

Teachers' Continuous Professional Development CPD in Algeria
and England: A Comparative Study of MFL Teachers in Medea
and London

AMINA ABDAT

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements of the University of East
London for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

November 2022

Abstract

This study explores how Modern Foreign Language (MFL) teachers in two research contexts in Algeria and England perceived their experiences with Continuing Professional Development (CPD). The study also explored the factors that MFL teachers perceived to have either supported or hindered them from engaging with CPD more profitably. The research is timely and original because it is the first empirical research that brings the two contexts together to document MFL teachers' perceptions of their engagement with CPD. It explores theories of workplace learning, focusing on Situated Learning Theory (SLT) to help unpack the different layers involved in teacher learning. These include the influence of government policy; the institutional learning environment; as well as teachers' individual dispositions to learning, which forms the conceptual framework for the thesis.

Research methods used to collect data in this study were non-participant observation and individual semi-structured interviews. Observations took place during formal CPD sessions of teachers and data was collected from these sessions using field notes. This helped gain an understanding of the CPD provision in the Algerian and English context. Individual semi-structured interviews were held with ten MFL teachers from each of the research contexts to gain an in-depth understanding of their experiences and engagement with CPD. Interviews were also held with two CPD coordinators from Algeria and one CPD coordinator from England to investigate the nature and purpose of the CPD sessions in the eyes of the CPD coordinators. Data analysis was carried out using thematic analysis to provide deeper understandings of teachers' perceptions of CPD.

The study identified teachers' CPD as a complex phenomenon with an amalgam of influences that impacted upon their learning. There are significant factors affecting MFL teachers' engagement with CPD including governmental policies that have promoted a culture of performativity and accountability in schools; the expansiveness, and/ or the restrictiveness of the institutional learning environment; as well teachers'

individual dispositions to engage in CPD opportunities. While the findings of this research have provided greater insight into the CPD provision for MFL teachers in both research contexts, it is hoped that it will also inspire for further research that would bring more light to the professional needs of MFL teachers in different educational contexts.

Myriad factors need to be considered when planning for formal and informal activities of CPD in secondary schools for MFL teachers. Based on the practical implications of this study, suggestions have been made to guide future CPD provision and make suggestions for school leaders, researchers, and policy makers to bring about changes to MFL teachers' engagement with CPD and practice.

Table of Contents

Teachers' Continuous Professional Development CPD in Algeria and England: A Comparative Study of MFL Teachers in Medea and London	1
Abstract	2
Table of Contents.....	4
List of Tables.....	9
List of figures	10
List of Acronyms.....	11
Acknowledgement.....	13
Dedication.....	14
Chapter One: General introduction	15
1. Introduction	15
2. Background of the study	16
3. Rationale of the study.....	18
3.1 Personal rationale for pursuing research.....	21
4. The research contexts.....	24
5. Comparative research	25
5.1 Defining comparative education.....	26
5.2 Importance of comparative research	27
5.3 Issues of comparative research.....	28
5.4 Concluding thoughts	30
6. Research aims and questions.....	31
6.1 The research aims.....	31
6.2 The research questions.....	31
7. Outline of the thesis	31
Chapter Two: Context of the study.....	34
1.Introduction	34
2. The current education system in Algeria and England.....	34
2.1 Schooling structure in Algeria and England.....	35
2.1.1 Pre-primary education.....	35
2.1.2 Primary education.....	36
2.1.3 Basic education in Algeria and Secondary Education in England	37
2.1.4 Secondary education in Algeria and A-levels/ or FE in England	38
2.1.5 Vocational education and training (VET)	38
2.2 Pathways into teaching.....	42

