia often uses *classroom context mode*, and both her lessons feature students taking over the exchange mechanism. She likes to use questions as much as possible, therefore *managerial mode* is limited, as well as the type of IRF exchanges which occur in *materials mode*. Hannah demonstrates *managerial mode* frequently in both her lessons, and includes a large number of extended teacher turns. However, she does not use a great deal of *materials mode*, relying on a *skills and systems* alternative. Like Theresa, she does not use *classroom context mode*.

In terms of external lesson features, there are also some commonalities. For example, all of the lessons are teacher-centred, and the interaction in each follows similar patterns, as do the opening and pace. This would suggest that such practices are intrinsic parts of the methodological lesson construction of these teachers, and this behaviour is context-independent.

4.4.2   Differences

Differences between the model and pedagogic lessons are somewhat less clearly defined, because, as discussed above, there are actually many fundamental similarities. In terms of internal features, the main difference between pedagogic and model lessons is in the way that a teacher focuses on one particular mode before moving to another, and this makes observed lessons appear much more structured. Additionally the use of transitional markers and nomination, part of *managerial mode*, is often greater during model lessons as the teacher seems to exert stronger control in these classes.

However, the external features seem to be the main area where pedagogic and model lessons differ. As they have all obviously been carefully planned, it is the model lessons that feature the clearest opening-pace-sequencing-closing characteristics (Richards and Lockhart, 1996), whilst pedagogic lessons appear to feature a series of activities and tasks (both administrative and linguistic) that need to be completed within a given time frame (a lesson). It also seems that whilst model lessons have clear endings, pedagogic lessons may end during an activity, depending on what the teacher is attempting to incorporate.

Interaction is another area of differentiation: in the research sample the activities in pedagogic lessons are teacher-lead for the vast majority of the time, whereas in model lessons the students do seem to spend more time working individually or in pairs. The informal classroom interaction of students with their peers, often in the L1, seems to be a key feature of pedagogic lessons, but is notable by its absence in model lessons, suggesting that the presence of an observer has a significant effect on the students.

However, if the students are encouraged to interact together in Arabic they seem quite happy to do so, as evinced by both Hannah's lessons. Administration is certainly much more prevalent in pedagogic lessons: the teachers always take attendance, they also complete outstanding paperwork and management tasks and organise their time accordingly. However, this seems to be eliminated wherever possible in model lessons, although an informal check on absent students may be made at the start.

4.4.3 Summary

From the above results it can be concluded that it is mainly the internal features that exhibit commonalities between pedagogic and model lessons, whilst the external features are more likely to differ. This indicates that the fundamental way in which teachers approach lessons is similar, whether or not they are being observed, as their core competencies are basically the same. However, the external features of a lesson, which are clearly observable (low inference factors: Wragg, 1999) are those which the teacher is likely to adapt in order to positively impact on the observer, even though they may not be demonstrative of their typical teaching behaviour.

In Chapter 5 an analysis of the interview data will be carried out in order to establish the basis for these apparent differences between pedagogic and model lessons.

5.0   **FINDINGS: PARTICIPANT INTERVIEWS**

From the results of the previous section it can be concluded that it is mainly the internal features that exhibit commonalities between pedagogic and model lessons, whilst the external features are more likely to differ. Therefore, as the research sample suggests that teachers do behave differently when teaching a model lesson, it is important to establish via the interview data why this is, and what the expectations are of those involved in the appraisal observation process (see **Appendices H and I**). Barnard (1998) defines the key participants in classroom observation as being the institutional management, the observers, the teachers and the students, and their expectations will be discussed in this order.

5.1   **The institutional management**

This discussion begins with expectations of managers within the institution as they are the gatekeepers, and have 'the ultimate power of permission and veto regarding access to the classroom' (Barnard, 1998:51). Institutional policy has a crucial bearing on when, how and why appraisal observations are carried out, but, as Mercer (2006) points out, although HE institutions in the Middle East are predominantly staffed by BANA English language teachers, employment laws and practices are not based on Western ideology. Therefore expectations can be identified in two separate ways: by means of the institutional literature and forms that the observers use to analyse the teacher's classroom behaviour, and also via the information provided by supervisor/observer

interviews in this regard. As they all work in different tertiary colleges in the region, it

is not possible to identify their institutional expectations directly, but it is possible to

form a consensus as to what the appraisal requirements may be.

5.1.1   Institutional literature

The publicly available literature chosen to represent the appraisal requirements

of tertiary education in the Middle East belongs to a large organisation which can be

considered to be typical of the genre, in that it has now been operating for over twenty

years, with colleges in a range of different locations. It was one of the earliest to begin

employing BANA nationals to teach English in the region, and now has many NNS

teachers as well, so their employment policy has had many years to develop. Space

precludes the inclusion of the complete documents, but relevant, current examples have

been included in Appendices J to L.

Appendix J is a document entitled 'Performance Evaluations' (HCT, 2010). In

the section entitled 'Process', it states that the performance of each employee shall be

evaluated at least once annually, normally by their supervisor. It goes on to state that

input from subordinates and peers shall be included, as well (in the case of teachers) as

student input. Although in the documents there is no mention of employee termination,

in 'Demotion of Employees' (ibid, **Appendix K**) reference is made to employee

demotion linked to employee performance evaluation and changing organisational

needs. The example provided on the form is the demotion of supervisor to Faculty (a

member of the teaching staff), and the form states that if the employee does not agree the

demotion, they may be terminated. The last document used here to provide some insight into institutional expectations is entitled 'The Notice Period' (ibid, **Appendix L**) which relates mainly to cases of resignation. In the 2nd and 3rd points of the Notes at the foot of the page it defines conditions relating to employment termination during the first year's probation, which would suggest that this is not an unfamiliar occurrence. College Directors are also allowed to waive notice periods if they feel this is for the benefit of the organisation.

This review of documents now moves on to the actual observation forms themselves which are used by observers in the classroom, and includes two typical examples of those that were used by and for the participants in this research. **Appendix A** is a slightly older version of an observation feedback form, and was used with Saskia in 2004. The teacher is observed and assessed under the headings of class management, communication, methodology, enthusiasm for subject and use of class time. She has scored a '4' in every category (very good) and observer comments for each are complimentary. At the end of the form is a section where the observer has written his/her overall evaluation, and again, it is extremely positive. As a management control tool there is also a section where the teacher has to sign to confirm that they have received and read the observation sheet.

Appendix L is a more recent (2007) tertiary college observation form that can be used for any type of observation. The teacher is expected to include activities under a range of headings, and each category has several sub-categories, although the form makes the point that 'it is not expected that all activities occur in a given lesson'. *Recognition of prior learning* (relating lesson to learners' needs), *classroom*

management (openings, closings and logical stages), *diverse learning styles* (materials, pair and groupwork) and *lifelong learning* (lesson planning and time management) all relate to the external features of the lesson. The internal features are *content, rapport building* and *communication strategies*, and provide approximately one third of the available sub-categories, which suggests that they may be considered somewhat less important. There is space alongside each one for comments, and at the foot of the second page is a section presumably aimed at the post-observation session, where both teacher and observer can write comments about what they liked in the lesson, and would change.

Appendix B is a 'Student Feedback on Teaching and Learning' form in both English and Arabic, which learners use to evaluate their teaching staff. Again there are a range of key headings, and the students are asked to place the comments about their teachers' actions on a cline between never (1) and always (5). Such forms are often used in conjunction with teacher appraisal observations, and it is desirable that most of the scores are in the 4-5 range.

5.1.2   Supervisor information

Supervisors from three different colleges have been involved in this research, therefore there is some slight variation in the expectations of their parent institutions. The information relating to administrative requirements has been obtained from their interview transcripts (an example is given in **Appendix H**), and covers comments made during their interviews that relate directly to institutional policy. Such excerpts are not extensive, but do illustrate areas of interest relating to individual supervisors.

5.1.2.1 *Institutional ethos*

Andrew identifies institutional ethos as having a strong role to play during his interview, and, although individual colleges vary, it is fair to say that in developing countries such as those in the Middle East, those setting up the educational systems strive to follow 'best practice'. This means that the emphasis on qualifications predominates, and the focus is often on the best that are available. A Master's degree is not an unusual qualification for an ELT teacher, indeed, there are many who possess Doctorates. However, this emphasis on teaching quality may not have been fully thought through, as many of such courses (i.e. as those in the UK) do not have a practical component, although this is more likely in North America.

In support of this point, Ereberto refers to the fact that there are 16 Faculty (i.e. teachers and supervisors) working on PhDs in his college. Teachers of other core subjects are also encouraged to work for the CELTA and/or DELTA, in order to gain an understanding as to why students encounter problems with English.

In terms of model lessons, there may be differences of opinion about the way in which they are viewed, even within college departments. Andrew makes some interesting points when he says in turn 27:

Extract 5.1

Andrew   The role of an observer is to be unobtrusive anyway, and I think that the teacher should

                should … view the observation as er as a non-threatening (0.5) occurrence that's part of

                the process of support that exists within the college to help develop the teacher's skill.

If it's purely seen as a punitive er process for evaluation rehiring sacking renewal, then there's nothing that anybody could do to make the co-observation a more positive process. I'm afraid it it it relies on the institution's ethos (1) from the top, really …. **Sometimes** in tertiary institutions, the role of an observation is …viewed very very differently and (1) even even between departments. Some departments it's viewed punitively as a purely rehiring mechanism, but other departments it's viewed as a strongly supportive mechanism that's **also** complemented by peer observations in and out of the specialities of the teachers

There seem to be some contradictions in Extract 5.1, when Andrew says that teachers should view observations as being non-threatening, and then goes on to suggest that it can be viewed punitively. Presumably he sees his own department as being one where observation is a 'strongly supportive mechanism'. However, the comments about observations being viewed punitively does link directly with the institutional documents in [5.1.1] above, and the literature (Appendices J to L) relating to performance evaluations and hiring and firing.

5.1.2.2   *Frequency of observations*

Andrew claims he has seen hundreds of classes over the years, and is required to observe all new teachers four times per year, twice in the first semester, and twice in the second. The more experienced teachers, those which he describes as being 'key core faculty' (turn 75) he would observe once or twice a year. He would always attend an

observed lesson for the full session, and they are used in conjunction with student staff evaluations for appraisal purposes.

Katy does not provide information about the frequency of appraisal observations in her college, but they are a teaching requirement. She cites several cases where she has observed teachers because they were experiencing a problem, including some that she had to 'let go' (turn 162).

In Ereberto's college the belief is in formative rather than summative assessment, and evaluation is closely tied into the recruitment process. Appraisal observations form part of a PD programme for teachers, and at the start of each academic year the teachers sit down with their supervisors and set objectives. The teacher should be observed either once or twice, although the observation may not last the full duration of the lesson. In conjunction with this process at least four classes should be evaluated by students, and they are also expected to submit a teaching portfolio at the end of the year.

5.1.2.3 *Setting up observations*

In all the colleges teachers should be notified in advance of an impending observation by email, and are usually given a choice of available time slots so that they can arrange their teaching accordingly. This topic was not addressed by the other interviewees, but in Erebereto's college there is an expectation that teachers will have a wide range of observations each semester (turn 170, Extract 5.2):

Extract 5.2

Ereberto   I also another thing is the way you set up observations I mean (1) teachers here have a

             wide range of observations per semester. We have the one minute, one 45 minute (1) all

             their classes for 20 minutes, we have blitz (1) observations, we have unseen

             observations (1) um and we have the whole gamut done by supervisor or peer

This provides teachers with a range of alternatives, and Ereberto argues that the system is developmental, in that teachers who have been working at the college for a number of years want to try new forms of evaluation.

5.1.2.4   *Observation problems*

The only discussion of a problem area related to institutional expectations occurs in Andrew's interview. The situation where supervisors of other core subjects become line managers of English teachers is topical, as they thus have the responsibility of observing and may not be familiar with the relevant pedagogic practice. In turn 12 he refers to the institution as being responsible rather than the managers themselves (Extract 5.3):

Extract 5.3

Andrew   It makes sense, but sometimes it's not the fault of the observer or the observed (0.5)

             sometimes it's the institution that has placed the em (0.5) ployer with the employee and

the difficult er circumstances of a non-specialist line manager evaluating a specialist

teacher and sometimes it's not the fault or the responsibility of the line manager

Andrew's remedy for such a mismatch would be the practice of co-observations, but that would be both time-consuming and directly related to the ability and experience of those who would be carrying out the observations, in terms of being willing to defer their own judgement to the knowledge of another.

5.1.3 Summary of institutional expectations

It would seem that teachers employed in the region should expect to be evaluated, at least once annually, and that input is generally provided by all the parties involved. There is no direct reference in the organisational literature to observation as a form of teacher appraisal, however, the possibility of demotion after a poor appraisal would seem to be a distinct possibility, and, in terms of teaching Faculty, such positions do not exist. Presumably it is for this reason that such Faculty have a one year probationary period, and the institutional expectation seems to be that those teachers who complete their first year successfully will continue in post. However, nothing is taken for granted, and teachers continue to experience annual observations, irrespective of their experience or length of service.

Although they seem to vary from college to college, the observation forms indicate that teachers are assessed under a variety of headings. Categories have sub-categories where comments can be included, and there may be additional space for the

teacher and supervisor to add comments. The fact that this range of categories exist suggests that the institutions are positively encouraging teachers to teach model lessons where they are all evident, despite the fact that the form (**Appendix J**) states that this is not an expectation. Additionally, appraisal observations are often carried out in conjunction with student evaluations, and they too have been given a broad range of categories relating to teacher behaviour that they should respond to positively.

The institutional ethos suggests that teachers should be recruited with the highest possible qualifications which extends to PhDs: in some places teachers of core subjects are encouraged to take TESOL qualifications in order to improve understanding. But there is an apparent culture suggesting that observations are punitive, and teaching Faculty must still expect to be observed, with strategies varying from college to college in terms of frequency and the way they are carried out. Andrew is at pains to dispel this idea when he says (turn 2, Extract 5.4):

Extract 5.4

Andrew   I think that what passes for assessment for teachers, for evaluation, it is valuable, it is important that you look at it from the other side and see it from the teachers' point of view as being valuable as well, because it er validates their belief in themselves as teachers (.5) umm I think that's the first, um, important point to make. So it is not necessarily seen as a punitive tool, um, in the evaluation process (.5) it should be seen as a supportive, ongoing tool in the evaluation process and it is very much the role of the manager to ensure that that is how it is perceived in the Department.

Whilst some institutions expect their teachers to be evaluated several times a year, others may prefer once a year, or once a semester, and the appraisal observation can take different forms, depending on the context. However, the impact of such a requirement on experienced teachers with high level academic qualifications cannot be discounted. There is also the additional problem that it may be necessary for supervisors of other subjects to observe English language teachers, and vice versa. Although Andrew suggests co-observation, this problem is not resolved in the interview data. However, observer training (Kyriacou, 1997) seems to be an important consideration in this particular context.

5.2   The observers/supervisors

As stated earlier, three observer/supervisors have been interviewed for this study (an example of Andrew's data is given in **Appendix H**), and their interview data was used to support [5.1]. In this section their own views will be investigated: although not currently supervising the participating teachers, two of them have direct experience of the context in which the research subjects work. The interviews cover broadly the same topics, and the observer expectations are covered individually. Observer interviews have an important function in that, as with the teacher interviews, they help to identify the particular features of teaching that the observers are looking for in a model lesson, linking directly with the categories identified in the lesson transcripts. The speaker's own words are frequently used to illustrate points, but where the interviewer or

supervisors' words are paraphrased, the summary is as near to an identical representation as is possible.

5.2.1   Andrew

Andrew is British with over twenty years experience in secondary education and TESOL, and for the last ten years he has been a supervisor working in a tertiary college. The interview lasts 50 minutes and his views on the function of teacher observation are strong: he is confident in his responses during the interview, which was held in his office. His answers are structured and the content provides a great deal of information as to the basis for his opinions, although he was not aware of actual substance of the discussion prior to the start of the interview. He has definite pre-determined ideas as to the expertise that a teacher should display in the classroom, and a clear understanding as to what the term 'effective teacher' means to him. Andrew uses 'hmm' and 'um' and 'herum' as delaying tactics when he is about to say something that he believes to be controversial, or has problems with, rather than pausing. In fact he rarely pauses for more than half a second: the only incidences occurring during conversation in his transcript are where he claims that observation should be non-threatening (turn 2) and where he says that teachers should show their line managers what they are made of, and produce the best possible practice (turn 8). From these discourse markers it could be surmised that he either feels uncomfortable with these organisationally led concepts, or he believes that such ideas will not be popular with the interviewer, but intends to include them anyway.

Teacher preparation for a model lesson

Andrew expects to see a lesson with clear stages: a beginning, a middle and an end, and with outcomes achieved, corresponding with the ideas of Richards and Lockhart (1996). He would only accept variation from this format if he had received prior information that this was one of a series of lessons (turn 61). He believes that a lesson plan is essential, and five to ten minutes spent on this is important: he also states that forward planning is vital, and that the lesson should be discussed in advance. When asked about lesson plans, he replies:

Extract 5.5

Andrew   I believe that er, um the actual event should be discussed, I believe that a lesson plan should be produced and discussed by the teacher, and the evaluator, so the um evaluator has a fairly good idea about what he or she is going to see.. (turn 2)

Lesson plans **definitely** under every single circumstance (1) I don't see how an observer could go into a class and see a lesson without a lesson plan. (0.5) Even if it's taken from a book and it's, you know, a British Council type class straight from a book I believe the teacher should have thought it through at least (2) and and given some thought to some of the supplementary materials and some of the creative aspects of the activities that were going to take place as well (turn 67)

Thus in Extract 5.5 it seems that Andrew has a very precise idea as to the nature of appraisal observations, and what he expects the teacher to have planned when he is watching a model lesson. He wants planning with clear stages, and if it does come from

a book the lesson needs to be suitably adapted, with the use of a range of materials and technology. As such it seems that the model lesson taught by Theresa would fulfil his requirements as it contains both the technology and authentic supplementary materials.

5.2.1.2   *What Andrew would expect to see during a model lesson*

Andrew has clear expectations of model lessons, and extensive experience with this system. He believes observation should be carried out in a non-threatening environment and that there should be evidence of adapting to circumstances during the teaching. For example, when asked further about the need for supplementary materials, he responds (turn 69, Extract 5.6):

Extract 5.6

Andrew	I would expect it. I don't see how anybody could just teach from a core text (0.5) um there's all sorts of exciting things that appeal to the particular group of students that you (0.5) that you are teaching, if you know them well enough (0.5) Um I'd expect to see, you know, use, use of audio visual resources and materials supporting classes as well (0.5) computing plays a very very important part 25% of our classes are delivered online. That's something I would always want to see (0.5) I would want to see a variety of activities (0.5) umm (0.5) interspaced with clear (2) evidence of learning.

In Extract 5.7 Andrew provides a clear description of the way in which he believes that a model lesson should be presented by the teacher, referring to this as an opportunity to

'get the best china out' (turn 4) whilst suggesting that by not doing this the teacher being observed is not showing respect to the observer (turn 6):

Extract 5.7

Andrew   I also believe that um that if the teacher is delivering a lesson, then, er, the teacher should be given the opportunity or chance to show their skills and to show what they're (.5) they're made of, if you like, er , in the classroom. And, er, as an old colleague of mine used to say, it's time to get the best china out. (turn 4)

Andrew   And, er I don't believe teachers should just perfunctorily go ahead with a normal class if he or she is being observed (0.5) I think that is rather um doing themselves a disservice and I think it's not showing a great deal of respect to the evaluator … I think it's a wonderful opportunity to um to en (0.5) ensure that you are still (1.0) producing the best possible practice that you can in the classroom. (turn 6)

Andrew's comment in turn 6 about a lack of respect for the observer is interesting, as this is the only instance where this issue is raised in any of the interviews. It seems that he sets a great deal of store by the amount of respect due to an individual holding a supervisor's position, and perhaps this is one of the few occasions where teachers can demonstrate this, adding a new facet to the way in which model lessons can be perceived. His emphasis of the point that the teacher is able to validate their own performance during the observation process is interesting: a few do say that this occurs, but this idea has not been apparent in the majority of teacher interviews.