2.2.1 Pathways into teaching in England	42
2.2.2 Pathways into teaching in Algeria.....	45
2.3 Initial Teacher Education (ITE).....	50
2.3.1 Initial Teacher Education (ITE) in England	50
2.3.2 Initial Teacher Education (ITE) in Algeria	55
2.3.3 Concluding thoughts	59
3. The landscape of Modern Foreign Languages (MFLs) in Algeria.....	60
3.1 History of Modern Foreign Languages (MFLs) in Algeria	60
3.1.1 Colonial era.....	60
3.1.2 post-colonial era: the introduction of the Arabization policy	61
3.2 Teaching English as a Foreign Language TEFL in Algeria	64
4. The landscape of Modern Foreign Languages (MFLs) in England	65
5. Summary	67
Chapter Three: Continuous Professional Development (CPD) and professional learning (PL)	69
1. Introduction	69
2. Continuous Professional Development (CPD) and Professional Learning (PL).....	69
2.1 Continuous Professional Development (CPD)	70
2.2 Professional Learning (PL).....	73
3. Performative or developmental CPD.....	75
3.1 Professionalism, managerial or democratic?	77
4. The conceptual framework of the thesis.....	79
4.1 Introduction	79
4.2 The three levels of influence over CPD.....	82
4.2.1 The government.....	82
4.2.2 The institution.....	84
4.2.3 The individual.....	86
5. Teachers' perceptions of CPD: an international perspective	91
5.1 Concluding Thoughts	95
6. Summary	96
Chapter Four: Methodology.....	98
1. Introduction	98
2. Research Aims and Questions	98
2.1 The Research Aim	98
2.2 Research Questions	99
3. Researcher Positionality.....	99

3.1 Insider-Outsider Binary	102
3.1.1 The Evolution of my Researcher Positionality along the Course of Research	102
3.2. Power Relations in Research	105
3.3 Concluding Thoughts on Positionality	106
4. Philosophical underpinnings of the research	107
5. Research Paradigm	109
6. Research Design	111
6.1 Qualitative Research	111
6.2 Exploratory Research	112
7. Sampling Frame	112
7.1 Criteria for choice of schools	112
7.2 Sampling Technique	114
7.3 Participants	116
8. Research Methods	120
8.1 Rethinking the role of observations as a data collection method in this study ...	120
8.2 Semi-structured interviews	125
8.2.1 Piloting semi-structured interviews	126
9. Data collection	127
9.1 Access to Schools in England	127
9.2 Interviews	128
10. Data interpretation and analysis	131
10.1 Transcribing interviews	132
10.2 The use of thematic analysis	133
10.3 Stages of Data Analysis	134
10.4 Concluding thoughts	135
11. Ethical Considerations	136
11.1 Seeking Approval from UREC	137
11.2 Safety	138
11.3 Informed Consent	138
11.4 Anonymity and Confidentiality	139
11.5 Issue of Bias	140
11.6 Issue of Translation	141
11.7 Trustworthiness in Qualitative Research	142

11.8 Validity, Reliability and Credibility.....	142
11.9 Concluding thoughts	144
12. Data collection challenges	144
12.1 Methodological challenges	144
12.2 Challenges of data collection in England.....	145
12.3 Challenges of data collection in Algeria	146
13. Summary	148
Chapter Five: CPD Awareness, Engagement and Practices	149
1. Introduction	149
2. Teachers' awareness of CPD	150
• Algeria.....	151
• England.....	154
3. Forms of CPD	158
3.1 Lesson observation	158
3.1.1 Formal lesson observation	159
3.1.2 Informal lesson observation.....	162
3.2 Collaborative learning.....	167
• Algeria	168
• England.....	170
3.3 Self-directed learning	174
• Algeria	175
• England.....	179
4. Summary	182
Chapter Six: Content, Effectiveness and Barriers of CPD	184
1. Introduction	184
2. Content of formal CPD	185
• Algeria.....	186
• England.....	192
3. CPD effectiveness.....	198
3.1 Practical CPD.....	198
• Algeria.....	199
• England.....	201
3.2 Teachers' agency in CPD.....	202
• Algeria.....	202

• England.....	204
4. CPD barriers.....	207
4.1 Barriers of time and work overload.....	207
4.2 Financial barriers	216
• Algeria	216
• England.....	218
4.3 Working conditions in Algeria	220
5. Summary	223
Chapter Seven: Discussion Chapter	225
1. Introduction	225
2. Three levels of influence over teachers' CPD.....	225
2.1 The governmental level	225
2.2 The institutional level	235
2.3 The individual level	244
3. Summary	249
Chapter Eight: Conclusion Chapter	252
1.Introduction	252
2.Key findings of the study	252
3. Contribution of this research.....	255
4. Research recommendations and implications.....	256
4.1 At the governmental level	259
4.2 At the institutional level	261
4.3 At the individual level	264
5. Directions for future research	265
5.1 Dissemination of my findings.....	265
5.2 Directions for future research	265
6. Limitations of the study	266
References	268
Appendices	342

List of Tables

Table 1	The education system in England
Table 2	The education system in Algeria
Table 3	The current recruitment system for student teachers at the ENS
Table 4	The profiles of MFL teachers in England
Table 5	The profiles of MFL teachers in Algeria
Table 6	The profile of the CPD coordinator in England
Table 7	The profiles of CPD coordinators in Algeria

List of figures

Figure 1 Teaching Routes in England

Figure 2 Teaching Routes in Algeria

Figure 3 The Conceptual framework of the three levels of influence over CPD

Figure 4 Criteria for choice of schools in England

Figure 5 The CPD Model

List of Acronyms

CPD	Continuous Professional Development
MFL	Modern Foreign Language
TMFL	Teaching Modern Foreign Languages
FL	Foreign Language
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
TEFL	Teaching English as a Foreign Language
MoE	Ministry of Education
OFSTED	The Office for Standards in Education, Children's Services and Skills
PL	Professional Learning
TE	Teacher Education
TT	Teacher Training
UN	United Nations
PGCE	Postgraduate Certificate in Education

BEM	Brevet d' Enseignement Moyen
GCSEs	General Certificate of Secondary Education exams
VET	Vocational education and training
ENS	The Ecole Nationale Superieure
BA	Bachelor of Arts
MA	Master of Arts
CAPEM	Certificate of Aptitude for Teaching Middle School (Middle School Teaching Certificate)

Acknowledgement

The completion of this PhD could not have been possible without the help, support, and guidance I have received from my three supervisors:

- Prof. Gerry Czerniawski, a one in a million supervisor who has accompanied me in this journey since day one. His love for the profession, devotion, and commitment to help PhD students instilled in me passion and determination to finish this journey. His energy, high expertise, and rich knowledge in the field of teacher education was invaluable. Words cannot express my gratitude to you, Gerry for fueling my interest to accomplish my dream and get my doctorate. I would not have wanted to do this with anybody else. You have been a one-of-a-kind supervisor!
- Dr. Warren Kid, whose kindness, patience, and continuous support in my research did not only cover my thesis but also extended to accompany me to schools in London. His valuable help made it possible for me to meet MFL teachers in London to carry out interviews the study.
- Dr. Evgenia Theodotou, whose guidance and motivating words kept me going all these years. I could relate to her in my experience as an international student and as a woman coming from abroad to pursue PhD studies in the UK. Evgenia, your success and story inspired me to follow your footsteps and complete this project.
- I would like to extend my acknowledgement to my friends Soumia El Mestari, Hamda Mohamed, Ikram Berkani, Abir Drissat, Leyla Bouellague, and Randa Sellali. Our virtual writing retreats on Zoom during the pandemic and beyond significantly helped me to finish writing this thesis. You were my support system in the UK and your stories empower me every day to work hard and reach my potential.

Dedication

I dedicate this work to my mother Nacera Mazari and my late father Tahar Abdat (may he rest in peace)

To my dearest siblings: my sister Radjaa and brother Mohamed Tarek Abdat

To my beloved husband, Mohamed Hani Mohamed Abdel Shafi

Words can hardly describe my thanks and appreciation to you. You have been my source of inspiration, support, and guidance. You have taught me to believe in myself, and to always be determined to achieve my dreams and reach my potential. I am truly thankful and honoured to have you as my family.

To all those who believed in me

We did it!

Chapter One: General introduction

1. Introduction

The field of education has witnessed phenomenal growth worldwide, and many governments have directed their political agendas to improve the quality of their education systems. This consequently brought economical benefits (Towers and Maguire 2022). Teacher Education (TE) has been identified as one of the most significant factors that shapes the quality of education being delivered (Atwal 2016). As a result, teacher education programmes are a locus for political reforms across many international settings (Riveros and Viczko 2014), with attention geared towards teachers' CPD as an area of interest within this field (McNamara et al. 2014; Darling-Hammond 2013; Timperley 2011; Fraser et al. 2007; Kennedy 2005). The international literature on teacher education indicates that there has been high scrutiny on CPD due to the intense worldwide coverage that placed high attainment in pupils' academic achievements as a requisite to securing competitive advantage globally (Kennedy 2014).