In terms of the negative aspects of appraisal observations, Andrew acknowledges that he knows of situations where they take place without notice being given (turn 4) but struggles with the professional aspects of this. Despite his references to the punitive aspect of observation, he strongly believes that it should not play a central role in decisions taken about a teacher's career.

Andrew also mentions the 'hidden curriculum' (turn 91) as being of use, which he identifies as being conversations with groups of students or teachers over lunch, claiming that they provide insight as to what is happening inside his teachers' classrooms, mirrored in Kyriacou's research (1997). He goes on to say 'if you don't know your department well then you are doing yourself and the students and the teachers a disservice'. He also states that, in order to observe a lesson a supervisor should have taught it himself, although this does suggest that he takes the view that there is a right and a wrong way to teach.

5.2.1.3 *The observer and the feedback*

Early on in the interview (turn 8) Andrew acknowledges the importance of feedback and the post-lesson discussion with the evaluator, and suggests the need for the teacher to be given the opportunity to 'revisit the areas of their weakness', confirming his view that there is a correct way to teach. When asked if observers need to be trained, he responds (Extract 5.8):

Extract 5.8

Andrew It's very unfair, and er, I think er, given the er the level of qualification, the level of experience we expect in our particular institution … the evaluator should, most definitely, not only have experience but have some form of qualification perhaps in the evaluation process, so I definitely believe that the evaluator should be trained to know and see and understand, and, and interpret what he or she is seeing in a class.. And I think it is most unfair for the um teacher in question if that is not the case. (turn 10)

His views about evaluator training seem to do him credit, and presumably reflect his own experiences as a teacher being assessed: this need is supported by Kyriacou's (1997) data who found that observers really wanted to be trained. Besides being unobtrusive, Andrew also sees the observer as being a participator, which seems to be a position that is difficult to reconcile. He says (turn 103, Extract 5.9):

Extract 5.9

Andrew Coming back to the point about um the observer being (1) um a perhaps a **barrier** for er the students to er a achieve the most out of or gain the most out of a class, I always have strongly believed in the role of the observer a the part (0.5) of the observer as a participator (1) and every class I observe I always at **some point** will get up and become involved with er er a student's pairwork or groupwork and become (2) become the teacher if you like … and the teacher also sees you interacting (0.5) positively with the students and sees you becoming involved in his or her class, which is always a I think a confidence booster for them. And whilst doing that of course you gain a very good

insight into the understanding that the students have of the questions and the tasks that they have been asked to undertake.

When asked if he needs to do this, Andrew replies that he does, every time (turn 105). He is then asked if all teachers welcome that sort of approach, he responds that if he moves around very gently from group to group then he is not distracting (turn 107). He is very definite about the way in which he likes to observe English language lessons, and his emphasis on being involved with the students whilst the lesson is ongoing seems to suggest a clear interest in the educational process. However, this does not appear to be an unobtrusive approach.

5.2.1.4 *When a model lesson is judged to be ineffective*

In turns 7 and 8, when Andrew is asked what happens if best possible practice is not produced (Extract 5.10), he replies:

Extract 5.10

Andrew   Well, there is always a discussion with the evaluator afterwards, um, and the, the lesson is, is covered in some detail And the evaluator would, um, ask the teacher to state what he or she thought were the highspots, the er highpoints of the class, and perhaps the weaker areas of the class, and through a discussion or through a process … then hopefully the poorer, less well-delivered areas would be evaluated, er by the teacher and by the evaluator, and er perhaps solutions for future competency er um discussed and um the teacher is given the opportunity to revisit the areas of their weakness.

He seems to be uncomfortable when discussing this process, but at the same time has very clear ideas as to what happens, so is obviously familiar with the procedure. From the emphasis on 'high' it seems as though the discussion could be polarised in the other direction, and in fact focus on the weaker areas, because Andrew concentrates on evaluation by the evaluator. At this point it would have been helpful to probe further into the teacher who has to 'revisit the areas of their weakness'. However, the discussion then moves on, although Andrew later revisits the topic when he emphasises the need for teachers to notify him if they are having any problems with a class (turn 43) which could be similarly considered. An 'area of weakness' in this particular organisational context often means that the teacher is asked to teach the same lesson again, but to a different group, so that competence can be reassessed.

Andrew sees observed lessons and faculty evaluations as providing a series of snapshots of a teacher over the period of their career (turns 45, 47 and 49), and describes himself a looking for a pattern to emerge. He then goes on to say (turns 53 and 55, Extract 5.11):

Extract 5.11

Andrew	If I saw a pattern of poor practice in an observation … over one or two classes, then there would be (0.5) there would be a problem, because if poor practice was observed with the first class and no er discernable signs of er (0.5) remediation took place, then um that would clearly be a problem, and were I to see that two or three times then there would be a (0.5) an issue with the faculty member involved

This statement seems to assert his position firmly. However, as he has been emphatic in his assurances that appraisal observations should not be seen as being punitive, there is no mention of the possible repercussions of model lessons which are deemed to be ineffective.

5.2.2   Katy

Katy is an American supervisor, who had been working in her college for six years at the time of her interview, supervising both English language and science teachers. She originally qualified as a scientist, and then went on to study to be a primary teacher in the USA, but has been working at tertiary institutions as an English teacher and academic supervisor for over ten years. She is used to having a great deal of input into her working environment, and speaks confidently, and often with humour. Brief pauses occur whilst she takes a breath during often lengthy turns, but are not usually used for emphasis: in order to truly emphasise a point Katy tends to restate it and repeat what she has said. Much of the interview content relates to differences between teachers, different nationalities and the education system in the USA, so does not always link directly to the subject of this study. Katy prefers to communicate by providing specific examples rather than generalising, and interviewer questions are dealt with extensively at a personal level. This means that the interview has a very different feel and focus to that with Andrew, in that it is much less direct.

When asked what her expectations of good language teaching would be, Katy answers as follows providing almost a case by case scenario of her current staff and their model lessons (turn 38, Extract 5.12):

Extract 5.12

Katy   I (1) I think that er my expectations of good language teaching (0.5) are that, er the students should (1) er should have an idea of where they're going, and why they're going there, and how it applies to what (1) they need to know. For instance, if it's in ESP, you should make the connections. From (0.5) what they're learning to (0.5) to the English, and you should try to integrate those things as much as you can and I've got a teacher in there who does that (0.5) in an exemplary manner er and I am really pleased (0.5) with that, er it gives the students a lot of leeway but still maintains (0.5) the control … I have another teacher (0.5) and um that teacher was functioning like in a British Council (0.5) er six week programme mindset, and that's not what we have here we have an academic programme (0.5) so the person's going through, and she's sitting on the desk with her legs all folded underneath her and 'neh neh neh neh' being a cutie, and I'm thinking (1) 'whoah! We are in an academic environment here!'

Katy seems to see integration, inductive exercises and getting on with the students as being key features of an effective lesson, as well as an understanding of why it is important to let the students know what they are learning. The terms 'British Council' and 'six week programme mindset*'* seem to have been used here in a derogatory context, and to some extent seem to coincide with Andrew's expectations of a model lesson.

Katy obviously believes that students on an academic course require a more professional approach. Another key quality of effective teaching as far as she is concerned is that the teacher tells the students why they are doing what they are doing (turn 150); they need to be able to make the connection between activities and outcomes from the outset.

5.2.2.2   *When a model lesson is judged to be ineffective*

Katy obviously feels very strongly about teachers who are not effective in the classroom. When asked what happens in situations when she has a teacher who is not performing, she responds by providing several personal examples. It seems that she is very committed to supporting her teachers, and if the teacher is not performing to expectations then she is even prepared to write their lectures for them so that they will be effective (turn 116). However, she also acknowledges that the support process takes a long time, especially as it involves repeated observations. However, Katy does not seem to share Andrew's reluctance to observe lessons that she knows will be below her standards from the outset. In turns 126-136 (Extract 5.13) Katy provides an example of an observation of ineffective teaching, where she again makes derogatory reference to the 'six week programme':

Extract 5.13

Katy   In English this person happened … and I was actually called and I said it's because they're used to this six week summer programme thing and … I said 'OK I'm going to be really straight with you there's the positive' now I've got the positive negative thing

going … 'there's the positive things which is really good' I said 'but can I be really honest with you?' the person said 'yes' I said 'look, I this is going to be really hard but I'm going to tell you 'cos I care about you, OK?' So we went through it and I said this and this and this and this and I said 'now, you can change' … I said 'you know what? You're teaching an academic classroom you're not teaching a six week' …Well I'm going in to observe the lesson and do you know what the person did? They pulled the lesson off of *Lessons To Go* … I don't have a problem with *Lessons To Go*, but if I'm coming in to watch your lesson and I also don't agree that you should do a dog and pony show because I'm coming, but at the same time I don't want to see *Lessons To Go* (0.5) because if you're doing [coughs] that's what you did when I came to observe you that's what you're doing all week long if you don't have time to be teaching right then I have a problem [coughs] 'I wanna see you teaching I don't want to see you using *Lessons To Go* (1.0) sometimes we need them, sometimes we have to use them we're busy there's other stuff happening but (0.5) you know (0.5) 'OK use *Lessons To Go*, but let me see yourself in the lesson (0.5) OK? I don't want to see you teaching (0.5) *Lessons To Go.'*

In Extract 5.13 Katy is clearly appalled by the teaching that she observed: she wants to see something between 'Lessons To Go' and a dog and pony show, so clearly expects some clear demonstration of skills during the model lesson. Her response is strong and immediate, addressing the issues that she sees in the teaching context, whilst being 'really blunt'. After further discussion with this teacher, she discovered that he really wanted to teach advanced English courses, and was able to make that happen for him, suggesting that she views observation as being a PD tool. However, when asked if she has had to let teachers go because of their teaching (turn 157) Katy responds that she has:

Extract 5.14

Katy	Well I've had to let a only a (0.5) there were people in my previous job that I had to let go because of teaching ah (0.5) and and (0.5) um I didn't have any difficulty because … if they're not trying to make a difference then I don't have a much difficult time if I have invested time and energy in (0.5) you need to document those kinds of things if I have invested that and the changes still aren't there then the person needs to think about something else to do (turn 162)

However, after Extract 5.14 she goes on to say that she does not expect this to happen if she has been working with a teacher (in terms of PD), so such cases are very rare.

5.2.3   Ereberto

Ereberto is a British Head of Instruction, in charge of four supervisors and 60 teachers, and is directly responsible for the evaluation of twelve people. He is also responsible for teacher education in his college. His working career did not begin in education, but he became interested in the possibilities provided by the CELTA when he was travelling the world, and so began teaching in a range of countries. As his ELT career progressed he gained advanced qualifications, and has been in his current post for about six years, so speaks with authority, as he is used to being in control of the teaching and learning environment.

5.2.3.1   Teacher preparation for a model lesson

Ereberto does not refer directly to lesson planning and preparation in his interview, but when asked if he is a 'bells and whistles' person when carrying out an observation (turn 177), he responds as follows:

Extract 5.15

Ereberto   The quality of staff is why we hire them (0.5) anyone can do bells and whistles, you know? I don't even ask for a plan (1) well, it's not quite true (0.5) I say at the pre-observation (0.5) meeting (0.5) no observation is complete without pre-observation feedback I don't care if it's unseen or (0.5) blitz or whatever it is but so before (0.5) at the pre-observation the teacher basically has to give me (0.5) what they would have for their lesson normally (1) no I don't want a plan, I want five bullet points on a scrap piece of paper, or (0.5) whatever they do normally! (turn 180)

His reference in Extract 5.15 to the importance of the pre-observation meeting is interesting, and he is the only supervisor to do this. He wants to know what the teacher is going to be doing before the lesson, even if it is only written on a scrap of paper, and it seems that by doing this he is attempting to emulate what would occur in their pedagogic lesson.

What Ereberto would expect to see during a model lesson

Asked what he would expect to see in a strong observed lesson, Ereberto summarises as follows (turns 28-32, Extract 5.16):

Extract 5.16

Ereberto	Errr (3) classroom presence, ability to get the students to work, um (1) strong presence without being overbearing (0.5) er flexibility (3) but the th bottom line for me is always (1) are the students learning? … One of the best observations I've ever seen (0.5) was a teacher who didn't get up from behind the desk (0.5) which is totally opposite (0.5) to the way I teach … but had those students moving up and down and in pairs and in and out of pairs and (0.5) working so hard and so dynamically, and it's the way they trained the class and er (0.5) absolutely superb! (0.5) superb lesson … I don't believe there is the one way I'm (0.5) you know, like the the International House (0.5) way … I believe teachers, good teachers (0.5) adapt their teaching style to to their personality and strengths in their character, and work from there to the benefit of their students

He shows that he has an eclectic view of the teaching process, by describing the best lesson that he ever saw, where, contrary to expectations, the teacher did not move (turn 30). This obviously surprised him, and also provides an example which allows him to refute the IH methodology. By linking teaching style to personality he demonstrates that he does not have fixed expectations as to what he will see in a model classroom, and that adaptation of teacher style to personality is paramount (turn 32). When asked if teacher education should follow similar lines rather than using the DELTA format, he responds

that he knows 'it's not the PPPs and the TTTs' (turn 36) and goes on to say that (Extract 5.17):

Extract 5.17

Ereberto   … the idea of teacher education is getting teachers to reflect on the weaknesses and strengths within their lessons and how those reflect on the weaknesses and strengths within them as teachers (1.0) and … you give teachers the possibility of developing their own style (turn 38)

5.2.3.3   *When a model lesson is judged to be ineffective*

Ereberto seems to have a somewhat individual approach to appraisal observations that are judged to be ineffective, as evinced in turn 182 (Extract 5.18) when he is discussing how the way in which observation is carried out depends on the teacher:

Extract 5.18

Ereberto   But then again it's totally teacher dependant … and the word goes round I had one guy give (0.5) awful observation this year just one of those classes that went absolutely wrong … he says 'look, do we have to count that can we, can I do another one?' I said 'Yeah, alright, sure' we don't have to count anything I mean it's not this isn't er this isn't an exam, you know? So of course in the end he actually then did two more observations with me after this

Here it seems that Ereberto is at pains to point out that the observation is not an examination, and the fact that the teacher had two more observations after this is a testament to his flexibility. However, he later provides a link between student complaints and repeated observations and it is important to consider that such an approach may have an impact on teacher morale. When asked what he would do if a class say that they are not happy with their teacher (turn 183) he responds:

Extract 5.19

> … the most important thing with student complaints is you are seen to act (3) so say (0.5) OK, have you spoken to the teacher? Yes, no? They say yes (0.5) they have. Umm talk to the teacher (1.0) observe the teacher (1.0) umm (0.5) make it seen that you're observing the teacher, if necessary sit down with the teacher and class together and say 'come on, let's slash (0.5) thrash this one out together (1.0) umm (1.0) general rule never change a teacher! (turn 188)

Having discussed the importance of being seen to act in Extract 5.19, he emphasises that he should be seen to observe the teacher, despite the fact that he says that he never changes them. From the teacher's point of view this would presumably make an observation more threatening than it might otherwise be. However he rejects the fact that such an observation might result in termination during Extract 5.20:

Extract 5.20

Turn 207	I	So in this college the problem of people (1) not passing assessments and suddenly losing their jobs (0.5) is not a big problem (0.5) Um
Turn 208	E	Used to be
Turn 209	I	Used to be?
Turn 210	E	I stopped that (0.5) nobody can sack sack one of my teachers (1) and and (0.5) the people above me know that

Ereberto thus confirms that teachers used to lose their jobs in his college if they did not pass their appraisals, but states categorically that his teachers cannot be sacked, and that the institutional management are aware of this.

5.2.4 Summary of observer expectations

The supervisory approach to appraisal observation is very personal, and they each have their own priorities and parameters concerning the way that they would like to see a model lesson conducted. However, this does seem to emphasise the importance of teachers being aware of the expectations of their observer prior to the observation. In terms of the relationship between unsuccessful model lessons and termination of employment, two out of the three supervisors have apparently had experience of removing such teachers (Andrew and Katy) whilst Ereberto no longer supports this policy in his college, although it was former practice.

Kyriacou's research (1997:38) suggests that appraisers feel that classroom observations provide the opportunity to give the teachers objective feedback, to see things that the teacher had not seen, to provide an opportunity for teachers to consult with a more experienced colleague, to reassure and confirm good practice, to aid reflective teaching and to give 'specific guidance and advice'. None of the supervisors mentioned these factors per se, but their attitudes towards the appraisal observation process suggest that this might be an accurate reflection of their feelings.

Randall and Thornton (2001) describe supervisory roles as being either directive (observer as authority/arbiter) alternative (alternative perspectives) or non-directive (observer as understander). It seems that Andrew is directive: he likes the observed teacher to present an especially prepared model lesson in terms of the planning, organisation, materials used, and the way in which it is taught. The actual process of teaching is very important to him, and he wants to see his beliefs about evaluation mirrored in the teacher's pedagogic practice, viewing himself as the expert. However, he believes that this should not be the only way in which a teacher should be evaluated, and favours alternative methods, including the 'hidden curriculum'.

Katy also holds very strong beliefs about what constitutes effective teaching, and believes in specific guidance and advice (Kyriacou, 1997). It seems that her expectations are clear to her teachers and that they should know what they need to do in order for her to see their teaching as being effective. However, for those teachers who do not perform as well in the classroom, Katy sees their lack of effectiveness as a challenge rather than a problem, and sets out to provide a positive role model, even if this means writing the lessons herself, which perhaps suggests she has an alternative supervisory role.

Ereberto describes himself as having a flexible approach to appraisal, seeing his role as helping the teachers themselves and being an understander (Randall and Thornton, 2001). He will accept lesson plans on scraps of paper, and argues that model lessons are completely teacher-dependent, so that whatever works for that teacher in the classroom is acceptable to him. He has tried to reduce the alarming potential of appraisal practices by demonstrating eclecticism, although there still seems to be a grey area in that teacher observations would be used to resolve student disputes.

The supervisors are all very clear about their expectations during the interviews, but none mention the fact that the situation may in any way be artificial, or that the teacher may be teaching in an atypical manner. It seems that Andrew is positively encouraging an artificial environment, whilst both Katy and Ereberto imply that they are observing teachers working in a typical manner. However, there is no direct reference to anything equating to the Observer's Paradox (Labov, 1972) or the fact that the teacher and/or students may be behaving in a way that is artificial, although Andrew does agree that the fact that he is the students' supervisor may have some impact on the lesson.

5.3   The teachers

The purpose of interviewing the teachers who took part in this research was to gain an understanding as to their expectations of model lessons and the way that they believe they impact on their teaching, and a data sample from Hannah is included in **Appendix I**. Several salient topics were covered during the discussions, including some

comparison with alternative teacher appraisal instruments with which they were familiar, and relevant topics will be introduced in the following order:

- Preparing a model lesson

- The model lesson

- The observer and the feedback

The model lesson preparation is crucial in terms of this research, as it indicates that the teachers do feel a need to develop a particular type of lesson, based on their own personal pedagogic understandings. This also links to the external features that were identified in [4.0]. The section on the model lesson covers features that teachers include when they are actually teaching, whilst the third section is self-explanatory.

5.3.1 Paired interview with Theresa and Ophelia

This interview took place in a neutral domestic setting twelve months after model and pedagogic lessons had been recorded. The interview was delayed because of limited access to the research area during this period, but the gap does not affect the relevance of the interview data, as teachers were being asked to discuss observed lessons in general, rather than the specific lessons that they had recorded. Theresa is Canadian and Ophelia is British: both teachers are married and approximately the same age, and Ophelia has three children. They have been working in their current environment for 7 and 10 years respectively, and share experiences of teacher education: they have both gained DELTAs whilst teaching in HE in the Gulf.