Comparative and international education is a growing field of inquiry concerned with the study of a wide range of themes, such as educational policies and education practices of different education systems across the world (Phillips and Schweisfurth 2014; Green 2003). Although the contexts subject to comparison in this field are of different cultures and backgrounds, comparative research has played a vital role in enriching the field of research. The contribution of comparative research has been manifested in raising awareness of current challenges across various educational contexts; exploring similarities and differences between different education systems; and addressing, at times, key educational issues in developing countries. It can be said that research in comparative education has been beneficial in providing profound insights into teachers' lived experiences at their workplace and their TE programmes (see Parmeshwar Prasad et al. 2017; Adagiri 2014; O'Sullivan et al. 2012). However, there remains relatively little comparative research that spans continents to compare

MFL teachers' perceptions of CPD between vastly different countries such as Algeria and England.

This study is timely because it provides a comparative analysis of empirical data that captures MFL teachers' perceptions of their CPD experiences in two research contexts in Algeria and England. The study looks at the perceived impact of the current policy direction on MFL teachers' CPD, while also focusing on how they perceive their institutions' approach in mediating and enacting these policies into practice. The study, with caution paid to the key findings drawn from the research, acts as a steppingstone to further research into teachers' CPD and its impact on their practice. In this chapter, I lay out the background and the rationale for conducting this research. I also present an overview of the two research contexts where this research was carried out. As the nature of the current research is comparative, the chapter also draws on literature that addresses the value of comparative education while also highlighting the issues that are associated with this type of research. The chapter also establishes the research questions, highlights the study's aims, and concludes with the outline of the whole thesis.

2. Background of the study

I have always held a strong belief that the backbone of education is comprised of teachers; their contribution to build and shape future generations forms the bedrock for the success of nations. Nonetheless, as rewarding and exciting teaching is, it remains a highly demanding profession which requires teachers to often question their practice evaluate improve it. The subject of MFLs, particularly, is evolving rapidly as globalization has changed the conditions under which foreign languages are taught and learned (Kramsch 2014, p. 296). As teaching this subject can become challenging for practitioners, CPD is essential in supporting MFL teachers to identify strategies that can empower their practice.

Despite teachers being identified as the most significant element in improving the quality of education and CPD as the means to achieve such purpose, there is increasing evidence from research and studies of the ineffectiveness of CPD programmes in making sustainable changes in practice (Timperley 2011; Webster-Wright 2009; Borko 2004). In both Algeria and England, improving the performance of teachers has been a high priority in education policy respectively. Policy reforms in education have led to many changes in the teaching routes, set new criteria for teachers' recruitment and ultimately affected teachers' education and careers (Murray, Czerniawski, and Kidd 2017; Bellalem 2014). A consultation of policy documents issued by the Algerian and English governments illustrated high recognition of the significance of CPD in raising the standards of teaching and learning. However, much of the rhetoric found in governmental discourse about the high quality of teacher education programmes has not seen much light in real life. Current policies and practices in CPD are frequently based on assumptions about learning and practice that are in urgent need of more empirical research.

A great number of studies have been carried out in the field of CPD, books being issued, and articles getting published in well-known journals (Hayes 2019; Namamba and Rao 2017; Altun 2011). This has abundantly contributed to enriching the body of knowledge related to CPD. A series of initiatives were also introduced by many governments across the globe to enact large-scale reforms to teacher education (Ball, Maguire and Braun 2011; Fullan 2009). Nevertheless, although there is a growing body of international literature promoting scholarly dialogue about teaching, many teachers still struggle in their educational contexts to make their voices heard about the challenges they face in their careers. The purpose of this thesis is to explore MFL teachers' perceptions of their CPD experiences in two research contexts in Algeria and England. I aim to gain better understanding of the factors that MFL teachers perceive to support and/ or hinder their engagement with CPD and the different levels of influence that shape their views about their learning experiences. This thesis aims to act as a means through which a channel for professional dialogue about teachers' CPD can be promoted and sustained.

3. Rationale of the study

Education has always been considered a powerful tool that contributes to the economic prosperity of nations (Radcliffe 2022; Grant 2017). The quality of education is seen as essential to ensure high performance in the academic achievements of pupils, which can then drive long-term economic growth (Johnson et al. 2007). The strong correlation between learners' achievements and teachers' performance has constantly placed pressure on teachers to keep working on their professional development. Adagiri (2014, p. 20) contended that effective CPD is requisite in ensuring high quality of teaching, which is a determinant for the success of education systems around the world. Chronologically observed, after its independence from French colonization in 1962, the Algerian government sought to improve its education system by introducing several policies that aimed to present new methods of teaching (Benadla 2012; Bellalem 2008).

Despite these developments, the low level of education remains a fundamental issue in Algerian schools; the teaching profession therefore suffers from a serious decline in quality. The Legatum Prosperity Index™ (2021) reported that Algeria is ranked 107 among 149 countries in terms of quality of education. Since the Prosperity Index began in 2006, Algeria has moved down the rankings table by 13 places compared to 2017 (Legatum Prosperity Index 2021). The country is also faced with several challenges, ranging from a lack of resources and funding to poor infrastructure and disadvantageous working conditions (UNICEF 2014). The United Nations (UN) (2015) linked the low quality of education partly to the poor training of teachers and contended that the government must urgently meet the need for quality education (The North Africa Post 2015).

The Algerian government introduced political reforms to address the current challenges found in the education system (Bellalem 2014). The teaching profession became subject to several government-sponsored projects where a new curriculum was proposed. This centred around three platforms: school structure, teacher training and

teaching syllabuses, and textbooks (Bellalem 2008). These reforms aimed to increase the standards of education in schools and bring about positive changes (Benadla 2012; Baiche 2009). English as the first foreign language in the country is believed to have the potential to help raise the quality of education in Algeria (Belmihoub 2018). A shift of emphasis in educational reforms was directed towards pre-service and in-service training of EFL teachers with an aspiration to prepare teachers and equip them with the skills they need for teaching:

‘The Algerian Ministry started working on pre-service and in-service teacher education programs to solve the problematic situation of the quality of English language teaching’ (Rezig 2005, p. 1328).

In the last two decades, teacher training in Algeria took place at a number of educational institutions. Prominent amongst these were the ex-Institutes of Teacher Education (ITEs) and the *École normale supérieure* (ENS), Université. (see Chapter 2 for further details). Baiche (2009) argued that such institutions provided training that has been established since the 1960s, but which was not in harmony with the teaching/learning of English in Algerian secondary schools due to the absence of coordination between training institutions and EFL teachers’ practice. Findings from a study carried out by Blellalem (2008, p. 3) revealed that EFL teachers held pejorative beliefs about the new curriculum because of ‘an incompatibility’ of these beliefs with ‘the innovation’ introduced by the Ministry of Education (MoE). His study concluded that the Ministry’s educational reforms were not in line with social, political, and economic reforms. Therefore, ‘tensions arose because of lack of trust and dialogue within the Algerian educational system’ (Blellalem 2008, p. 3). In light of what has been said, the in-service training proved ill prepared for the introduction of these reforms and, in most cases, insufficient to respond to EFL teachers’ pedagogical needs.

The process of teaching and learning foreign languages is challenging as, in most cases, the languages taught and learnt are foreign for learners and sometimes for teachers as well. The need for CPD has underscored and gained great interest among

educators and policymakers and is premised on the emphasis of demands on teachers and the importance of learning foreign languages. CPD plays a vital role in shaping the teaching profession and teachers' careers. The Algerian context remains, however, under-represented by research in this field. As it is not a priority for the Algerian government's education policy agenda (Missoum 2015), little scholarly attention has been devoted to documenting teacher training and development in the Algerian context, let alone those for MFL teachers. Consequently, studies in the area of Continuing Professional Development in Algeria are limited in number, although there is extremely rich literature on CPD in England (see Hayes 2019; McNamara et al. 2014; Fraser et al. 2007; Kennedy 2005; Evans 2002).

The existing literature in the field of teacher education in Algeria discusses the problems and challenges in the field, but mainly through quantitative research. A qualitative exploration of CPD provision from the perspectives of EFL teachers is crucial to gaining an in-depth understanding of the experiences of EFL teachers with their CPD. The in-depth approach of the qualitative approach taken in the thesis allows us to understand the experiences of EFL teachers and CPD coordinators in relation to the phenomenon of CPD. Furthermore, the comparison of EFL teachers from Algeria with their counterparts of MFL teachers from England adds another dimension to the research, which allows for a greater understanding of CPD practices in different contexts. Therefore, in light of the existing literature and my personal experience as a former MFL teacher in both contexts, I believe the present research adds valuable findings to the literature and brings the factors that influence MFL teachers' engagement with CPD to the surface. For consistency and ease of reference, I continued to use the phrase MFL teachers to refer to all participants in the study (whether EFL teachers in Algeria or MFL teachers in London), as the English language is considered an MFL in the Algerian context.