Both teachers participate fully in the interview, although Ophelia's responses seem to be less structured than those provided by Theresa. She introduces several sections of narrative providing examples of personal experiences, which can be directly or indirectly related to the topic under discussion. She also tends to think carefully about what she says, whilst Theresa uses pauses in order to emphasise particular points she is making.

5.3.1.1   *Preparing a model lesson*

With reference to the observer's need for paper lesson plans, Ophelia jokes that she normally writes hers on post-it notes, linking with Ereberto's expectations of model lesson preparation. However, her actual planning is more extensive.

Although Theresa has chosen a self-observation for her next appraisal, her comments about this are relevant to her expectations about observation and the way in which it is viewed. The lesson that she wants to use for the self-observation is very specific, and she justifies this by saying (Extract 5.21):

Extract 5.21

Theresa   But because it's been built on (0.5) having an introduction to the topic first (0.5) I wasn't sure exactly when I was going to get to it daywise… So I thought 'well if I do it if I do it myself you know I can change the date at the last minute if I need to (0.5) and then (0.5) go from there … (turns 134 and 136)

These comments suggest that she takes the process of appraisal very seriously, regardless of the way in which it is carried out, but it is interesting to note that she has decided to go for a familiar lesson context (O'Leary, 2006). When asked why she chose this specific lesson, and if it demonstrates a variety of techniques, Theresa says that she wants to do it as she has taught it before a couple of times because she has been with the same level of students for quite a while. She feels very positively about this particular lesson, as she then says (turns 144 and 146, Extract 5.22):

Extract 5.22

Theresa   I love how the students respond to it (0.5) I love how much fun they have (0.5) I love the fact that when I come back next day they always want to do it again! ... And so it just seems like something that makes for a really great lesson to do some observation on or write some feedback about

Theresa goes on to say that she knows exactly what she wants to do, so it is just a matter of fitting it into the teaching calendar. When asked if she has used it in the past for observations she describes this lesson as her 'treasure' (turn 154) because it involves parking and car keys, and her students really love it. She also says that she had almost decided not to use it for self-observation, because she wanted to 'show it off' before a live observer. Theresa's comments are interesting, as they suggest that this is in fact a 'model' model lesson, and when Ophelia is asked if she has a favourite model lesson or technique she responds (Extract 5.23):

Extract 5.23

Ophelia   Well (1) I try to (0.5) choose I don't have a favourite favourite lesson (1) I like (0.5) they tend to be the vocabulary type lesson … because that's my (0.5) strength I feel (0.5) and you can do lots… with it, yeah (0.5) so I like to do the interactive thing where you've got little groups working on different things (1) it runs very finely in practice, though (turns 164 and 166)

She mentions that she likes to have 'little groups working on different things', although this was not evident in her model lesson transcript, but does emphasise the importance of interactive patterns. Ophelia says that she teaches a lesson like this because she likes to show it off in an adult EFL environment, presumably referring to her past experience of using such methodology in the primary classroom. Asked if she normally needs interactive groups in her lesson structure, she replies (Extract 5.24):

Extract 5.24

Ophelia   Yeah I do, but I think it's it goes down well in an observation because you're appealing to different learner types, and (0.5) you can do difficult, and a bit of that, and you know, quite a (2) quite an interesting lesson to watch, I think (turn 170).

Ophelia believes that observers like it if members of the class can be seen doing different things, and to Theresa's comment about knowing your audience, she responds by referring to a model lesson where the observer was not EFL trained. She used a very

different format geared to that particular observer, who 'loved' the outcome (turn 176).

When asked if she angles her lessons towards the observer, Theresa says in Extract 5.25:

Extract 5.25

Theresa   I think if … you're being observed by someone that you know well enough (2) … you do tend to do that, because you have an idea of what (0.5) specific things that person is looking for, working with them for a long time (turn 179)

When asked how she would decide what to put in her 'microscopic little lesson' (turn 186), Ophelia states that you have got to ensure that you are covering some aspects of your course objectives, in order to avoid criticism from the observer. She also argues that the lesson must fit into the curriculum with guaranteed outcomes (turn 202), and student interaction is required, with pairwork and groupwork. As such these requirements equate with the *external features* identified in the lesson transcripts.

5.3.1.2   *The model lesson*

When asked how she feels when having an observed lesson, Theresa responds that she feels 'under the microscope', and that people are not there to view the lesson as a whole, but rather to (Extract 5.26):

Extract 5.26

Theresa   ... find little things to pick up like saying 'Why didn't you X?' and 'Why didn't you Y?'

and you just sort of feel like you're there to be criticised (turn 3)

She is sure that observers are not there to provide praise at the end of the lesson, but definitely have a critical function, and as such her view of appraisal observations certainly seems to have a negative basis, as supported by the literature (O'Leary, 2006). Ophelia has slightly more to say on this topic, and states that her feelings depend on who is carrying out an observation, although if it is being carried out in an official capacity, she feels that she is under pressure. Referring to the purpose of appraisal observation, Ophelia agrees with several of the sources cited in the literature (Kyriacou, 1997) when she claims in Extract 5.27:

Extract 5.27

Ophelia   It's not a real reflect (0.5) I don't think it's a reflection on your actual ability at teaching

'cos you know it's artificial and (0.5) well, I think it's true that you're nervous when

you've got this recorder in front of you! (turn 4)

When Ophelia describes 'it' as being artificial she is referring to the situation in a model lesson, but her subsequent reference to the recorder brings the 'Observer's Paradox' back into focus: she is comparing the model lesson with the presence of the MP3 player during the interview. She also says that it depends who is coming in to observe her

lesson, and provides an example of friends arriving for peer observations, suggesting that this would not be a problem. When asked if they might ever think that observers were coming in to their lessons in order to praise them, Ophelia agrees with Theresa that observers are expected not solely to provide positive feedback (Extract 5.28):

Extract 5.28

Ophelia   That's certainly true (0.5) but I find it really superficial that that they don't know me as a teacher (0.5) they're just coming in to look at my (0.5) my one class a year (turn 13)

She argues that it is important that the observer should have a greater knowledge of her ability as a teacher, perhaps obtained by several visits to her classroom in a year. This would also seem to suggest that Ophelia is not afraid of the observation per se, but is only concerned by the way in which it is carried out.

Theresa says that at her college it is expected that an element of Information Technology (IT) is included in a model lesson (as with Andrew's college), because there has always been an internal push towards this, which explains why student interaction with laptops forms part of both her recorded model and pedagogic lessons. In support of this point she argues (turn 206, Extract 5.29):

Extract 5.29

| Theresa | And so that (0.5) the (0.5) it has got to the point where a good number of us almost feel like if we had an observed lesson, and we didn't use technology (0.5) that would be viewed as if something's wrong with your teaching (0.5) you were not taking advantage of all these glorious skills that you've taught them |

Ophelia feels strongly that an element of feedback to students is required, because it is one of the boxes that the observer ticks off when they are carrying out the observation. When asked if she has ever seen the observation form she responds in the negative, but insists that feedback is certainly a category. However, it is interesting to note that feedback to the students does not appear in either of the observation forms (**Appendices A and M**), although it is on the student evaluation form (**Appendix B**). Ophelia also adds classroom management, integrated skills, instructions and concept checking to her list of observation lesson essentials.

5.3.1.3 *The observer and the feedback*

Asked about the way in which observer feedback works after a model lesson, Ophelia responds (turns 29 and 31, Extract 5.30):

Extract 5.30

| Ophelia | Yes, if it's formal then there's always feedback (0.5) you can usually opt for a ten minute chit chat that you find a bit weird (0.5) it's usually 'How did you feel about (0.5) everything'…They try to elicit the good things from you and find out what you've done … |

Her use of the term 'chit chat' suggests that she does not view this seriously, and her expectation is that it is going to be something which is socially uncomfortable. When asked if, following positive feedback after an observation, she would still be waiting for negative comments from the observer, she confirms that 'you know there's something' (turn 44), because 'they want you to go away thinking that you've got something to work on' (turn 46). This again suggests that Ophelia thinks of the situation as being artificial: the observer is expected to feed back negatively, and form is more important than content.

Theresa agrees with Ophelia that teachers are usually asked how they feel about aspects of their model lesson, and observers tend to elicit the good things first. The concept amuses her, as does a story provided by Ophelia about feedback she received concerning her son at a school parents' evening. However, Theresa becomes more serious and when asked if she always expects negative feedback to follow positive feedback, she says (Extract 5.31):

Extract 5.31

Theresa   Yup, because it's almost, it's almost expected because it's not (0.5) just an observation (1) it's an evaluation (0.5) and so you more or less expect that at some point there will be at least one criticism (0.5) made in a an (0.5) as a way of [laughs] improving your teaching, because it's done in an evaluative way (turn 45)

Her response to this question would seem to suggest that much of her previous experience has been based on negative feedback received after model lessons. It also implies that she questions the validity of the ideas for teacher improvement that might result from an observation. Ophelia would not disagree with her supervisor/observer about feedback she was given after a model lesson, because 'that's the way the college runs' (turn 62). Her approach seems to be somewhat fatalistic, although she might be justified in raising post-observation queries with a supervisor who is apparently not experienced in ELT methodology. This topic is mentioned when she is asked if she is happy with the qualifications of her appraisal observers, and Ophelia says (turn 48, Extract 5.32):

Extract 5.32

Ophelia   No, not really, no.(1) no, because (3) in my situation the last few years we've had somebody co-ordinating our programme whose who really (0.5) I don't think has (0.5) the skills that I have as a teacher, and therefore I feel that I'm being observed by somebody whose (2) skills are inferior to my own.

So when asked if she therefore approaches an observation with more or less detail, she responds (Extract 5.33):

Extract 5.33

Ophelia   With more detail, because I know that she doesn't have the skills to observe and so she doesn't know what she's looking for in a lesson and you feel you have to point out why you are doing things and why you do this in English…She wasn't a native speaker, either (1) and wasn't an English teacher, so the way that we run classroom practice is probably very different from the way that an Arabic teacher would teach an Arabic class (turns 50 and 52)

After this reference to a NNS observer with no ELT experience, Theresa agrees that English lessons run along very different lines from Arabic classes. When asked if she feels that appropriately qualified observers are correct with comments made during feedback, she says 'I might disagree **in here** [laughs] I don't know that I would ever say out loud that I disagree' (turn 59). She would not disagree with a comment that her supervisor had made about an observation because they are the person in charge of whether or not teachers continue at the college, so it is important not to argue, or to exhibit an alternative philosophy. Theresa also makes the following studied point when she says (Extract 5.34):

Extract 5.34

Theresa   You know (0.5) and sometimes you you get a (0.5) negative feedback from someone

that immediately you don't agree with (1) but if you actually have time to reflect on it

later, you're sometimes more able then to see their point, so I don't necessarily jump

right away to defend myself (0.5) I just try to give myself some time to think about it.

(turn 69)

She goes on to say that part of the process of observation is that it is supposed to be teaching you something, so having reflected on the supervisor's comments, and if she still did not agree, she might re-engage in the discussion at a later date. She seems to position herself as a pragmatist, but also says that a situation like that has not yet arisen, and it appears that she does not expect it to do so. Theresa is not sure about the feedback aspect of model lessons, and when asked if she has ever seen the evaluation form that the observers use, she does not think that she has, or seem to have considered this previously. This suggests that she views the model lesson as something from which she has to move on immediately, and perhaps feels happier not knowing what the observers are looking for.

Aspects of a model lesson that both teachers consider important are instructions and concept checking, but they partially relate this to experiences several years earlier, when they were both studying for the DELTA. They agree that the final observation before the External Examiner was the worst that they have ever done, and Theresa describes it as 'shocking' (turn 249). Again, this seems to have resonated with them both, and such a severe past experience would seem to have a great deal of potential

impact on future observations. It does not seem unreasonable to assume that there must be many other teachers whose negative experiences of initial training observation impact so severely on their current practice.

However, Ophelia goes on to mitigate her earlier dislike of appraisal observations, when she says (turns 250 and 253, Extract 5.35):

Extract 5.35

Ophelia   No matter what, no matter how bad (0.5) your observation goes with some of the supervisors … you can have a rubbish lesson (0.5) and say to them 'well, I'm… Can you come back, please?' (0.5) and they do (0.5) so that wouldn't be (0.5) you know (0.5) if nobody ended the world, as it were, with that one observation

These comments would seem to suggest that observation is seen as a constructive process in her college, although paradoxically she still worries about them. When asked if they bother her less as she carries on teaching, Ophelia agrees that they do, but says that she's 'like a performing sea lion' (turn 260). She adds in Extract 5.36:

Extract 5.36

Ophelia   Well I may do all those things when I'm normally teaching, but nobody's in there watching me do them, that's the difference (turn 262)

This turn implies that she believes that she includes the same elements in her pedagogic lessons, but that she sees her model lessons as being a performance, and these comments coincide with those made about artificiality and superficiality earlier. However, she also argues that accountants are audited, so there is no reason why teachers should not also be audited, demonstrating a personal commitment to PD.

5.3.2 Hannah's interview

Hannah worked at a considerable distance from the other two teachers in the study, and again did not want the interview to take place in her college, so it was carried out in a local coffee shop, but background noise did not prove to be a problem. For similar reasons to those described above, there was again a gap of approximately twelve months between the classroom recordings and this interview. Hannah is an American teacher, married with a child, and has 12 years of teaching experience, many of those in primary education in the USA. She has been in the Middle East for a few years, and is considering her next move. As with Theresa and Ophelia, Hannah tends to think carefully before she replies, especially when she considers the point to be an important one. She uses half second pauses for emphasis, with longer intervals when she is gathering her thoughts, and seems keen to ensure that her ideas have been clearly presented.

Preparing a model lesson

Asked what she does in order to prepare for an observed lesson, Hannah's reply in Extract 5.37 is somewhat lengthy and considered:

Extract 5.37

Hannah   Well I think the biggest difference for me is that I actually put aside all administrative tasks, all the other little things that come in like emails, all the little 'to do' lists, and um I actually take time (0.5) to just focus on that lesson and plan … I actually (0.5) I just sit down and focus on what I (0.5) what my= beliefs are in terms of (0.5) what I want to do with this these students, what I've been working towards, but maybe not as successfully because I haven't really been planning …… enough for it (0.5) or following up or really looking at individuals in the class (1) and I start thinking about the individuals (0.5) as well as the whole group (0.5) I start thinking about exactly how do I want to lay out every minute of the class (0.5) ah thinking about what I've either done the day before or what I want to do the day before building up to it (0.5) and um (0.5) what things I want to normally follow up with and emphasise during that time so that an observer coming in (0.5) doesn't actually just have a picture of what's happening during that specific fifty five minute period, (0.5) but they sort of see= what er what the students have been working towards … So I would say that that's perhaps the biggest difference is the amount (0.5) er the amount of time and the level of thought that goes into planning for that= (turns 10 and 12)

Hannah emphasises the fact that she avoids administrative tasks during a model lesson, which suggests that she normally sees such content as being significant. Additionally,

she refers to putting other work aside, which suggests that she sees the planning as being necessary in that a lesson is created that is suitable for the learners involved, especially when she refers to laying out every minute of the class, and emphasising particular activities. Hannah also makes the point that it is important that an observer is aware what is going on in the classroom above and beyond the fifty minute time frame and believes that she may be clearer and empathise more with the students.

When asked about who she is planning the lesson for, she clarifies that it is done so the observer can see how the lesson fits into the curriculum, and how it meets the needs of the learners. Her previous experience was working in primary schools, but at tertiary level she finds that there are so many daily administrative tasks (turn 16) that she enjoys the opportunity given by the model lesson to simply focus on her teaching. When asked if the observed lesson would be the same as that normally taught, Hannah replies (Extract 5.38):

Extract 5.38

Hannah   I would say not (0.5) not a completely new lesson (0.5) but … really enhancing the some of the things that are working **well** within the course and also so that the supervisor has a chance to see (0.5) the best in the students (0.5) because often they have to um be responsible for a large number of students … and they need a chance to see what it is that makes these students work well= … if I had a class that there there is having great difficulty (0.5) I want them to see a variety of activities … and I would provide (1.0) possibly um a bit more scaffolding to it, or you know extra support (0.5) and looking more at the individual needs (turns 22 and 24)

So it is her practice to present a range of enhanced effective activities to the observer, although her focus seems to be to show the students off to their best advantage. From the comments about breakdowns it seems that she has been observed by a supervisor because she was having difficulty with a class, although this does not seem to overly concern her. Her final comments do not make it clear whether she means that she would just provide more scaffolding for the observed lesson, or ensure that a model lesson contained extra scaffolding.

5.3.2.2   *The model lesson*

Discussing the effects of observation, Hannah cites the example of school visits where she has seen teachers 'performing' (turn 68) and putting on a 'show' (turn 74) when there are visitors to the classroom, suggesting that the lesson on display has clear links with dramatic presentation (Appel, 2007). However, she says that she much prefers observation to writing reflections, which she describes as 'an exercise in pen pushing' (turn 84) and would prefer to spend her time marking and providing student feedback. She sees observations as giving her the opportunity to 'interact verbally with the supervisor (0.5) and to have shared ownership' (turn 88) of the students (Kyraiacou, 1997), which suggests a positive attitude. In this hypothetical conversation with the supervisor about the observation, she says (Extract 5.39):

Extract 5.39

Hannah   … these are not **my** students, these are **our** students (0.5) and (1) and um this is what

                  I'm dealing with and where I feel it's going really well and how I'm trying to use these

                  things with the curriculum (0.5) and um the constraints of it and how I'm trying to um

                  you know (1) still allow for individual differences and interests what do you think you

                  know and what did you see that went well and what did I miss and what could we um

                  what could we improve on that and how do **you** feel the students are reacting because

                  you saw if from a different vantage point (turn 90)

From the way this conversation is described it does sound as though she has spoken about this with a supervisor, and Hannah obviously feels very strongly that the students are a shared responsibility, which coincides with supervisor views. She sees the model lesson as providing an ideal opportunity for them to fulfil their part of the working relationship, and indicate places where the transfer of knowledge could occur even more effectively.

5.3.2.3   *The observer and the feedback*

In Hannah's response to the question about the difference made to an observed lesson by the identity of the observer, she cites the example of a previous supervisor that she was very comfortable with, who had a similar background to her own (turn 30). However, she currently has a supervisor with a business background, and says that she would do more 'think aloud, hyperexplanations' for him, and a 'little bit of a mini lesson at the same time' (turn 34). This follows along similar lines to Ophelia's comments

about having an observer from another discipline and feeling that her skills are superior to theirs. They both feel that they need to ensure that they make key aspects of the lesson very clear to the supervisor, but if all observers were subject to an effective training programme (Kyriacou, 1997) then this would reduce the problem.

If Hannah was being observed by a colleague, she might engage them in informal conversation during the lesson, or if a colleague wants to find out more about a specific activity that Hannah has tried, then she will gear her lesson toward that, suggesting that she has a great deal of confidence in her own teaching.

5.3.4   Teacher interviews: conclusion

All three teachers providing case studies seem to have different beliefs and approaches relating to the model lesson (Table 19). Theresa really dislikes them, and would prefer to be evaluated by her students, Ophelia prefers them to other forms of teacher appraisal, and Hannah sees them as an opportunity to demonstrate good teaching, and receive feedback from experts.

Table 19: Summary of teacher expectations of observation

	Theresa	Ophelia	Hannah
Preparation and planning	*Prefers familiar contexts and has a 'model' model lesson*	*Does not like planning – sees lesson as a 'microscopic' representation of her teaching*	*Takes preparation and planning very seriously*
	Uses a range of interaction	*Favours group interaction*	*Variety is important*
The model lesson	*Feels 'under the microscope'*	*If official, feels under pressure*	*Takes a lot of time and a higher level of thinking*
	Likes to use lessons that have previously been successful	*Artificial: not a real reflection of teaching ability*	*Sees it as performing and putting on a show*
	Prefers other forms of teacher appraisal	*Prefers observations*	*Sees observation as a chance to interact with the supervisor*
The observer and the feedback	*Observers have a critical function*	*Had a supervisor who was not ELT, so more preparation required*	*Current supervisor is not ELT, so more preparation required: hyperexplanations*
	Feedback invariably includes criticism	*Views feedback as 'chit chat'*	*Feedback is a chance to share experiences with supervisor*

In terms of preparation and planning for model lessons, all teachers deem this necessary to varying extents. Hannah seems almost affronted by the need for observation, positioning herself as a teacher who really empathises with the students, and implying that they are not necessary. Her lengthy focus during the early part of the discussion is on the detailed way in which she approaches lesson preparation, and her extensive consideration of individual student needs in order to do so demonstrates her pragmatic approach. Her comments about avoiding administrative tasks (Extract 5.37) are interesting, as many of her class activities do indeed seem to have an administrative focus, although they are packaged more creatively, perhaps linking to her comments about performing (Appel, 2007).