With this research, it is hoped that a better understanding of the professional development of MFL teachers in different international settings like England and Algeria would make opportunities for professional development more closely aligned

with the needs of MFL teachers in both research contexts. There is limited research about MFL teachers' CPD to date undertaken in Algeria; this study is the first study to explore the perceptions of MFL teachers about their CPD at a regional level in Algeria. Exploring the phenomenon of CPD is significant as there is scarcely any documentation about empirical research in this field in Algeria. Therefore, there is a need to maximise the importance of collecting credible and reliable data on MFL teachers' CPD in order to reflect on the challenges compromising the implementation of powerful teacher learning and CPD. This facilitates the development of favourable atmospheres which are then encouraged and sustained.

A comparative study on CPD for MFL teachers between Algeria and England is a novel area that will add to the growing body of knowledge on teachers' CPD. It is estimated that this small-scale study will provide new insights for policymakers and school leaders of these two contexts. It may inspire lifelong changes to MFL teachers' CPD and practices in their respective regions. The study offers a number of suggestions including a CPD framework that gives insight into how future provisions of CPD can be improved. The research project will thus aim to contribute original research to a hitherto under-researched area in Algeria.

3.1 Personal rationale for pursuing research

As I reflect on the time I spent at university studying for my master's degree, I remember the great fondness I grew towards the teaching profession, and I think that most of us can relate to the great passion we share for this noble job. I had great aspirations to help my students become better citizens and be the teacher who inspires them to change their future. In fact, it was these altruistic ideas that drove me to choose teaching as a profession in the first place. I taught English as a Foreign Language at middle school for one year and it was my short experience in teaching that led me to choose, what I had initially thought would be the topic of my thesis, 'An Exploratory Study of Teachers' Continuous Professional Development (CPD) in Algeria'. This has interested me since I passed the teaching contest in 2015 in Algeria

and became an EFL teacher at middle school in the city of Medea. Nevertheless, as I immersed myself in teaching, I faced numerous difficulties that compelled me to reevaluate my views on the profession.. Under current global conditions of more performative accountability, I realised that my expectations of this profession were not even close to what reality is in real terms. I experienced what has been labelled by Jack Whitehead (2019, p. 2) as a ‘living contradiction’ because I have experienced a change in my attitude towards teaching and I found this very relatable to other colleagues.

Additionally, when I completed my MA degree at university, I found the transition from theory to practice challenging. At university, I was mostly equipped with the theoretical knowledge about teaching such as preparing lesson plans and marking students’ papers, I did not however have a chance to implement what I had learnt in an academic context. I confronted numerous challenges in the first months of teaching. Working at a school that is located in a remote area in Medea with very poor infrastructure did not make the situation any better. I taught overcrowded classes with mixed-ability groups of students and minimum teaching resources. While teaching at middle school, I began to reflect on the experiences I had at the level of the school where I worked. There were scarce opportunities for me to engage in CPD, both formally and informally. I had similar anecdotes from my colleagues who reinforced the impression I had built about the lack of support teachers are provided by the state and the institution. I sought help from colleagues who, at times, were willing to lend support to others. I also resorted to self- directed learning, where I looked for external resources for CPD, but was faced with lack of such opportunities in my district, Medea, or inability to access them for budgetary reasons.

When I finished my MA degree, I was selected to take a contest that grants a scholarship to the UK for doctoral studies. Fortunately, I passed the contest and the opportunity I had to carry out PhD research in England inspired me to change my first topic that focused solely on the Algerian context. Initially, I aimed for my research to investigate the perceptions of EFL teachers with their CPD so that it would be an eye

opener to the present provision of CPD in Algeria. Yet I was unaware of the drastic changes that were yet to occur to the nature of research , in terms of its aim and design. A steep learning curve in my research occurred when I decided to make it comparative. This took place when I immersed myself into the university life in London and engaged in talks about the education system of England and read about its diversity. As my passion and interest deepened when I started visiting schools in London, I realized that it would be more interesting to make my research comparative. The opportunity I had to access schools in London made me realise that I could use my education journey in England to carry out this research that would explore MFL teachers' CPD in England and Algeria. The choice for London and Medea as the two locations were therefore made based on convenience reasons and easy accessibility, seizing the opportunity that I am a citizen of Medea and student pursuing PhD research in London.