Theresa favours tried and tested methodology for use in model lessons, incorporating a range of interaction, and employs several parameters when selecting an appropriate lesson. She likes it to be one that she has taught previously, that the students enjoy, linking with her comments about knowing her audience. Theresa is aware that, in her context, some IT work should be included, as well as student interaction, pairwork, groupwork, instructions and concept checking. Her previous experience seems to have had a considerable impact on the way in which she views model lessons, particularly her DELTA observations. The criteria to be included in a model lesson suggested by Theresa and Ophelia appear to have clear links with DELTA training, although each approaches these in a different way.

Ophelia also has a lesson format that she favours where her students engage in different group activities, and reports that observers seem to like that; but is unhappy that this is a 'microscopic' representation of her teaching. This theme continues, as

during the lesson Theresa also feels she is 'put under the microscope', and one of the ways that she attempts to minimise this is by preparing the students in advance. Ophelia also reports that she feels under pressure during an appraisal observation, seeing it as being artificial and not a true representation of her teaching abilities.

The teachers have conflicting views about the value of appraisal observation: Theresa prefers other forms of appraisal, such as teacher evaluation, Ophelia prefers observation, and Hannah sees the observation as a chance to interact with the supervisor. It seems that she views observation as a tool: it can either serve as a showcase for the way in which she interprets the curriculum, as a way of informing her peers, or a method of demonstrating practical difficulties to her supervisor. As such she confirms an interest in reflective practice.

In terms of feedback, Theresa indicates that she believes negative feedback after an observation to be almost inevitable, as this is an evaluative situation. As a pragmatist, she is apparently prepared to take such feedback and decide whether or not it merits changes in practice. She also likes to know something about the person who will be carrying out the observation, and therefore about their preferences with regard to classroom methodology. Although the identity of the supervisor present during her model lesson is unknown, it does seem that her expectations as to what is expected in this context were put into practice. However, Theresa's feelings about the observation process seem to be ambiguous on occasion: although she reports that she believes her observers have been qualified to observe her, she still seems to question the validity of the feedback that she receives.

Ophelia also expects negative feedback, and her comments suggest that she might view the process more favourably if the observer visited her classroom more often. As such, the implication is that she does not object to the observation itself, but does object to the way in which it is carried out. She has several issues relating to appraisal observation, and does not set a great deal of store by the post-lesson feedback she receives, as she believes that the clear aim of an observer is to send the teacher away with something to improve upon. This appears to relate directly to the fact that she does not believe that her current supervisor is sufficiently qualified or experienced to be observing her, as she is from a different discipline.

Hannah also has difficulties with a non-ELT supervisor, but her biggest concern is the way, in her college, that the results of appraisal observations and student faculty evaluations are converted into 'numbers' that define a teacher's effectiveness in the classroom situation. She claims that this is mainly concern for her colleagues, rather than herself, but seems to find the current volume of teacher appraisal overwhelming, distracting her from her main purpose of teaching English.

Theresa sees her model lesson as an opportunity to use a technique that is deemed to have the potential of success in an observation context. However, there could also be great dangers attached to such prepared and rehearsed model lessons. Theoretically it is equally possible for a teacher who lacks competence to have one such lesson planned and in abeyance to be brought out solely for the purpose of teacher appraisal. If a lesson was taught as such, this would provide a deviant case, as similar techniques could be used for the purpose of appeasing the observer, rather than demonstrating good pedagogic practice. Katy (the supervisor) seems to recognise

dangers like this, but in terms of repeatedly teaching from the book, rather than preparing an effective model lesson in order to mask this particular pedagogic practice.

Teachers position themselves, whether consciously or unconsciously, in various discourses (Moore, 2004). Theresa seems to anchor her teaching methodology in pragmatism, Hannah sees herself as a reflective practitioner, whilst Ophelia is more eclectic in that her beliefs encompass both camps. However, their expectations of the appraisal observation process seem to be subject to washback from previous encounters with both initial teacher training and ongoing development (Thornbury, 1996), in that this informs their choice of approach.

5.4   The students

No discussion of the events that take place during a model lesson would be complete without the inclusion of information from the perspective of the students involved in the interaction. Both teachers and supervisors/observers have discussed the way in which they either react to, or expect the students to react to them. One of the key coping strategies by teachers prior to a model lesson seems to be that they inform the students that they are going to be observed, as, amongst other reasons, this ensures that they arrive in the lesson on time, and that the teacher appears to be well organised.

5.4.1 From the teacher's perspective

During the paired interview with Theresa and Ophelia they are asked about student reaction to model lessons. Theresa introduces the concept of the altered response of the students in turn 14, when she mentions that she would tell them that the supervisor is 'coming to see you'. When asked if she would inform the students every time, her response (turn 16, Extract 5.40) is:

Extract 5.40

Theresa   I would! And so they are (0.5) they are different too! So it's not just you that's different

            it's the students who are different. And sometimes that's a positive thing but sometimes

            it's a negative thing 'cos sometimes they get so afraid of saying something in front of

            the Supervisor that your interactive activities go away out the window

Presumably she makes this reference to interactive activities because she feels that the presence of the observer limits the ability of the students to focus on any activity where they are required to work together. Ophelia agrees with Theresa's claims that the students are different during an observation, and in turns 17 and 19 she adds supporting evidence (Extract 5.41):

Extract 5.41

Ophelia   The students are too frightened to say anything.[laughing] I had a case last year where I
           was being observed and because the Supervisor was in there and I hadn't said to them
           (0.5) she just appeared and they looked very uncomfortable (0.5) they thought she was
           there to, to observe them and they wouldn't shut up, it was 'Ophelia! Ophelia! Ophelia!
           Ophelia!' every few minutes…and it [laughing] was a nightmare!

Hannah also says in her interview that she always forewarns her students of forthcoming

observations, because if it is a male observer the local culture means that some of them

like to cover their faces (turn 44). She also tells them that 'people could drop in at any

point' so that they are ready, and says that they often get excited and are welcoming and

much better than they normally are in class, with 'fewer, um, conversations going on in

Arabic', and less 'checking mobile phones'. They are 'on their best behaviour' (turn

46). Hannah says of her students (Extract 5.42):

Extract 5.42

Hannah   And I think they think that (0.5) they're always interested in who's coming in (1) why
          they're coming in (1) and um you know (0.5) are they coming to see me or are they
          coming to you know do they want to see the students do they want to see the teachers
          (0.5) they they're very keen (turn 50)

When asked if the students ever have a negative relationship with a supervisor/observer, Hannah says that she has not experienced this, and that student counselling is so effective in her college that it would be unlikely that things ever got to that stage. In response to a question about disruptive students being sent out of classrooms prior to pending observations, she responds that she has heard of this, but does not think it could happen in her environment (turn 66).

5.4.2   From the perspective of the supervisors

Katy and Ereberto do not comment on student expectations of model lessons. However, when asked about the students' view of appraisal observation, Andrew sees this from a purely administrative perspective. He holds the view that the supervisor's knowledge of the students' welfare and pastoral wellbeing contributes to respect in the classroom.   It is interesting to note that he also believes that teachers approach observations with the students in 'quite a low-key way' (turn 31), particularly as the teachers themselves seem to have identified several reasons for informing the students in advance. This would seem to suggest a paradox where in order to be judged as being 'professional' a teacher should inform the students in advance that an observation is about to take place, but without appearing to have done so. In the same turn (Extract 5.43) Andrew goes on to say that:

Extract 5.43

Andrew   ...sometimes if the line manager has a pastoral role with the students that could impact

on the observation, because the students have perhaps been dealt with by that manager

in um (0.5) a punitive fashion for absence or lateness or deadlines or all the other things

that go along with managing an institution

He would expect to see students paying attention to the lesson, and when asked what it would mean to him if they were not, his six second pause before he starts speaking suggests he is thinking about his reply very carefully. He would not choose to observe a lesson where he knew that the students were not responding, and his main point seems to be that prior notification of such a situation would be very important. The emphasis provided in his answer would suggest that he has had this experience, and has taken measures to ensure that this will not be repeated.

5.4.3   From the perspective of the students themselves

The final transcript of interview data used in this research is the taped recording of a group of six Middle Eastern college graduates who are now head teachers of local schools and engaged in postgraduate education. They have been able to progress relatively rapidly in their jobs as their government is positively encouraging the employment of nationals in key posts, and this means that they have previous experience of observation from every perspective. They began as pupils at school where their teachers were observed, went on to be students undergoing the same process, then

became student teachers and teachers who had appraisal observations, finally becoming observers themselves as they took up positions as head teachers of their own schools. They are therefore in a unique position in that they are able to view the appraisal observation process in the Middle East from all perspectives.

During the discussion the head teachers often all talked at once or completed each other's sentences, so individual contributions are rarely discernible. As they are NNS, their English is not always grammatically accurate, but ideas are communicated effectively. When asked how the pupils react when they observe the teachers in their schools they respond in Extract 5.44:

Extract 5.44

Turn 27	I	So going to the students then, what do the students (0.5) how do they react, do you think, when you observe?
Turn 28	Ss	They be quiet (1) they thought that the supervisor come to observe them not the teacher
Turn 29	I	Aah so do the teachers tell them that?
Turn 30	Ss	Yes (1) my feelings when I was a student also I think that they come to observe us
Turn 31	I	So what happens when they go into the classroom, then? How do the students react then?
Turn 32	Ss	They act very quietly (0.5) 'cos you know the Principal [laugh]
Turn 33	I	So do you think they they answer more questions or less questions when they're being observed? (0.5) If they think that the person the observer is coming to watch them (0.5) the pupils (0.5) are they quieter or noisier?
Turn 34	Ss	Mmm quieter

Turn 35   I   Quieter (0.5) you think they're quieter

Turn 36   Ss   Because they're sharing er different ways (0.5) they're very nice (0.5) they try to do

Turn 37   I   Yes

Turn 38   Ss   Yes but some students also if they like the teacher they er try to help the teacher

In Extract 5.44, turn 30 the teachers confirm that, as students, when their teachers were observed (in their tertiary colleges in the Middle East) they felt that the supervisors were observing them. The suggestion that they are quiet because the observer has stature in the institution (turn 32) is interesting, particularly in the light of the fact that both teachers and supervisors seem to believe that they are working with the students. The interviewees continue to add a new perspective to the way in which the students behave in a model lesson, suggesting that they may be being 'quieter' (turn 34) and 'nice' (turn 36) because they want to help the teacher. Asked if they think students learn more in a model or a pedagogic lesson, the head teachers reply that when they were teachers, the lesson was 'very nice' without the supervisor (turn 46) because the students did not 'feel shy' (turn 48) and would ask if they did not understand. However they all agree that if a teacher cannot teach well in front of the supervisor, then they do not have good skills (turn 54). It is important to remember that they are basing their judgements on their own experiences as teachers, as well as those of being learners.

Participant reactivity has been covered by several authors (Sideris, 1998) and is closely connected with the poor reliability estimates that observation has, and he argues that this can be reduced by decreasing the obtrusive way in which the observation is carried out and ensuring that there is no eye contact or interaction with the students. However, from the evidence above it seems that such techniques might have little or no

effect with these particular students, as they are operating on a completely different basis.

5.5 Summary

Each stakeholder in the appraisal observation process has different expectations. The institutional management provide the documentation and policies, and look to teacher appraisal to guarantee that the staff they employ are effective in the classroom: if they are not, then the removal of 'poor-quality' teaching staff has been anticipated. The way that observation is viewed depends on the institutional ethos, and one of the main problems highlighted by a supervisor is the need for observer training, with which the teachers tend to agree. Institutional literature is aimed at teachers and supervisors, but it is interesting to note that the only reference to the students is that teacher evaluations will take place: they have no role in model lessons.

Supervisors/observers have clear expectations as to what they want to see and why they want to see it in a model lesson, but whilst adhering to organisational policy their preferences seem to vary significantly according to the individual concerned and their teaching orientation (Moore, 2004). However, they all expect to see a model lesson that has required additional preparation, and do not seem to dispute the fact that they are expected to judge the teacher's performance, presumably because this is college policy. Andrew, the directive supervisor, has clear and specific requirements of an observed lesson, and mentions the punitive aspect of appraisal and teachers' weaknesses, also referring to patterns of poor practice. Katy and Ereberto, however, only refer to these

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aspects in the context of giving the teacher the opportunity to improve on their performance, suggesting that there are clear differences in orientation between the three supervisors. Katy's main dislike in an observed lesson would be to see activities from 'Lessons To Go' or something that demonstrated a 'British Council mindset'. Ereberto is also resistant to International House methodology, which suggests that his and Katy's view of a suitable model lesson could be directly opposed to that of Andrew, and which certainly has implications for the teachers they will observe.

The teachers are aware that model lessons incur additional preparation, and expect to have to display their teaching strengths and a range of classroom activities and techniques. Their feelings about observation range from negative to positive, but they all take it very seriously and have an awareness of the OP (Labov, 1972). They identify several problem areas in the appraisal process, not least of which is the fact that they are observed by supervisors without ELT backgrounds, which means that model lessons require additional emphasis ('hyper-explanations'). Again their perspectives differ considerably, Theresa and Ophelia having favoured lesson formats, whilst Hannah wants to show her students at their best in a 'performance'.

The students are important in the appraisal observation process, as its purpose is to ensure that they have competent teachers. They are mentioned by one supervisor in terms of the negative impact that his presence may have, and by another in relation to complaints that students may make about their teachers. However, being in direct contact, it seems that the teachers have more to say about the students, being aware that the learners can make or break a model lesson, so they are generally forewarned. Even if they are specifically told that it is otherwise, students feel that observers are there to

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judge them during a model lesson, which, in fact, they are. However, this also suggests that the system is breaking down somewhere because learners also behave atypically (Labov, 1972) which has implications in terms of the veracity of appraisal observations.

Therefore, from the perspective of all the parties involved it does seem the expectation is that a model lesson is a special occasion, and that the teacher will be demonstrating a range of skills and techniques in order to fulfil certain institutional and supervisory criteria whilst the students pay careful attention. This confirms the findings of the previous chapter, but it is now important to establish reasons for the differences in perspective of individual teachers and observers, and discover how these variations impact on the appraisal process.

6.0 DISCUSSION: LESSONS THAT CAN BE DRAWN FROM THIS RESEARCH

This study uses transcripts of model and pedagogic lessons combined with teacher and supervisor interviews to establish what happens to teachers' behaviour when they are observed in the classroom. In this context observation is teacher appraisal: a process that is set up by the parent institution in order to establish whether or not teachers are maintaining pedagogic standards, and, to use basic terminology, teaching the students properly. If the students do not learn, or are not seen to be learning, then the teacher is not considered to be effective, which results in job loss or transfer. Appraisal is not simple (Bartlett, 1996) and the process of establishing whether or not teachers are effective is the responsibility of their supervisors who arrange regular appraisal observations. All parties involved (including the students, who are not consulted during the process) expect model lessons to differ from pedagogic lessons, and this appears to be the case.

Observation seems to be axiomatic, and roles in such appraisal are clearly defined. To a greater or lesser extent both teachers and supervisors/observers expect model lessons to be significant representations of teaching abilities, although the observer focuses on the low inference factors of the lesson (Wragg, 1999), as these are directly observable. The high inference factors (i.e. the pedagogic decisions that the teacher makes during the lesson and the development of the ongoing interaction between teacher and students) do not usually form a part of the observation record, even though

they may be a real representation of the teacher's abilities. However, the modes (Walsh, 2006) that a teacher incorporates in a lesson seem to be similar whether or not there is an observer present, suggesting that if these could be included in the feedback, they might be more relevant to the appraisal.

Even though a pre-observation discussion may not take place, as a general rule the observer provides oral and documented feedback to the teacher (Freeman et al, 2009) after the appraisal with judgements about the lesson. As a result of the appraisal observation, decisions are made about the teacher's individual career path, and, if they are fortunate, this forms part of the teacher's PD (Bailey et al, 2001). Alternatively, the outcome may be punitive (Sahakian and Stockton, 1996).

Therefore, paradoxically, the observable elements of a model lesson may well be the factors least likely to be representative of a teacher's pedagogic practice. It is important to consider whether or not this dichotomy can be resolved in a way that makes appraisal observation a positive process for all those involved, and, as such, useful lessons can be learned from this research.

This study focuses on teachers, and Cooper and Olson write that 'teacher identity is … embedded within the larger historical and cultural story of education' (1996:83). They argue that there is a tension between systems and individuals, and continue:

> The real problem arises when the multiplicity of meanings is suppressed to take on a ''prescribed' role. This prescribed role often entails suppressing the personal voice in favour of an objective and distanced voice. In such cases individuals lacking power to define the situation are left with little alternative other than to assume the prescribed role. In other words the dominant person or group does not need to take the role of the other, while the subordinate must

do so or drop out of the system. If we ignore the situation, and the extent to which traditional models … delimit who we are, we do little other than perpetuate outdated views (ibid)

This quote seems to describe appraisal observations very well. Traditionally the system (management and management representatives) has caused teachers' personal voices to be suppressed by expecting them to behave in a certain way during model lessons: if they do not, then they must 'drop out' (ibid). The resulting continuation of views fixed in the past is not a desirable situation, and if this is not to perpetuate, then major changes are required in the way that teacher appraisal is viewed and put into practice.

6.1   Current observation practices

At present most teachers enter the ELT profession with a history of observation behind them, much of which may have taken place in a constructive (possibly negative) context during their years of teacher training. They have a learned expectation that the observer will make judgements (Bennet, 1992; Williams, 1989) and identify 'faults' in their teaching, based on previous experience of the observation process (Copland, 2008). It is also often the case that teachers are observed more frequently during the earlier stages of employment contracts, which may stimulate a cognitive return to their past experiences of appraisal (Lortie, 1975).

Observation is, by its very nature, a paradox. As Labov (1972) argues [1.2], by introducing an observer into a situation we automatically alter the very behaviour that we are trying to observe, therefore there is a very strong argument that a lesson with an

observer present will be pedagogically different from one without any additional individuals in the classroom [2.4.5]. This also supports the theory that a teacher may behave atypically regardless of the identity of the observer, or the purpose of the observation [2.4], although there may be perceived degrees of adjustment depending on familiarity. For example, Samph's (1976) research findings suggested that there is an increase in praise, use of questions, and teacher attention to student responses during observed lessons, although these findings were perhaps not endorsed in this research as his exact method of data collection was not replicated.

An observed lesson therefore becomes one in which the teacher's aim is to avoid negative feedback as much as possible [2.4.5.3], and he/she can do this by using the perceived models of teaching that were effective and worked well during teacher training lesson observations [2.5.3]. Teachers devise a methodology for observed lessons that incorporates their own developed concept of a good teacher, based on personal teaching orientation [2.5.2], and their perceived understanding as to what their observer would consider to be best practice [2.4.7] .As the teacher becomes more experienced, s/he incorporates these techniques on a less overt and formal level, but still adopts the chameleon strategy (Handal and Lauvas, 1997), teaching in a way that will provoke minimal negative feedback from the observer [2.4.5.3]. It is also probable that any observer in their classroom will have a similar impact, and propel teachers into 'model teaching' mode [2.5.1].

The observers (supervisors, external visitors and peers) generally have an education history based in the very teaching profession that they are observing [2.4.7], therefore share the values and practices exhibited by the teacher during the observation.

The greatest danger seems to exist where there are no shared values, but teachers cope with this anomaly by attempting to find out what type of pedagogic practice the observer favours, or enhancing their own lesson, and adapting their classroom methodology accordingly [5.3.1.3, 5.3.2.3].

Observer comments suggest that they positively expect teachers to behave in a way that exhibits good practice, but do not seem to give a great deal of credence to the fact that the teacher observed may be behaving atypically [5.2.4]. They are, not unreasonably, more focussed on their own role in the observation process [5.2.1.3, 5.3.1.3]. Student input suggests yet another view of the observed lesson, which is based on the fact that learners see themselves as the appraisal focus [5.4.3], and teacher interview data appears to support their view [5.4.2].

Analysis of the actual lesson structure from the model and pedagogic data [3.0] suggests that lessons become more formulaic when an observer is present, in terms of use of typical frameworks, and signposting is clearer [4.2.7]. The level of administrative tasks is also reduced during the model lesson, as presumably this is not seen as a key part of teaching [4.2.7.1], and can be perceived to be monotonous for both teacher and observer. With respect to the students, there seems to be far less ongoing discussion in the L1 between learners during model lessons, and the teacher becomes the focus of attention: the IRF pattern tends to predominate during teacher/student exchanges [4.2.7.2]. However, bearing in mind that these are ELT lessons, there seems to be little difference in the type of language used or the length and complexity of utterances between the two lesson types [4.2.7.2].

These comments are made on the basis of research carried out in the early 21st century, and from the literature it appears that, overall, the situation has changed very little in the last few decades, either in mainstream education or ELT. Observation does have positive features [2.4.6] but there seem to be many areas where techniques could be carefully reviewed and repositioned in order to involve all participants in a fair and equal construction of classroom reality. Therefore, in terms of the way in which appraisal observations are perceived, there appear to be two possible options: either all parties concerned agree that both process and context are artificial, but continue with existing practices, or there is a paradigm shift incorporating the received wisdom of the many practitioners and academics who have identified difficulties and posited changes over the years.

6.2   Positive features of appraisal observation

Organisations favour appraisal observation because it allows them to maintain contact with the teacher in the classroom, giving access to teaching in practice (Wragg, 1999). From the data it seems that supervisors do not seem to view observations in terms of whether or not they are an effective way to judge teaching quality, but, regardless of their orientation, they do see them as organisational tools which help them to maintain overall control in their teachers' classrooms [5.2.1.4, 5.2.2.2, 5.2.3.3].

Some teachers appear more pragmatic in their view of model lessons, seeing them as a necessary evil [5.3.1.1], but the most positive opinion to arise from this research is Hannah's claim that they provide an opportunity to interact with the

supervisor to solve any problems that exist in her classroom [5.3.2.3]. Concurring with the view that observation can be a rewarding experience (Barber et al, 1995; Bartlett, 1996; Shinkfield and Stufflebeam, 1995), the following discussion entitled 'Observed vs. non-observed lessons' was written by one of the early research participants, Juan, an American, summarising appraisal from his perspective as a teacher:

Everyone has always felt a bit uneasy at one time or another in their teaching career when they are given the news that someone will observe their lesson. Why does this small intrusion make some teachers make a special lesson plan for the event that otherwise might not have occurred?

My personal experience with observed lessons has been positive, however I know that I must perform well because this is in effect, an evaluation of my performance as a teacher. Preparing a lesson becomes second nature after you have been teaching the same level year in and out. This holds true for most subject matters, not only English. The 'observed lesson' creates a setting which most teachers create a very well-rounded lesson that brings out all the whistles, bells and stops.

Ironically, the observed lessons are the types of lessons that we should be teaching on a daily basis. This is not usually possible due to many other duties that a teacher encounters. Administrative work, meetings, writing course materials and many other disruptions greatly take away from creative lesson planning. When we prepare for an 'observed lesson', we drop everything and focus only on that one lesson. This allows us to finely tune all aspects of the materials to be presented in that lesson.

The end result, a brilliantly designed lesson that benefits the students, the teacher and the supervisor. The students of course are on their best behavior also which adds to the meticulously planned lesson. After an observed lesson I find myself excited again about really well thought

out lessons. Not to say that careful thought isn't used for 'non-observed lessons', but just not to the extent that it should be if we had the time.

We are all good teachers and some even excellent. Observed lessons allow us to experience the 'perfect world lesson plan' and to know that our regular lessons benefit from the observation from the discoveries we make trying a new idea and from seeing your students completely focused on the lesson. (Juan, April 2004)

Juan is indeed very positive about the benefits of observation, expressing the view that model lessons should be taught on a daily basis, but that this is not always possible. He is a person-oriented teacher (Garton, 2004), meaning that his main focus is on individual students in his class, and his views coincide with those of Hannah, in terms of the way he wants the model lesson to proceed, and his irritation with administration. However, Juan does not seem to question why the students might be 'completely focussed', an understanding of which might perhaps lead to a more negative construction of events.

6.3   The model lesson

It is generally posited in the literature (Richards and Lockhart, 1996; Woodward, 2001) that English language lessons follow certain recognisable formats, depending on the skill and/or language items that are being addressed. For many teachers, these frameworks are seen as something that they should be aiming for in every lesson [6.2] but, as demonstrated in this research, it is only the model lessons which tend to follow recognisable formats [4.2.7]. As they are considerably outnumbered by pedagogic lessons, it seems that typical lessons might be much rarer than has previously been

considered to be the case (ibid). Therefore pressure on teachers to emulate them in model lessons could be considerably reduced, as it is unlikely that they are truly representative of normal pedagogic behaviour.

One of the key points emerging from the data is that it is often difficult to 'pigeonhole' language lessons, and arrange them to fit exactly into specified patterns or time frames. For example, recordings received from research participants were planned to be of one lesson of specified duration, but whilst this was almost achieved in terms of the model lessons, pedagogic lessons displayed a much wider range of recording times. This would seem to suggest an additional degree of artificiality in the model lesson, in that the teacher is effectively cramming in a range of activities and/or tasks that might usually be of longer (or shorter) duration. Pedagogic lessons have the option of over-running, whilst model lessons do not, which, in turn, has further implications concerning the viability of the lesson the observer is actually appraising.

Saskia and Emer spoke in their interview about the 'Lamb Chop Theory', where, if a small amount of key information has been transferred to the students during a pedagogic lesson then the teacher has done well, and Allwright (1989) identifies data along similar lines. Therefore this highlights another key problem: appraisal observations use a large number of supervisor hours (Bowring-Carr suggests 2.5 hours per teacher per year; 1993) and if some lessons are longer and some shorter it would be almost impossible for observers to plan accordingly, despite the fact that the teaching situation might be less artificial. This would seem to be an argument for increased self-appraisal, or approaches involving the learners themselves [6.6], so that the actual learning phase of the lesson could be taken into account.

The appraisal situation may be becoming even more complex. Saskia reports that one of the more recent requirements of appraisal in her context is that, in addition to observations, teachers prepare a portfolio over the academic year including a video of one of their lessons. Although this might appear to be an effective approach, the very act of taking students to a special 'video classroom' or introducing a complex camera apparatus into their lesson would seem to be invoking the Observer's Paradox [1.2] at its worst: even if the teacher is able to respond 'normally' this will certainly have an impact on the students' behaviour. Bartlett (1996) refers to the deprofessionalisation that top-down appraisal and performance indicators cause, and it would certainly seem that by adding the pressure of video observations to an already full appraisal schedule, PD decreases, and pragmatic teacher survival techniques take over.

O'Leary (2006) and Wragg (1999) discuss the focus of assessment criteria on low inference or low order factors, concentrating on those things which can be directly observed, but not on the way that learning takes place in the classroom. It seems that in a model lesson, both teachers and students are aware of this fact, but that the observer is either unaware, or not prepared to accept that this is the case. O'Leary goes on to say (ibid:195):

> It is the more complex high inference or high order skills that really determine the effectiveness of a teacher's performance in the classroom. That is to say, the types of judgements and decisions that are based on complex inductive reasoning, such as knowing when and when not to deviate from our lesson plan or when and how to change the group dynamics of a class in order to maximise the learning experience. The importance of these skills cannot be emphasised enough as they allow teachers to react to, and deal with, a wide array of intricate situations that arise in the classroom.

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Unfortunately such skills cannot be observed during an appraisal: the only way that an observer is going to be aware as to what is going on is if s/he has discussed the lesson in depth with the teacher beforehand, including relevant background information. When a teacher addresses group dynamics in the classroom, this is not usually something that can be identified from a lesson plan, so the observer has no way of knowing what is happening unless s/he is very experienced. However, assuming that this event is noticed, if the teacher is congratulated for addressing the issue, this may well sound patronising. Alternatively, if the teacher is 'constructively criticised' for the action, they may feel that the observer does not understand the situation, whilst being reluctant to say so [5.3.1.3].

It is certainly true to say that the observation sheets used as examples in this study (Appendices A and M) do not contain significant criteria relating to high order skills, so it must be assumed that these have not been included because they are not observable. Therefore, even though the model lesson may be a representation of a teacher's behaviour in the classroom in relation to the modes s/he employs, the observation record does not reflect the decisions made by the teacher and recorded in the interaction (SETT: Walsh, 2006). It is therefore not an accurate representation of what actually took place.

As far as teacher education is concerned, it seems that model lessons have value in that they can be used by new entrants to the profession in order to demonstrate that they are aware of key pedagogic skills and the way in which they could be used to greatest effect. However, the danger of such an approach is that this concept stays with teachers, and as soon as they are observed, for any reason, they go into 'bells and

whistles' mode. Therefore beginning teachers need to be aware that they should work

with the approaches and methodologies that suit them best (Richards and Rogers, 1984).

6.3.1   The feedback

Although feedback is not a direct part of this study, the results of every appraisal

observation are fed back to someone, whether it be the institution or the teacher or both,

so it is a crucial part of the process, and identified as such by both teachers and

supervisors. However, O'Leary claims that:

> feedback provided in assessed observations is unlikely to improve the overall quality of a
>
> teacher's classroom performance. The underlying flaw of such an approach seems to emanate
>
> from the unequal distribution of decision-making through the process of assessment and is further
>
> compounded by the failure to involve learners in this process (2006:197).

Although the participant supervisors are very positive about the feedback and the

usefulness of judging lessons in order to inform future practice (Bennet, 1992), it seems

that the teachers agree with O'Leary's sentiments. This is despite the views of a range

of authors (i.e. Flanders,1966; Freeman, 1982) [2.4.2] who believe that the

categorisation of classroom events in order to provide useful feedback to the teacher is

paramount. O'Leary's feelings about the improvements in teaching quality are shared

by other authors (Eken, 2001; Garton and Richards, 2008; Pennington, 1984; Tennant,

2006), and they provide ways in which this negative perspective can be altered [2.4.5.3].

However, research evidence suggests that why and how feedback is carried out is vital

(Copland, 2008; Kurtoglu Hooton, 2008). As teachers tend to disregard any initial

praise during this meeting as they await the negative judgements [5.3.1.3], suggesting that perhaps it would be more beneficial to the participants if constructive feedback was delivered first.

The observer's determination as to what constitutes best practice must necessarily be subjective to some degree (Good and Brophy, 2003), but s/he is the custodian and currently it is their view that counts. Teachers may therefore feel that they are redundant, and the feedback has been deemed to serve no useful purpose before it has even taken place, as with Theresa and Ophelia [5.3.1.3]. Even in the case of teachers like Juan [6.2] it seems that he is already aware of the feedback that he will receive, therefore its value is questionable. An overall improvement in the appraisal process in terms of involving both teacher and observer at every stage (pre-, during and post-observation) seems vital, so that it can be viewed by participants as having a constructive purpose. This should mean that the feedback session would represent something of real value in terms of PD and relationships between all the parties involved, as this is the culmination of the appraisal process.

Kyriacou (1987) argues that identifying incompetence has a negative impact on teachers who may want to use the feedback to discuss problems, and this is interesting when related to Hannah's perspective [5.3.2.3]. Although she is somewhat more positive in that she sees feedback as an opportunity to reconstruct her lesson with the supervisor, she has had appraisals where the observer does not share her qualifications, and the feedback event is negative and not viewed as relevant to PD. However, she does not seem to see supervisor comments as an identification of incompetence, but rather as an indication of areas needing review, so again the way that feedback is handled by the

observer (Copland, 2008; Kurtoglu Hooton, 2008) would seem to be absolutely crucial to the way in which it is understood by the receiver.

As such, the concept of dialogicism in feedback (Copland and Mann, 2010, forthcoming) would seem to be potentially effective in this context, and already has a rising profile in mainstream education. It is more time-consuming, but the focus on construction of knowledge between teacher and observer 'through collective, reciprocal, supportive and purposeful talk' (ibid:16) means that experiences are shared and developed. This suggests that supervision tending towards Freeman's (1982) definition of non-directive would be most appropriate in this context, but observer training would also be important.

6.4 The observers

The institutional perspective on the appraisal of teachers may be historical, but generally seems to be based on accessible documentation [5.1.1]. However, the use of the institutional instruments, the observers, comes with a range of potential problem areas [2.4.7]. Approaches like Ofsted [2.4.1] seem to be highly unpopular with those involved, so it is important to develop an appraisal methodology that is effective and understood by both teachers and observers.

A key point to make about observation of any kind in the classroom is that the presence of an observer, whatever their identity may be, will impact on the interaction they are observing [1.2, 2.3.2.1]. This research was carried out during appraisal observations, but time and again the literature reminds us that behavioural adjustments

will occur in any context. Even if observers are well-known to the teachers, they are still an unfamiliar presence to the learners, therefore behaviour will be affected, which, in fact, problematises the whole value of observational research. The only possible exception to this might be young learners, who have a low tolerance of ambiguity, but even in this context Blease (1993) argues that they behave differently with an observer present.

There are concerns about observer training in the literature (Delamere, 1986; Kyriacou, 1987; Pennington, 1993; Tilstone, 1988; Walker and Adelman, 2003) but the issue of teachers being observed by supervisors with no experience of relevant pedagogic practice (non-subject specialists, Kyriacou, ibid) would seem to be relatively recent. Andrew was particularly emphatic about this during his interview [5.2.1.3], although it seems to be a vital consideration for any organisation operating a formal appraisal policy. Tilstone (ibid) argues that most professionals need some form of observation training. Although she is not describing ELT, the point she makes is a valid one, as many teachers seem to be unaware as to what an observer actually does during an observation, and it could be argued that the process would seem much more 'user-friendly' if those involved had greater understanding of the system. This is particularly important in the cases cited in this research where teachers are being observed by supervisors who do not have a relevant pedagogic background.

Where observer training is in existence, it can take different forms, some of which might be very useful in an ELT context. For example, in mainstream education in Kent observers are trained to analyse videos of observers who behave badly:

in these examples the observer is late; disturbs the class on entry; interferes with the lesson by talking to the pupils about unrelated matters; is ill-prepared,; wastes time looking for writing materials; and does not treat either pupils or colleagues with respect (Tilstone, 1998:109)

The events in the video are exaggerated, but the ensuing discussion apparently often illustrates how close such scenarios are to the truth. The aim of such material is to teach observers to:

- Be punctual, polite, professional and prepared

- Avoid preconceptions

- Explain to pupils why they are in the classroom

- Agree beforehand on the mode of observation and the degree of the appraiser's involvement in the lesson

All of these factors appear to be basic appraisal concepts, but this research indicates that it is often the case that they do not form part of teacher observations, and the opposite is the case. Therefore this material provides a method of addressing such problems directly.

Another problem identified in the research is that observers can appear to 'pay lip service' to observation as PD (Sheal, 1989:102), in that they see themselves as telling the teachers how to teach effectively, rather than working with them to gain mutual understanding. Although Ereberto, for example, prefers non-directive supervision (Freeman, 1982) and is involved in a range of appraisal scenarios [5.2.3], the workload on the teachers involved suggests that they might adopt a pragmatic approach in order to deal with it, and therefore the PD aspect is diminished. As with all appraisal, a key

problem seems to be the time available, which 'militates against good practice' (Bowring-Carr, 1993:326), and this issue seems to be crucial to future effectiveness.

6.5   The teachers

The main difficulty facing teachers in terms of observations would seem to be the ongoing tension between appraisal and PD. Teachers need to control their own PD (Bailey, 2009), because, as Bailey et al claim:

> People can be subjected to assessment, appraisal and evaluation against their will. But no one can be made to develop. Even if you have to complete a portfolio, you can't be made to develop by doing it. Teachers are too good at faking it. We have to be. We can fake development, and should do so, if someone tries to force us. But we develop as professionals, if, and only if, we choose to (2001:5).

They then, are putting the onus on teachers to choose to develop, whilst suggesting that many teachers fake PD in forced situations, which organisationally arranged appraisal observations could be considered to be. Crookes (1997) argues that ELT administration often has an adverse impact on teachers, and, despite claims that they are professionals, teachers often have much less autonomy than other professions would expect to have. In most professions the idea of an employer sitting for an hour and watching an employee work would not be acceptable [2.6], so it is difficult to comprehend why teachers should be bound to accept this practice. This argues for the importance of a PD alternative, but, bearing in mind the way that ELT is constructed, the political context is always going to be important (Johnston, 1997). Teachers seem to be very aware of such contexts, which bring out their pragmatic instincts: they will adapt to practices accordingly in order to

survive [5.3.1], but seem to be rarely asked for their opinion as to the way in which appraisal should be carried out.

In the ELT profession supervisors are often recruited from the ranks of teachers [2.4.7], but even for teachers who do not gain or want promotion, observation of learners is still an important part of their job. However, unless they are involved in peer observations, teachers do not generally have any experience of this practice. Citing one such teacher, Tilstone writes that 'the opportunity to observe is a rare event. As a teacher I have not had the opportunity to see others teach. It is the best form of learning for me' (1998:161). Surely such comments are an excellent argument for increasing opportunities for teachers to be provided with their own observation practice, thus familiarising both themselves and their learners with the presence of an additional human being in their space, as well as providing excellent opportunities for PD.

To succeed as PD, observations should work to stimulate changes in classroom practice, rather than confirming a teacher in his/her belief of the appropriacy of their own behaviour. Therefore teachers need not only to become more familiar with carrying out observations, but also with the practice of appraisal, in order to gain maximum benefit. However, this involves a considerable stakeholder investment in terms of both teacher and supervisor time. So bearing this in mind, there is also a great deal to be said in favour of a focus on teacher self-appraisal [2.3.2.3], so that the individuals concerned can view an observation as just one facet of this ongoing process. This also means that they can be mentally prepared for any eventuality in terms of performance evaluation, although it is important that personal time is made available for teachers to engage in this particular practice. Clair and Adgar (2000) claim that the aim of teacher-centred PD

is to make them independent of outsiders, providing a social constructivist approach, and that such a system should be based on collective knowledge and experience. Incorporating evidence and reflection (Wallace, 1991) should encourage teachers to feel enabled to take ownership of the process. This sounds very much like an ideal in parts of the current ELT environment, but should be possible as a viable goal for the future: Ereberto seems to be working carefully towards such an approach in his organisational environment, but the other supervisors do not seem to be thinking of appraisal in terms of PD, which suggests that there is a fundamental need to review the reasons for this activity.

As Wang and Day, (2002) argue, the key ingredients of effective teacher development are linked to teacher observation. They go on to say that:

> If principals and supervisors are willing to … shift their perceptions of classroom observations from a means of teacher evaluation to a tool to promote teacher development, they are likely to make participatory roles available to teachers in the process of supervision and evaluation (ibid:18)

Therefore it seems that there is something of a consensus that in order to make observations more 'user-friendly', teacher PD should be a fundamental concept in their operation, although in the majority of cases this is not evident in current practice. Therefore the need for a paradigm shift in organisational thinking seems to be required, and this could start with the advocated observer training: they need to reflect on their own practice to establish what they are doing, and why they are doing it. This review could start with the question as to whether, by visiting the classroom to obtain appraisal data, the observer is not breaking every rule of sampling (Bowring-Carr, 1993), whilst

his/her presence is impacting considerably on the teaching and learning environment (Labov, 1972).

6.6   The students

It appears that, in effect, teachers and observers agree as to what they expect to see in a model lesson. Teachers believe that they need to provide a specific type of lesson [5.3.1.1, 5.3.2.1]], whilst observers are expecting to see a demonstration of the teacher's skills in the classroom [5.2.1.2, 5.2.2.1, 5.2.3.2]. However, as the student interview data suggests, its success or otherwise would seem to be in the hands of the learners [5.4.3]. They are aware of this, and usually behave atypically and in a more restrained manner [4.2.7.1] because they either believe that they themselves are being observed, or they like the teacher. Learners thus become the unknown factor in any appraisal observation, which is probably why their teachers often choose to forewarn them. Student behaviour during an observation is key (Tsui, 1995; Wang and Day 2002) and can make or break the lesson. Bowring-Carr argues that the 'area where the main difficulties lie' (1993:317) is in the response of the learners to the teaching, and Tsui (ibid) also refers to the predictability of their responses, but in appraisal observations which are an accurate reflection of classroom behaviour such things should not be an issue.

Many authors argue for the importance of including student perspectives in appraisal (Barnard, 1998; Blease, 1993; Dodds, 1986; Lokan and McKenzie, 1989; Malderez and Wedell, 2007), but not all of these arguments are heading in the same

direction. Murdoch (2007), for example, refers to student evaluations rather than including them in the observed lesson. This is useful, but learners need an insider rather than an outsider approach to their appraisal involvement. They need to feel that they have a real voice in the process, otherwise they may continue to exert arbitrary judgements that depend on the popularity of the teacher, or the degree of anxiety that they experience in relation to a particular observer. At a weekend conference held in 1986, Dodds reports that participants decided 'pupil perspective was far too important to omit' (1986:152) and should be incorporated in the teacher appraisal process. One way to do this would be by encouraging the learners to provide feedback on the model lesson. However, despite the amount of discussion that was engaging educational minds over two decades ago, there is still little in the literature to suggest that this concept has any currency in the current educational climate. In fact, Dodds went on to argue that increased knowledge of the subject was leading to entrenched views and greater scepticism, and that gaining a consensus would not be an easy process, which certainly seems to have been demonstrated over the intervening years.

The importance of the inclusion of learner perspectives in the teacher appraisal process certainly has relevance. Chinese students, for example, look for 'patient, responsible, fair and helpful teachers' (Peacock, 2002:72), and therefore would perhaps not be happy with an authoritarian approach in the classroom, and might appreciate the opportunity to be involved in appraisal. As both teachers and supervisors are keen to point out in this research, student evaluations of teaching staff (Appendix B) are a significant part of teacher appraisal (Murdoch, 2007). However, if they are not effectively administered they may be subject to temporal and procedural irregularities

[2.3.2.4]. Therefore the views of the students expressed on the evaluation form may not be an accurate reflection of their feelings about the teacher and the class, and this system also needs some refinement.

As O'Leary (1992) writes, learners are neither asked not expected to have an opinion about appraisal observation, and they should be included before there is any real improvement in the value of model lessons. This is important, because, as Slimani says:

> Discourse is not something prepared beforehand by the teacher and simply implemented with the students. Instead it is jointly constructed by contributions from both parties so that the learners are not just passively fed from the instructor's plan' (1992:197)

However, evidence from the lesson transcripts seems to suggest that this is what actually happens: the relative silence of the students during model lessons means that joint construction is not apparent. Slimani (ibid) goes on to argue that uptake cannot be predicted, and that it is not helpful to use the teacher's plan as a measure of this, which, again, is what the observers are doing in a model lesson. From the student interview data it seems that learners may, in fact, be enduring this lesson in the same way as the teacher and be complicit in the process for several reasons, which is certainly an area which would benefit from further investigation.

Meanwhile, Hannah's suggested alternative to appraisal observations would certainly seem to be viable and involve key players in the process, and could potentially be very effective in a tertiary learning situation (interview, turns 214, 216 and 218, Extract 6.1):

Extract 6.1

Hannah   So they have a (0.5) they have a much better picture (0.5) and then maybe I think it's

important if the supervisors come in … sometime on a culminating day (0.5) if there's a

day that the students are presenting … Work they've come from (0.5) and instead of just

watching the teacher teach (0.5) listen to the students (0.5) and let the students give the

presentation, (0.5) and then have them ask the students 'how did you get to that stage?'

… And if the students can actually verbalise (0.5) the process that they went through

(0.5) that's a reflection on the teaching (1.5) and I think (0.5) that actually is often more

telling (0.5) um because that shows a period of time and that shows a real pattern of

instruction (.5) than just on any given day (0.5) coming in.

She suggests that, instead of observing the teacher teach, supervisors come into the

classroom on a day towards the end of the term or semester and watch the students

giving a presentation of the work they have done. In this way observers are able to view

and ask questions about the extent of the students' knowledge, and the need for repeated

observations is avoided. Hannah argues that if this worked for eight-year olds in her

primary teaching days, then it should certainly work for tertiary students.

Finally, another very important consideration identified concerning appraisal

observation is the extent to which the age or status of the students may determine their

attitude [5.4.3]. For example, children of primary age are much less likely to have a

tolerance of ambiguity than older students, which means that if the teacher behaves

atypically during an observation they will probably say so. However, paradoxically, if

the observation format is one that they are familiar with, and there are teacher/pupil

codes in place where, for example, learners who know the correct answer raise their

right arm, then their complicity increases involvement in the lesson. At this point the observer becomes the 'outsider' and teacher and pupils become their own enclosed discourse community. This may highlight the disparity between primary and tertiary learners, but still suggests that there is a clear difference between pedagogic and model lessons.

6.7 The validity of observation and the alternatives

Wallace defines validity as being 'testing what you are supposed to test' (1998:36), and, in the case of appraisal observations, it seems that this is very unlikely to be true. Observers are not actually 'testing' a fully representative sample of a teacher's teaching, but rather something that the appraisee deems to be appropriate for that particular situation, and that particular observer. This has been known for a long time: in 1981 Scriven argued that summative 'teacher evaluation is a disaster' (p244), and wrote:

> Using classroom visits by colleagues (or administrators or "experts") to evaluate teaching is not just incorrect, it's a disgrace. First, the visit itself alters the teaching, so that the visitor is not looking at a representative sample. This defect is exacerbated by preannouncing the visit. Second, the number of visits is too small to be an accurate sample from which to generalize, even if it were a random sample. Third, the visitors are typically not devoid of independent personal prejudices in favour of or against the teacher ... Fourth, nothing that could be observed in the classroom ... can be used as a basis for an inference to any conclusion about the merit of the teaching (1981:251)

He was horrified that the practice of classroom visitation for teacher evaluation was being extended from the context of primary and secondary schools at the postsecondary level, because it was believed to represent 'an improvement over past practices' (ibid:252). His comments certainly seem to suggest that the validity of appraisal observations has been questionable for at least 30 years, and also to confirm the findings of this research. He goes on to say:

> No variation of this kind of observation is of any value either; visits by experts are no better, and visits by peers are no better, for purposes of personnel evaluation. There are no valid indicators to be seen, no matter who looks (ibid)

However, Scriven does write that consultant visits are defensible, which covers the observer visits to classrooms during teacher training in order to improve classroom practice, and without which the education of teachers would be extremely problematic. But his comments could also be interpreted as casting doubt on the use of classroom observation for research, as many of the same factors will come into play. In such cases observer prejudices may not be so evident, but this could be counteracted by the effect of the presence of an unfamiliar researcher on the learners.

There are a range of possible alternatives to appraisal observation available. Scriven (1981) suggests the student questionnaire, although he identifies many of the more problematic features discussed in [2.3.2.4]. He also suggests the professional development dossier, which is known as a teaching portfolio in this research context, and sometimes used alongside appraisal observations. The dossier encourages self-appraisal [2.3.2.3], which is a potentially useful alternative and relates closely to PD. Peterson (2000), writing in the American context, recommends student reports, peer

reviews of materials, student achievement data, teacher tests, parent reports, documentation of professional activity (outside school) and administrator reports, as well as systematic observation. However, many of these options would seem to suggest a focus on judgement, rather than PD of the individual [2.7].

It therefore seems, despite evidence and literature arguing to the contrary, that observations continue to be a common way of appraising teachers, and few valid formative alternatives have been suggested. As such Hannah's suggestion of an end of term presentation to the observer [6.6] might be one of the more viable options, in that it involves teachers, learners and supervisors, whilst also giving the students the opportunity to develop a useful life skill.

6.8 The research

6.8.1 The effect of the Observer's Paradox (OP)

The OP has had an impact on this study, but not as much as was originally anticipated [1.2]. In terms of the research itself, it has been shown that the presence of an observer does have a considerable impact on the behaviour of those he/she has come to observe (Labov, 1972), both teacher and students, thus creating a potentially artificial situation. However, the impact of the OP on the research does not seem to have been significant in terms of the recordings of the pedagogic lessons [4.1.7], mainly because the recording device was unobtrusive. It was also less apparent in the teacher interviews: presumably because they had become familiar with the presence of the MP3. However, it did seem that the OP was perhaps impacting on the supervisors during their

interviews, in that they sometimes seemed to be saying what they felt they ought to say. They were not used to the presence of the MP3, which seems to argue that familiarity with observation instruments would perhaps result in more typical behaviour (Samph, 1976). However, they also seemed to be very conscious of their organisational role [5.2.4] which militates against complete freedom of speech.

6.8.2   The use of SETT

The conclusions obtained in this research would not have been possible without the effectiveness of SETT (Walsh, 2006) as an instrument for lesson analysis. Prior to the evaluation of the transcript contents, there was little pre-existing knowledge of the way in which the lessons, particularly the pedagogic, were constructed, and SETT was able to provide extensive insight into this. As such, interactional features were identified that would not have been possible with the use of concordancing tools alone, and a valid and reliable picture of the ongoing events in the classroom was produced.

Although the external lesson features [3.3.4.2] were not directly related to SETT, it was established from the data that there was a considerable difference in the way they were incorporated between pedagogic and model lessons. The subsequent use of SETT modes [3.3.4.4] allowed the transcribed lessons to be investigated in terms of component parts, permitting a direct comparison of specific contexts between model and pedagogic lessons [4.4.1, 4.4.2]. This study of interaction was crucial, and although in the initial stages of the research it seemed there might be situations where specific modes did not apply, this did not prove to be the case. In fact each teacher's behaviour proved to be

similar regardless of their teaching context, although there were degrees of difference that indicated the particular pressures posed by a model lesson [4.2.7].

SETT, therefore, was vital in ensuring that an effective examination of the classroom discourse could be carried out, and was able to produce relevant and useful data applicable in a variety of contexts. This model could be used in any situation where classroom interaction is evaluated, and is particularly suitable for the analysis of large amounts of classroom data. SETT has implications not only for appraisal (both external and internal) but also for reflective practice and teacher education. If a discussion across all modes appears too complex, then practitioners are able to focus on one aspect of classroom interaction (*managerial mode*, for example) in order to establish why and how this occurs. At present there seem to be few analytical tools available that are able to work with data on this scale, encompassing such a wide variety of interactional meanings.

6.8.3 The research limitations

This research has several limitations, some of which relate to the vagaries of the recording devices. The early classroom recordings were made using Coomber tape decks, which were certainly conspicuous, and made the OP (Labov, 1972) highly relevant, whether or not there was an observer in the classroom. Fortunately as the decade progressed the small MP3 players became more widely available, and the teachers were able to use these in the classrooms, which were much less intrusive. However, where the Coombers were superior was in the way that they recorded much of

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the sound in the classroom and interaction was audible. So by sacrificing profile and visibility, there was a subsequent reduction in the quality of the audible data, particularly from the students. It seems that the answer to this problem would be to have microphones arranged around the classroom, preferably non-intrusive, which would involve extensive permissions and forward planning, and is something to be seriously considered for the future.

Another aspect that might be covered differently in future research would be the incorporation of stimulated recall so that teachers could discuss the actual pedagogic and model lessons taught and the choices they made. In the current research this was not possible because of time and location restraints, although participants did talk more generally about observation in the interviews, providing a large amount of detail. However, when it came to the point of respondent validation, the teacher participants either said they did not have time to review the lesson transcripts or failed to respond to emails. This was somewhat unexpected as they had originally agreed to take part in the research on the basis of using the recordings for future PD, and a section could be incorporated in the consent form to ensure that they are prepared for such an eventuality.

Finally, this research involved working with teaching staff employed on a contractual basis, and subject to the employment constraints discussed in the thesis. This meant that contact had unfortunately been reduced with the majority of respondents by the end of the research period: where this may have been due to termination of contract, they seemed particularly reluctant to maintain contact. It appears difficult to safeguard against this happening in such a research context, but does demonstrate the impact that changes of employment can have on all the factors involved.

6.9   Implications for the future

McIntyre (1980) notes that there are two main fields of thought amongst educators concerning appraisal observation, regardless of the fact that research indicates that the presence of an observer affects what is happening in the classroom. The first suggests that despite the observer effect (Labov, 1972), knowing something about what happens during lessons is better than knowing nothing, but the other claims that the OP is a crucial issue. McIntyre's article is based on research carried out in the 1960s and 1970s, and concludes that 'the observed teacher will exhibit more positive affective behaviours and generate a more positive classroom attitude than would normally occur in the administrator's absence' (ibid:37). This concurs with the findings of this thesis, and demonstrates that it has been an issue for a considerable time. O'Leary (2006) writes that data indicates that if a teacher is aware of what an observer would like to see, then that is what happens, which again agrees with current findings. Therefore when working with appraisal observations it is important for those involved to be aware of some key points (ibid):

1. Data collected during observation may not be a true representation of teacher classroom behaviour, so teacher evaluation needs to be based on several criteria.
2. Where observations are part of teacher appraisal, a sequence should be carried out over time to reduce the observer effect.
3. Administrators should interact both formally and informally with faculty.

In effect, this seems to be what the supervisors involved in this study are trying to do, even though it could be argued that O'Leary's ideas could be updated to incorporate, for

example, the student perspective during the observation itself. The supervisors do ask their teachers to complete portfolios, including diaries and self-evaluations, and they do aim to carry out at least two observations per academic year, although this does not seem to equate to the sequence described above. In terms of interacting with faculty (3), it is not clear whether this is a key goal, although Andrew does refer to lunching with his teachers in order to cover the 'hidden agenda' [52.1.4], and both Katy and Ereberto are strongly involved in teacher development.

Williams (1996) argues that a more developmental view of teacher appraisal is needed, and so, if observations must be carried out, then this needs to be done in a carefully designed manner that involves teacher and observer at every stage. A mutual choice of place and time is important, as is agreement between teachers and observers about what should be the focus, as discussed during a pre-observation meeting. Record keeping should accurately reflect what happens in terms of internal and external features, and the learners should be involved during the lesson itself, rather than feeling nervous and repressed because they believe that they are the focus of scrutiny. The post-observation meeting should also be approached in a constructivist manner, and be of benefit to all parties involved, and PD should be the most significant part of the process. But all of these factors depend on an effective relationship between teacher and observer based on mutual respect (Wang and Day, 2002)

The research results raise several important points about appraisal observation to be considered in future discussion of the process:

A. The presence of an observer in the classroom may have an impact on the way in which the lesson is planned, and some aspects of the behaviour of the students, but, contrary to popular belief (as expressed in the literature), model lessons do seem to be a reflection of the typical pedagogic behaviour of the individual teacher.

B. Having said this, observers tend to be subjective in their recording of the external factors, which are least likely to be a typical reflection of teachers' normal lessons.

C. Teachers will return to familiar methodology in unfamiliar contexts, and model lessons are likely to be taught according to recognised formats.

D. If an appraisal observation is a true reflection of a teacher's pedagogic practice, potential dismissal in this context as the result of failed observations does seem to be one alternative to the problem of sub-standard teaching.

Appraisal observation continues to be viewed as a significant part of the professional evaluation of teachers. Many of the alternative approaches may appear attractive at the outset, but it can be argued that in terms of time and money, the appraisal observation is cost-effective, as it can be completed in a relatively short time frame, and does not require the sustained person hours involved, for example, when compiling and assessing a portfolio.

With reference to lesson content, it could be argued that administrative tasks do take up much of teachers' time. Thus, if an observation is truly to reflect a teacher's practice, then this should really form an accepted part of the observation procedure. Both teachers and supervisors need to be aware that the ability to fulfil administrative

tasks in the classroom is as much part of the pedagogic process as direct teaching practices. However, the basis of the belief that they are not relevant is probably rooted in experiences of observation during ITT, when teacher trainees did not have such administrative concerns.

Accountability in the workplace has become a feature of daily life, therefore the need for individual appraisal is not going to go away in the foreseeable future. But in order to represent the needs and desires of all those involved in the process, appraisal observations do need to be carried out in a carefully structured manner, so that both teachers and observers feel comfortable and involved in the process. The students also play a key role in pedagogic practice, so it is important to include them in the evaluation process, and to date carrying out student surveys seems to be the most popular way of doing this. An alternative would be to ask students what they had learned at the end of the lesson, and such computer-generated feedback is becoming more common in some institutions.

The results of this thesis suggest that the appraisal observation discussion needs to move away from the concepts of good/effective/expert teaching, and towards the inclusion of individual identities (Cooper and Olson, 1996) if classroom observation is to develop as a viable method of teacher appraisal, and be effective in terms of PD. Miller (2009) argues that discourse has a critical role in the structure of identity: whilst discourse is controlled teacher identity is suppressed. It could be claimed that this is what is currently happening in model lessons, as the discourse is controlled by all parties involved. Miller (ibid:172) places identity and discourse at the heart of language teaching and learning', and argues that 'all teachers have their "ways of being" in the

language classroom, yet most would attest to the power of their students to grant or refuse a hearing' (ibid:173). It is interesting that she links identity with students' contributions, and it is perhaps arguable that they, who are presumably familiar with the teaching persona (Garton, 2004) experienced in pedagogic lessons, might also behave more naturally if their teacher was doing so. With the inclusion of real student and teacher identities in a model lesson (Ushioda, 2009), rather than those either self- or externally imposed, such lessons would be a real representation of typical classroom interaction.

This thesis investigates classroom discourse, which, Richards (2006b) argues, is linked to social identities. As appraisal observation currently exists, personal identity (Kaplan and Flum, 2009) in classroom interaction is often missing, because teachers are striving to teach according to accepted frameworks in order to satisfy personal perceptions of the observer's requirements, and control the discourse (Richards, ibid).

However, if this emphasis on external regulation was reduced, and the focus of appraisal moved away from achievement (Kaplan and Flum, 2009) and rewards and punishments, towards a more value-based alternative, the motivation of the teachers would be affected. Ushioda (2009) discusses this in the context of learners in the classroom, but it seems equally applicable to teachers being evaluated: the opportunity to engage their own identities in model lessons is essential if appraisal observations are to maintain relevance in the current educational climate.

As Sparkes (1988) argues, teachers have a commitment to innovation, although at times they may have to make pragmatic choices between personal beliefs and career

investment. However, they can orientate themselves in order to make the most of innovative moves, and it certainly seems that the time is ripe to do this in the context of appraisal observations.

6.10 **Summary**

Both observers and students tend to focus on the part that they themselves play in a model lesson, but there appears to be a significant gap between what the teachers think is happening, and what is actually happening in terms of their own teaching methodology as it relates to the internal features of the lesson. Although the structure of the lesson may be more formal, and the students may be more attentive than usual, the teachers themselves are apparently approaching the model lesson in a similar manner to the way they would approach a lesson on a normal day.

What the teacher actually does in a model lesson (i.e. the tasks and activities) is less likely to be a true reflection of what happens in his/her pedagogic classes. However, the way in which s/he does it (i.e. language, behaviour and pattern of interaction with students) is much more likely to be an accurate reflection of typical teaching behaviour. Therefore observers may be wasting everyone's time by providing feedback on actual classroom activities, as it is only the way that the teacher behaves and interacts with the students that is a real reflection of her/his normal pedagogic practice. However, currently low-inference activities are those which seem to predominate in the observation forms completed by the observers.

The way in which an appraisal observation is carried out depends on a large number of factors, relating to any or all of the following criteria, which can determine the success or otherwise of the process:

- Context when utilised

- Age of students (needs to be much less transparent with younger learners) and level of participation

- Class management

- Number of observers

- Orientation of teacher and observer

- Involvement of stakeholders

- Familiarity with procedures

An observer needs to be fully situated in the lesson context, and to understand what is happening, and why it is happening at that particular time, and in that particular place. However, for an observation to be deemed successful teachers also need to be able to see their lesson through the eyes of others, which again comes back to interpersonal relationships and teacher orientation.

As they stand, model lesson transcripts from all the teachers, regardless of any other factors, suggest they feel compelled to maintain control throughout a model lesson, and the TTT is ongoing. This indicates that they may feel under a greater degree of pressure to perform (Appel, 2007) than they are perhaps aware of, suggesting that there is still a great deal of work to be done by all the parties involved to eradicate existing

views of appraisal observation. Maintaining standards is important, but as Katz and Snow (2009:74) write:

> Educational standards are designed to present a coherent view of effective teaching. By illustrating a consistent target, standards have great potential to nurture growth and development. Unfortunately, as an integral component of accountability systems, they have also become static and generalised descriptions, often with little connection or relevance to the teachers for whom they have been designed.

Their point about relevance is significant, as this research seems to suggest that there is a range of viewpoints amongst the participants as to what it actually is. Freeman et al (2009:87) argue that 'simplistic models of teacher knowledge' should be challenged, and 'assessments that truly integrate multiple sources of evidence to gauge teacher preparation and effectiveness, and developing assessments that account for language as both a medium and content' should be a priority, and the evidence gained from this study seems to support this view. As Bowring-Carr argues, it is important that:

> classroom observation and evaluation, essential aspects of appraisal, can be seen to be organic, a natural and routine part of long-term curriculum development, rather than as additions imposed onto classroom practice at irregular intervals (1993:332)

However, despite the fact that model lessons do not seem to be valid representations of classroom practice (Scriven 1981), the ongoing intention of most organisations to review their appraisal observation policies has not been apparent in this research. It seems that there may be no immediate prospect of change, and teachers may have to continue with current formats. Wang and Day (2002) asked one of the teachers who took part in their

research to suggest to other teachers how to deal with classroom observation and she provided this advice:

> My first suggestion is to remember that you are a capable, effective teacher with countless abilities. Reminding yourself of your strengths will build your confidence and help dispel your fears and any negatives. My next suggestion is to carry on as you normally would in your classroom, focussing on your lesson, the students, and not on the observer. While it may not be possible to completely forget the observer's presence, avoid looking at him/her and concentrate on your teaching. Third, if the observation is known ahead of time, carefully plan a lesson that has a high probability of student interest, a variety of tasks, which showcases your strengths. Last, smile and enjoy the time, knowing that it will be an opportunity to demonstrate your many skills. In other words, see this as a positive learning experience… (YM, May 2000, cited in Wang and Day, 2002:12)

7.0   CONCLUSION

A teacher bears the ultimate responsibility for educating learners, therefore it is important that this is carried out to the best of her/his ability. If teaching considers itself to be a profession, then teachers need to be appraised: ultimately the practitioners in any profession are judged by their peers, and this also needs to be the case in education. The stakeholders need to know that teaching is being carried out efficiently and in a cost effective manner, therefore systems should be in place to establish this on a regular basis. It therefore seems that teacher appraisal is a necessary activity.

Internationally, appraisals by means of observation appear to be perhaps the most popular way in which teachers are evaluated: the basis for this seems to be historical, but the growing interest in observation for research purposes seems to have had no small part to play in its growth in popularity. Much of the literature relating to observation suggests that it is often a negative experience, which teachers and supervisors view in a similar way, and that teachers behave differently when there is an observer in the classroom (Labov, 1972). The impact is certainly negative if observation is viewed in a punitive way, and unsuccessful appraisals result in dismissal.

Simons (1996:2) argues that 'from a holistic perspective, a case study can generate both unique and universal understandings', and this research has succeeded in doing this. The contribution made has been in using transcripts of model and pedagogic lessons in order to investigate the hypothesis that differences exist. The classroom and interview data has confirmed not only that there are differences between pedagogic and

model lessons, but also that these differences are anticipated by the parties involved. Teachers and observers have certain expectations of model lessons, and teachers tend to orientate their teaching towards individual observer preferences. An unsuccessful observation can have unpleasant consequences: in some educational institutions in the Middle East, for example, there is a distinct possibility that teachers may be dismissed if the observer does not consider their teaching to be of a suitable standard.

In order to demonstrate best practice to observers, teachers tend to alter the external features of their lessons, rather than the internal features. The internal features relate closely to the teachers' pedagogic practice and classroom behaviour, and, by means of SETT (Walsh, 2006) these have been shown to be similar whether or not an observer is present. However, the external features (the way the lesson is planned, group and pairwork, the classroom management) are those most likely to be altered by the teacher in order to comply with the perceived ideals of the observer.

The supervisor/observer tends to focus on low order factors (Wragg, 1999), those which can be observed, so is therefore probably not getting a representative view of the teacher's normal classroom behaviour. Additionally, and for a variety of reasons, the students also behave atypically during model lessons, which means that they are not providing an accurate representation of their own normal behaviour either. However, they do have the ability to make or break the appraisal, depending on their reaction to the situation, although the importance of this response is barely considered in the existing literature.

In all, appraisal observation demonstrates a wide variety of practices and potential mismatches, the overall success of which seems to depend on the compatibility of appraiser and appraise: where the relationship is good, the teacher may be able to consider the observation as a PD opportunity. Bearing in mind the importance of implementing this process in a fair and well-regulated manner, it seems that there is still a great deal to be done in terms of research into observation classrooms, and the way in which to instigate best practice. It is also important to consider how much of the existing research and literature about education is based on observations that have taken place in classrooms. The extent to which teacher and learners have been influenced by the presence of an observer must necessarily have a significant effect on the validity of observation-related findings.

It appears that three key options currently exist, depending on whether or not observer effects are acknowledged. The first is to continue with appraisal observations along existing lines, whilst the format becomes ever more complex in order to satisfy practitioner ideas as to how it should be made effective. The second alternative is to address the underlying problems by adopting an approach where all parties are trained and involved, and the identity of the person being appraised (the teacher) provides a significant basis for the assessed lesson, thus reflecting real pedagogic practice. The final option is to abandon appraisal observation altogether and find an alternative which demonstrates both validity and reliability, and places the PD of those involved at its centre.

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TEACHER PERFORMANCE EVALUATION 1998-1999
CLASS OBSERVATION

Instructor :	Observer:
Class & Section:	Date: 1999

Observer rating: 4 Strongly agree   3 Agree   2 Disagree   1 Strongly disagree   N/a Not applicable

Aspect	4	3	2	1	N/a	Comments
Lesson Preparation.						
Lesson plan is clear with objectives stated.	X					- at the outset of the class, Instructor advised what topics students would be covering
Material is organized – has logical flow.	X					- topic on different types of communication, body language, dress etc – all very workplace relevant
Student handouts/summaries prepared as appropriate.	X					- student handouts reinforced lesson materials
Objectives						
Objectives stated at the beginning of the lesson.	X					- lessons objectives clearly outlined and followed
Teaching points throughout the lesson refer to objectives.	X					- many examples and illustrations given throughout lesson to reinforce key concept
Objectives summarized at end of lesson.	X					- handouts and Q & A sessions reinforce lesson topic for the class
Objectives achieved.	X					
Use of teaching resources (WB/Handouts/etc.)						
Handouts are clear and easy to read.	X					- the Instructor speaks very clearly and is very concise in her language
The language level is appropriate for the students.	X					- nice mix of lecture, question and answer, group work, white board and OHP
The choice of resources was the most appropriate for the students.	X					- nature of topic was such that student participation in class discussion essential – this accomplished with ease

Aspect	4	3	2	1	N/a	Comments
Class Management						- *very clear beginning to lesson* - *dealt directly with late students – "you are late – you must come to every class on time" – great!* - *discussions surrounding body language and non verbal communication required a good deal of mime at the front – students responded well to this and it helped to illustrate key concepts of lesson* - *instructor good at drawing all students into discussions* - *students stayed with her and on task*
Start of lesson is signaled clearly.	X					
Late students are dealt with appropriately.	X					
Most students participate in discussions/QA sessions.	X					
Uses directed questions with nominated students.	X					
Use of Arabic is actively discouraged.	X					
Communication						- *new vocabulary explained clearly and checked with questions to students* - *the Instructor is very precise in her language and communicates both very clearly and at an appropriate level for her students*
Vocabulary is appropriate to class level.	X					
Can be heard clearly.	X					
Student responses indicate comprehension.	X					
Methodology						- *students were very actively participating in the topic discussed* - *the Instructor able to share a laugh with them during the mimed portion of the lesson – good rapport* - *nice mix of lecture, discussion, board work and independent work*
Main concepts explained clearly and student understanding is checked.	X					
A variety of teaching methods and activities are used.	X					
There are obvious and appropriate pace changes within the lesson.	X					
Student questions are answered clearly.	X					

Enthusiasm for Subject					
Communicates enthusiasm for, and importance of subject.	X				- the Instructor was very clearly comfortable with the subject content and communicated it effectively to her students
Student responses indicate interest in subject.	X				- the nature of the topic was very relevant to the workplace
Materials and discussions are related to the workplace.	X				
Use of class Time					
Covers planned material allowing for flexibility to ensure learning.	X				- lesson plan followed but with no sense of urgency
					- handout using the Receptionist's responses was effective in bringing it all together
Student progress meets curriculum requirements.	X				- student questions clearly answered as required

Overall Evaluation

Observer's Comments

The class had a very relaxed yet focused atmosphere about it. She led the class easily through the subject material and was able to inject some fun into it (through the discussions about body language). Even with the laughter and participation during the discussion portions of the lesson, maintained good class control and kept the students on topic. Her delivery was nicely paced and while her communication with the students clear and precise, it was also well targeted to their language abilities. A good lesson.

Signature of Observer   **Date**

I HAVE RECEIVED AND READ THE OBSERVATION SHEET

Signature of Faculty   **Date**

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Appendix B

Student Feedback on Teaching and Learning

الآراء الطلابية حول عملية التعليم والتعلم

| Program: _____ | البرنامج | Semester/Term: _____ | الفصل الدراسي |
| Course: _____ | | Teacher: _____ | المدرس |

	Always 5	Often 4	Sometimes 3	Rarely 2	Never 1	
1. The teacher's explanations and examples help my learning.		✓				شرح المدرس وأمثلته تساعدني في التعلم
2. The teacher makes the course interesting.		✓				يسعى المدرس الى جعل المادة شيقة
3. The teacher gives me useful feedback to help my learning.	✓					يعطيني المدرس التغذية الاسترجاعية المفيدة عن مستوى أدائي وذلك لتساعدني في التعلم
4. I am respected and I get fair treatment from the teacher.	✓					يعاملني المدرس باعتدال واحترام
5. I am encouraged by the teacher to positively participate in class.		✓				يشجعني المدرس على المشاركة الايجابية في العمل
6. I receive extra help from the teacher outside the classroom, if I ask for it.	✓					أتلقى من المدرس المساعدة الاضافية خارج الفصل عندما أطلبها
7. I like the teacher's way of managing the class.		✓				تعجبني طريقة المدرس في ادارة الفصل
8. I am encouraged by the teacher to take an active role in my own learning.	✓					يشجعني المدرس على المشاركة الفعالة في تعلمي الخاص
9. The teacher speaks clearly.	✓					يتحدث المدرس بوضوح
10. The teacher tells me clearly how I will be marked and assessed.			✓			يوضح لي المدرس طريقة تقييمي
11. Generally, the teacher is good at helping me to learn.		✓				بشكل عام، المدرس جيد في مساعدتي في التعلم

| 12. What do you like about the teacher's way of teaching this course? | ما الذي يعجبك في طريقة المدرس في تدريس هذه المادة ؟ |

she make the class more interestin

| 13. How could the teacher improve the teaching of this course? | كيف يستطيع المدرس تحسين طريقة تدريس هذه المادة ؟ |

| 14. Have you anything else to say about the teaching of this course? | هل لديك أي ملاحظات أخرى بشأن تدريس هذه المادة ؟ |

Appendix C

Informed Consent

Name: ....

As part of this research project, you have participated by making audio recordings of yourself in the classroom. You will also take part in interviews relating to the material that has been recorded. Please indicate below which uses of these records you are prepared to consent to – they will only be used in these ways and your identity will remain anonymous at all times.

- The records can be studied and used in the research
- The records can be used in publications and conferences
- The written transcripts can be used by other researchers

Thank you for agreeing to take part in this research – your contribution is extremely valuable.

Amanda Howard
University of Warwick

Transcription symbols

?	utterances functioning as questions with rising intonation
(0.5) (1)	second pause
abc	emphasis
.	completion, falling intonation (period)
,	continuing contour (comma)
!	exclamation, indicating surprise or shock
xxxx	individual enunciation not discernable
[ ]	non-linguistic features of text that cannot be transcribed exactly
{	overlaps
=	extended words
……	links between turns in the text, encompassing interviewer interjections with low directiveness
	ongoing background noise and student discussion in Arabic/English

Appendix E

L2 classroom modes and interactional features (Walsh, 2006)

L2 classroom modes (ibid:66)

Mode	Pedagogic goals	Interactional features
Managerial	To transmit information	A single, extended teacher turn which uses explanations and/or instructions
	To organise the physical learning environment	The use of transitional markers
	To refer learners to materials	The use of confirmation checks
	To introduce or conclude an activity	An absence of learner contributions
	To change from one mode of learning to another	
Materials	To provide language practice activities around a piece of material	Predominance of IRF pattern
	To elicit responses in relation to the material	Extensive use of display questions
	To check and display answers	Form-focussed feedback
	To clarify when necessary	Corrective repair
	To evaluate contributions	The use of scaffolding
Skills and systems	To enable learners to produce correct forms	The use of direct repair
	To enable the learners to manipulate the target language	The use of scaffolding
	To provide corrective	Extended teacher turns

		feedback	
	To provide learners with practice in sub-skills	Display questions
	To display correct answers	Teacher echo
		Clarification requests
		Form-focussed feedback
Classroom context	To enable learners to express themselves clearly	Extended learner turns
	To establish a context	Short teacher turns
	To promote oral fluency	Minimal repair
		Content feedback
		Referential questions
		Scaffolding
		Clarification requests

<u>**Interactional features (Walsh, 2006:67)**</u>

	Interactional feature	**Description**
A	Scaffolding	1. Reformulation (rephrasing a learner's contribution) 2. Extension (extending a learner's contribution) 3. Modelling (correcting a learner's contribution)
B	Direct repair	Correcting an error quickly and directly
C	Content feedback	Giving feedback to the message rather than the words used
D	Extended wait-time	Allowing sufficient time (several seconds) for student to respond or formulate a response
E	Referential questions	Genuine questions to which the teacher does not know the answer
F	Seeking clarification	1. Teacher asks a student to clarify something the student has said. 2. Student asks teacher to clarify something the teacher has said.
G	Confirmation checks	Making sure that the teacher has correctly understood the learner's contribution
H	Extended learner turn	Learner turn of more than one clause
I	Teacher echo	1. Teacher repeats a previous utterance 2. Teacher repeats a learner's contribution
J	Teacher interruptions	Interrupting a learner's contribution
K	Extended teacher turn	Teacher turn of more than one clause
L	Turn completion	Completing a learner's contribution for the learner
M	Display questions	Asking questions to which the teacher knows the answer
N	Form-focussed feedback	Giving feedback on the words used, not the message

Appendix F

Pedagogic goals and interactional features (Walsh, 2006)

Managerial mode (ibid:67)

Pedagogic goals:	Interactional features:
To transmit information related to the management of learning To organise the physical conditions for learning to take place To refer learners to specific materials To introduce or conclude an activity To move to and from alternative forms of learning: lockstep (whole class), pair- and group-work, or individual	A single, extended teacher turn, frequently in the form of an explanation or instruction The use of transitional markers (*all right, look, now, OK* etc) to focus attention or indicate the beginning or end of a lesson stage Confirmation checks (*Is that clear? Do you understand? Have you got that? Does everyone know what to do?*) The absence of learner contributions

Materials mode (ibid:70)

Pedagogic goals:	Interactional features:
To provide language practice around a specific piece of material To elicit learner responses in relation to the material To check and display answers To clarify as and when necessary To evaluate learner contributions To extend learner contributions	The IRF sequence typically predominates and is managed by the teacher Display questions are used to check understanding and elicit responses Teacher feedback is form-focussed, attending to 'correctness' rather than content Repair is used to correct errors and give further examples The teacher may scaffold learner contributions Learners may be afforded more or less interactional space according to the type of activity

Skills and systems mode (ibid:73)

Pedagogic goals:	Interactional features:
To enable learners to produce strings of correct utterances To enable learners to manipulate the target language To provide corrective feedback To provide learners with practice in essential sub-skills (eg skimming, listening for gist) To display correct answers	The use of direct repair The use of scaffolding Extended teacher turns Display questions used for eliciting target language Teacher echo used to display responses Clarification requests Form-focussed feedback

Classroom context mode (ibid:79)

Pedagogic goals:	Interactional features:
To enable learners to talk about feelings, emotions, experience, attitudes, reactions, personal relationships To establish a context To activate mental schemata (McCarthy 1992) To promote oral fluency practice	Extended learner turns ; the speech exchange mechanism is frequently managed by the learners themselves with little or no teacher involvement Relatively short teacher turns Direct repair; repair is only used to 'fix' a breakdown in the interaction Content feedback, focussing on message not form Extended use of referential questions rather than display questions Scaffolding may be used to help learners express their ideas Requests for clarification and confirmation checks

Sample of Theresa observation transcript

Date: 10.05   **Nationality**: Canadian   **Duration:** 50.00

T = teacher   **S/Ss** = student/s (M)   **Recording device:** MP3

Turn	Speaking	
1	T	(20) As you have noticed Mrs X has come to visit us this afternoon, she had such a lovely time during your speaking test last week that she decided that she'd like to come and visit our class for a, for a session. So I hope you will make her feel nice and welcome
2	Ss	[xxxxxxxxxxxxxx: 6 secs]
3	T	Does everybody have a **pencil**, an **eraser** and your **highlighter** pen?
4	Ss	Yes, yes
5	T	William, d'you have a highlighter pen? (4) In this lesson we are going to do some review of the **weather words** that we learned in yesterday's class. (1) What I'm going to do is I'm going to give you this (0.5) reading exercise. (1) But in the beginning I don't want you to read **everything** (1) I just want you to look at the **weather forecast** at the top of the page. And I would like to **use your highlighter pen** to highlight all the **weather words** that you see in this **forecast**. (1) so any weather word you see, use your highlighter pen to highlight it. (1) Any questions? (2) OK, then I will pass it out, I do **not want** you to do any of the reading questions yet. We're going to do those later, for now, only highlight the words. (11) Please remember to put your name on your papers
6	S	xxxxxxxxxxxxxx
7	T	OK you can work with your partner to highlight the weather words together (11) If you want to work with a partner you can (13) Only highlight the weather words, not the other words (4)
8	S	And the other words?
9	T	Only weather words (27) Are these all the weather words?

10	S	xxxxxxxxxxxxx
11	T	I think there might be a few more weather words there (21) OK you have **one more minute** (24) You have one or two words missing there
12	S	xxxxxxxxxxxxx
13	T	Mm? (2)
14	S	How many?
15	T	I'm not going to give you a number, I want you to see which ones are weather words (8)
16	S	Do I have to do this?
17	T	What else have you got? No, just do the front page (8) Just the front page (2) Just the weather words here (4) OK, let's have a look in the top left hand corner, there's a small box there at the top, what are the weather words in that small box there at the top on the left?
18	S	Humidity
19	T	Humidity
20	S	Sunrise
21	T	Sunrise and
22	S	Sunset
23	T	Sunset. Are there any other weather words (0.5) in that box?
24	Ss	No xxxx c or f
25	T	Yeah (0.5) what does the **c** stand for?
26	Ss	Celsius
27	T	Yeah (0.5) the c is for Celsius (4) and the f is for
28	Ss	Fahrenheit
29	T	Fahrenheit (3) What is the little circle in front of the C and the F?
30	Ss	Degrees, degrees.
31	T	Degrees. So is that a weather word also?

32	Ss	Yes, it is
33	T	So (0.5) the degrees Celsius and the degrees Fahrenheit should also be highlighted because they're not the long form of the word, but they're the short form for weather words. There's still one more weather word in that box
34	Ss	xxxxxxxxxxxxx
35	T	No, not Chicago (0.5) Chicago is the city that (0.5) that this weather is for
36	Ss	Conditions yes, **conditions**
37	T	Yeah, conditions (2) This is a word I don't think we studied yesterday. If if if I'm talking about con **conditions** (1) what am I talking about?
38	S	Wet
39	T	Yeah, the **wet conditions** means weather, and **current** means now. So the current conditions are what the weather's like in Chicago right now. (2) So if we were living in Chicago and we looked out the window (1) this is what we would see. (2) In the box on the right hand side (1) at the top, we have some more weather words. What are the (0.5) what is one of those weather words, Mark?
40	S	Weather words?
41	T	{One of the weather words from the box on the right.
42	Ss	Sunny?
43	T	Sunny
44	Ss	Cloudy?
45	T	Cloudy
46	Ss	Rain?
47	T	Rain
48	Ss	Windy
49	T	Windy
50	Ss	Snow?
51	T	And snow. (3) [writing on the board] Is that all the weather words

		from that part of the table?
52	Ss	Yes xxxxx
53	T	Yup, that's all (0.5) there are no more (1) Now, the **big** table at the **bottom** (1) What is all of this information in this big table?
54	Ss	The weather this week?
55	T	Yeah, it's this week's forecast. What are the weather words that you can see in that table?
56	Ss	Forecast
57	T	The word forecast
58	Ss	Temperature
59	T	And temperature
60	Ss	High temperature xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx
61	T	Yeah, and again we have degrees Celsius and degrees Fahrenheit. We also have?
62	Ss	High and low
63	T	High
64	Ss	And Low
65	T	And low. We learned two different words for **high** and **low** yesterday. What was the word that we learned for the high temperature?
66	Ss	Hot hot er warm
67	T	Yeah (0.5) the word hot (1) is when the is when the degrees are very high
68	Ss	{ cold
69	T	But the high
70	Ss	{cool cool
71	T	{hold on (0.5) the high temperature is the temp the top temperature on that day, what was the word that we used for that yesterday?

Sample of observer interview: Andrew

Date: 04.06   **Nationality**: British **I** = interviewer   **A** = Andrew

Recording medium: MP3

Turn	ID	
1	I	Today I want to ask you about observations as observations are the main subject of this research (0.5) how valuable do you think they are as a tool for assessment?
2	A	I think that what passes for assessment for teachers, for evaluation, it is valuable, it is important that you look at it from the other side and see it from the teachers' point of view as being valuable as well, because it er validates their belief in themselves as teachers (0.5) umm I think that's the first, um, important point to make. So it is not necessarily seen as a punitive tool, um, in the evaluation process (0.5) it should be seen as a supportive, ongoing tool in the evaluation process and it is very much the role of the manager to ensure that that is how it is perceived in the Department. (2) I believe it should be non-threatening, I believe that the process should be transparent, I believe that er, um the actual event should be discussed, I believe that a lesson plan should be produced and discussed by the teacher, and the evaluator, so the um evaluator has a fairly good idea about what he or she is going to see.. I don't believe (humm herum) that a lesson plan should be struck (0.5) stuck to too rigidly either, I think one of the most important areas is perceived problems, and if a teacher feels that students need a particular emphasis in a particular area, or if the teacher doesn't fulfil a particular lesson plan because he's made a decision or she's made a particular decision during the course of a lesson because the emphasis needs to be, to be given, then I think that should be given credence as well. So, er, I think it's a very organic process.
3	I	That's a very fair and valid view that you've got there. So, bearing in mind you think it's a very organic process, and presumably you would try to make sure that it followed those sort of lines when you worked within the observation format, do you think that is always the case?
4	A	No, it's not. Er, the institution that we work in in some cases I know the teachers are er um evaluated without (0.5) or lesson visits are undertaken

		(0.5) without notice being given. So (0.5) a a walk in er observation could occur with a teacher who doesn't know that they are about to be observed. And er I struggle with the professional aspects of that, coming from a hum hum UK educational background myself (0.5) um (0.5) I also believe that um that if the teacher is delivering a lesson, then, er, the teacher should be given the opportunity or chance to show their skills and to show what they're (0.5) they're made of, if you like, er , in the classroom. And, er, as an old colleague of mine used to say, it's time to get the best china out.
5	I	[laughs]
6	A	{And, er I don't believe teachers should just perfunctorily go ahead with a normal class if he or she is being observed (0.5) I think that is rather um doing themselves a disservice and I think it's not showing a great deal of respect to the evaluator. Um if you are a skilled and well trained and well-educated EFL teacher with over 10 years' experience teaching at at a tertiary level, which we are, er , in this particular institution most of the teachers have taught for well over ten years and most of them have Masters degrees and it's time to show (2) your um line manager what you're made of (0.5) it's a wonderful opportunity to, to not only validate your own view of yourself in the classroom and perhaps have that valuation confirmed by the students and the evaluator as well (0.5) I think it's a wonderful opportunity to um to en (0.5) ensure that you are still (1) producing the best possible practice that you can in the classroom. (3)
7	I	And what happens if a person is not producing the best possible practice?
8	A	(3) Well, there is always a discussion with the evaluator afterwards, um, and the, the lesson is, is covered in some detail (0.5) And the evaluator would, um, ask the teacher to state what he or she thought were the highspots, the er highpoints of the class, and perhaps the weaker areas of the class, and through a discussion or through a process, of that kind of discussion, then hopefully the poorer, less well-delivered areas would be evaluated, er by the teacher and by the evaluator, and er perhaps solutions for future competency er um discussed and um the teacher is given the opportunity to revisit the areas of their weakness.
9	I	And, um, do you think from the point of view of the teacher, do observers need to be trained, or can (2) they just go in?
10	A	It's very unfair, and er, I think er, given the er the level of qualification, the level of experience we expect in our particular institution, it's, or any tertiary institution for that matter, that's worth, um, that's worth its weight, then the evaluator should, most definitely, not only have experience but have some form of qualification perhaps in the evaluation process, so I definitely believe that the evaluator should be trained to know and see and understand, and, and interpret what he or she is seeing in a class.. And I think it is most unfair for the um teacher in question if that is not the case.

11	I	because some teachers certainly do have issues with the amount of training or the competency of the observer (0.5) not necessarily here but in other places (0.5) but they don't feel that observers are qualified to observe them, therefore the whole observation process loses validity. Does that make sense?
12	A	It makes sense, but sometimes it's not the fault of the observer or the observed (0.5) sometimes it's the institution that has placed the em (0.5) ployer with the employee and the difficult er circumstances of a non-specialist line manager evaluating a specialist teacher and sometimes it's not the fault or the responsibility of the line manager
13	I	{Of the line manager themselves so (0.5) in situations where you could have a line managers for example in Business assessing English teachers what sort of difficulties do you foresee in a in an observation?
14	A	Well the first difficulty would be if the business line manager didn't foresee any difficulties
15	I	{[laughs]

Appendix I

Sample of teacher interview: **Hannah**

Date: 23.04.06 **Nationality**: American **H** = teacher, **I** = interviewer
Recording device: MP3

Turn	Speaking	
1	I	It's going (2) I'm talking to Hannah. We're in [country] and it's the 23rd (0.5) the 23rd of
2	H	April
3	I	April [laughs] April 2006 (1) OK right (1) Hannah, when you're (1) the focus here is on observed lessons
4	H	Mmhmm
5	I	And I want to know about your thoughts before an observed lesson
6	H	Mmm
7	I	So if you know you have an observed lesson coming up (1) possibly a supervisory lesson or something that's quite high stakes
8	H	Mmm
9	I	How do you feel? What do you do to prepare?
10	H	Well I think the biggest difference for me is that I actually put aside all administrative tasks, all the other little things that come in like emails, all the little 'to do' lists, and um I actually take time (0.5) to just focus on that lesson and plan (1) Um and regardless of what (0.5) um of what emergency or urgent things are **there** (0.5) or somebody piling other stuff on my desk (0.5) I actually (0.5) I just sit down and focus on what I (0.5) what my= beliefs are in terms of (0.5) what I want to do with this these students, what I've been working towards, but maybe not as successfully because I haven't really been planning

11	I	{yes, yes
12	H	Enough for it (0.5) or following up or really looking at individuals in the class (1) and I start thinking about the individuals (0.5) as well as the whole group (0.5) I start thinking about exactly how do I want to lay out every minute of the class (0.5) ah thinking about what I've either done the day before or what I want to do the day before building up to it (0.5) and um (0.5) what things I want to normally follow up with and emphasise during that time so that an observer coming in (0.5) doesn't actually just have a picture of what's happening during that specific fifty five minute period, (0.5) but they sort of see= what er what the students have been working towards (0.5) and then what (0.5) the way that we normally follow it up (0.5) but yeah, I probably do a much better job of being very clear (0.5) and empathising with the students exactly with previous learning (0.5) and um expected follow-up learning than um I do normally when I'm just kind of rushing through in it through it and **assuming** (0.5) that they understand [laughs] where they've come and where they're going. (2) So I would say that that's perhaps the biggest difference is the amount (0.5) er the amount of time and the level of thought that goes into planning for that=
13	I	OK (1) so are you putting more thought in for you (0.5) for the students (0.5) or for the observer?
14	H	Um (0.5) I would say it's probably a combination of of all (0.5) an' I an' I don't necessarily do anything that I I wouldn't pull out any bells an whistles that wouldn't normally occur during the semester (0.5) but yes um I still again will really try to focus on making (0.5) making my point clear (0.5) and making it um obvious to er the supervisor or other observer exactly how it all fits into the curriculum. How it fits into the learning goals, and um how it kind of meets the needs of the learners.
15	I	So what is it in your previous life experience that makes you approach the observed lesson in that way?
16	H	Umm (2) well to be honest with you in the past (0.5) umm I had had more time for planning and I wouldn't have had to think that much you know somebody walking into (1) say a primary class that I had (1) umm (2) planning was really such an an integral part of preparing for younger children that you **had** to be so well prepared

		and the routines were so well established (1) that there wouldn't have been that need (0.5) but at **this** level (1) and again because of so many daily administrative that pull me away= (0.5) I I find that I I actually revel in that time to say that this is the time that I can just
17	I	{yeah
18	H	Put things away and focus on what I elected to do [laughs]
19	I	Which is the actual teaching
20	H	{mmm
21	I	And when you have an ob observed lesson would you keep that lesson would it be the same lesson that you would normally teach at that stage (0.5) or would you pull in another sort of lesson to=
22	H	I would say not (0.5) not a completely new lesson (0.5) but umm (0.5) not a completely new activities or strategies (0.5) but really enhancing the some of the things that are working **well** within the course and also so that the supervisor has a chance to see (0.5) the best in the students (0.5) because often they have to um be responsible for a large number of students
23	I	mmm
24	H	And they need a chance to see what it is that makes these students work well= (0.5) and where the breakdowns are happening (0.5) so (0.5) in some ways I'm also thinking if I had a class that there there is having great difficulty (0.5) I want them to see a variety of activities (0.5) um that I take them through so though I would say that although I don't do anything different, I might actually (0.5) do a a greater variety, and I would provide (1) possibly um a bit more scaffolding to it, or you know extra support (0.5) and looking more at the individual needs than I than hitting it full-on just one shot one (0.5) one chance to talk kind of thing
25	I	[laughs]
26	H	On a busy day (0.5) it's sort of like 'here it is for everybody' [laughs]
27	I	[laughs] Take it as you find it!

Appendix J

HIGHER COLLEGES OF TECHNOLOGY

Procedure:	Title: Performance Evaluations

1.0 Procedure

Performance Evaluations will be carried out on established criteria and specific aspects upon which the staff member's performance will be assessed.

Standards of Performance and Conduct:

- Perform the assigned duties at a high level of performance.
- Actively develop job skills.
- Support and implement the policies, procedures and other requirements of .
- Behave in keeping with the responsibilities of the position and the laws, customs, and traditions of .
- Follow the approved Code of Ethics.

Process:

- The performance of each employee shall be evaluated at least once a year, normally by the employee's supervisor, before the end of each academic year.
- Input from the employee's subordinates and peers, including student input where relevant, shall be considered in assessing the employee's performance.
- The employee's performance evaluation, including any requirements for improvement or development, shall be reviewed with the employee.
- A written record of the evaluation shall be placed in the employee's personnel file in Human Resources at .

Appraisal Instruments

Performance Appraisal forms are available through the College Human Resources Officer.

- Faculty, Teachers in Training: Employees who hold teaching appointments will be assessed using the Performance Enhancement Program (see *Academic Appraisal Form*).
- Employees holding Head or Supervisor positions, Professional and Academic Specialists, Administrative and Technical Services Employees holding Senior Officer or equivalent positions, Administrative Officers, Technicians, Senior Administrative Assistants, Administrative or Office Assistants will be evaluated using the *Non-Academic Appraisal Form*.

2.0 Related Documents

GP021 Performance Evaluations
GP021.2 Academic Appraisal Form
GP021.3 Non-Academic Appraisal Form

3.0 Approval and Review

Effective Date:	August 2008
Revision Date:	January 2010
Approved by:	HR Committee & Policy Council

Appendix K

HIGHER COLLEGES OF TECHNOLOGY
كلــيــات التقنيــة الـعليـا

Policy:	Title: Demotion of Employees

1.0 Rationale

_____ conducts continuous evaluation of staffing levels and the performance of employees in order to adapt to changing organizational needs to ensure organizational efficiency. In rare instances this requires the demotion of employees. Alternatively, a demotion may be requested by an employee.

2.0 Terminology

Demotion occurs when an employee moves from a position at a higher grade/level to one at a lower grade/level, e.g. _____ Supervisor to _____ Faculty.

3.0 Policy

The employee's contract will be modified to reflect the adjustment in salary to the appropriate level of the reassigned position. In general, benefits for a demoted employee will be maintained at the pre-demotion levels until the end of the current contract period. Demoted employees may be required to change housing prior to the end of the current contract. On contract renewal, the contract will be modified to reflect the benefits of the reassigned position.

Should an employee not agree to a demotion, _____ may terminate the employee with adequate notice.

4.0 Stakeholder Impact and Scope

This policy applies to all _____ staff. Exception to this policy can only be authorized by the Vice Chancellor.

5.0 Related Documents

GP D19.1 Demotion of Employees.

6.0 Approval and Review

Initiating Officer:	Associate Director – Human Resources
Reviewed and forwarded by:	Policy and Planning
Effective Date:	August 2008
Revision Date:	October 2010
Resolution Number:	

Approved as policy by Vice-Chancellor on: _____

Signature: _____

HIGHER COLLEGES OF TECHNOLOGY

Procedure:	Title: Notice Period

1.0 Procedure

During Probation

Three (3) year & Two (2) year Contracts:

Notice of resignation for employees in:

- Grades _____ must be given at least three (3) months notice.
- Grades _____ must be given at least one (1) month notice.

One (1) year Contracts:

Notice of resignation for employees in:

- Grades _____ must be given at least two (2) months notice.
- Grades _____ must be given at least one (1) month notice.

On completion of probation:

The applicable notice of resignation is detailed below:

Three (3) year & Two (2) year Contracts:

- Employees on Grades _____ must submit the resignation at least six (6) months before the last working day.
- Employees in grades _____ must submit the resignation at least two (2) months before the last working day.
- All other employees must submit the resignation at least one (1) month before the last working day.

One (1) year Contracts:

- Employees in grades _____ must submit the resignation at least three (3) months before the last working day.
- Employees in grades _____ must submit the resignation at least one (1) month before the last working day.

Notes:

1. The notice period, during probation and on completion of probation, involving teaching staff should coincide either with the end of the semester or end of the academic year. The Vice Chancellor may approve any exception in this regard.
2. In applying the provisions of the above paragraphs, employees who resign or are terminated and have been with the System for less than one year on their last working day, are not eligible for End of Service payment.
3. If employment is terminated during Probation, the employee shall receive salary or will be expected to work the notice period determined by the pay grade.
4. The Director may waive all or part of the notice period, or issue contract amendments, where it is in the best interest of the System.
5. Employees who resign and insist on the termination of services without meeting the provisions of the above paragraphs constitutes a breach of contract as stipulated in _____ the Human Resources Regulations.

Appendix M

Tertiary College Observation Form

PEP: Performance Evaluation (Self, Peer, Program Chair observation)
Blended Learning Lesson Observation Form:

√ those activities which occur. It is not expected that all activities occur in a given lesson.

Teacher		Observer	
Course	Section	Date of Observation	

TEACHER		

Recognition of Prior Learning and Knowledge	√	Comments
Elicited, used guided questions, used discovery method, quizzes, or diagnostic tests		
Checked pre-requisite skills e.g. IT skills, info retrieval; ability to access web-ct course		
Related lesson to learners' lives/needs/ experience		
Related lesson to past lessons /curriculum		

Content	√	Comments
Provided appropriate content		
Developed learner awareness of learning purpose(s)		

Classroom Management and Interactivity	√	Comments
Catered to different student needs/levels		
Broke lesson into logical steps/stages		
Opened and closed lesson effectively		
Seated students appropriately for activity (seating arrangements, positioning)		
Monitored activities effectively		
Built in challenging and realistic timelines for activities		

Rapport Building	√	Comments
Provided praise and constructive feedback		
Related well to learners e.g. used humor appropriately and used learner names		

Communication Strategies	√	Comments
Gave instructions using language appropriate to all learners		
Provided materials containing language appropriate to all learners		
Checked to see if learners weaker at English understood		
Provided opportunities for learner input		
Used "teacher- talk" effectively		

LEARNERS			
Diverse Learning Styles		√	**Comments**
Used materials appealing to different learner types			
Varied activities			
Encouraged student participation			
Used presentation techniques appealing to different learner types			
Individual activities			
Pairs			
Group work			
Whole class activities			
Learning Tools Used by	Teacher	Learners	**Comments**
• Textbook/handouts			
• Whiteboard			
• Equipment/tools			
• Projector & multi-media			
• Tablets/Computers/laptops/mobile phones			
• Smart-board			
• WebCT or online course			
• Internet/software			

Lifelong Learning	Mostly Teacher	Mostly Learners	**Comments**
Source of materials			
Planning and time management			
Organizational skills			
Analyzing data/information			
Problem-solving and decision-making			
Goal/task setting			
Learning process discussed			
Self-evaluation/reflection occurred			

ASPECTS		TEACHER	OBSERVER
	I liked		
	Would change		
	FURTHER COMMENTS:		

Teacher's signature:_____ Date: _____ Observer's signature: _____ Date: _____

Appendix N: Methodological progression research model

METHOD?   **WHO?**   **WHAT?**   **HOW?**

RESEARCH TOOLS

Case Studies

Research into classroom teaching behaviour

Interviews

Investigation of beliefs and understanding of model lessons

Teachers

Supervisors (Observers)

Pedagogic Lessons

Model Lessons

Post-lesson interviews

Interviews

Recording and transcription of lessons

Recording and transcription of interviews

Identification of significant commonalities and differences between model and pedagogic lessons

Analysis of Transcripts using SETT and Antconc

Identification of priorities when teaching/observing appraised lessons

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