Along the course of my PhD journey in the UK, I was offered a position as an MFL teacher at one of the schools I conducted my research at in London. My positionality as a teacher from another country coming to England to teach was significant in terms of writing about CPD. The experience of teaching in another country was not as analogous as I thought it would be. The concept of CPD that I thought I knew about is not understood as the same between the two contexts; contextual specificity and my researcher positionality have hence become significant aspects of my research.

In this thesis, I chose to focus on teachers because I believe that they are key agents for the fulfilment of the functions of education. Their CPD, therefore, is crucial for the efficiency and effectiveness of the education system (Adagiri 2014). However, I have found that teachers' voices are not recognised or heard. This study is important because it focuses on teachers' perceptions of their CPD; it broadens our understanding of the reasons teachers perceive CPD and examines the value that they give to the CPD they receive. Additionally, conducting a comparative study enables an investigation into the cultural, political, and historical differences between England

and Algeria in relation to teachers' CPD. I was aware before starting my PhD that I would likely face problems in implementing my findings in Algeria's teacher education system. The findings from the present study endeavour to be a gateway for further research and perhaps a starting point for promoting dialogue between the macro and micro level related to the provision of teacher education in Algeria.

4. The research contexts

This section aims to give a brief background of the geographical contexts chosen for the study. Algeria is the largest country in Africa, with an estimated population of 45,698,123 as of November 2022, based on the latest United Nations data (Worldometer 2022). It comprises 58 provinces, including the current province under study, Medea. Each province is distinct from another by its peculiar traditional and cultural qualities. Due to its colonial history, Algeria emerged as a bilingual state after its independence from French colonization in 1962 (Benrabah 2007). As a result, Algeria became the second-largest Francophone country in the world and French is widely used in government, business, and media (newspapers, radio, local television) (see chapter 2 for more details).

Medea, the capital city of Medea Province, is located roughly 68 km south from Algiers. With a population of approximately 100,000 people, Medea comprises urban and rural areas, which are placed in districts and communes. It is divided into 19 districts (dairas) which are further divided into 64 communes. The study focuses on Medea, the capital city, and the boroughs surrounding the capital city as part of the province of Medea. Medea was selected as the case study in Algeria because it is my hometown and being a s indigenous citizen allowed for feasibility in accessing schools and approaching MFL teachers in the area.

The United Kingdom consists of England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland, with England being the largest country. The latest official government estimate of the population of England is 56,550,138 in 2022 (UK Population Data 2022). The field of

education in the United Kingdom is multifaceted and complex. With schools and education policy in the UK becoming a devolved matter in 1999, different reform policies and priorities led to divergence in the educational system and schooling structure across all four nations of the UK (Sibieta and Jerrim 2021). This research, however, focuses only on England. The capital, London is the most populous city of England and the United Kingdom, with an estimated population of 9,541,000 (UK Population Data 2022). London has a diverse range of people and cultures, and more than 300 languages are spoken in the region (Serrant 2018).

London is a much larger city than Medea in terms of area and population. The diversity of population in London is far bigger than in Medea. In sharp contrast to Medea, the schooling structure in London is largely diverse, with numerous types of schools prevailing in the city ranging from state, public, and academy to grammar and faith schools. All these different types of schools in London provide a range of choices to parents. On the other hand, most of the population in Medea relies on public provision (referred to as state schools in the English context) because it is the only choice available. Private schools are only available for the primary level of education. Based on underlying contextual factors, it can be argued that the types of schools in Algeria are completely different than the types of schools found in England.

5. Comparative research

This section aims to offer an overview of comparative research in education and discuss some of the methodological challenges encountered when conducting this type of research. In the past decade, comparative research has enjoyed a great deal of re-acceptance and has been revitalised within various disciplines, among which is educational research (Satybaldiyeva 2016; Nóvoa and Yariv-Mashal 2003). The popularity of comparative research may seem to relate to its potential to explore opportunities for cross-cultural policy learning. This study draws upon comparative research approaches to shed light on the professional experiences of twenty MFL teachers from Algeria and England in relation to CPD.

This research is based on a cross-national comparison between England and Algeria: two nationally distinct settings that could be worth studying more jointly than separately. An in-depth investigation of MFL teachers' perceptions is an amalgamation of MFL teachers' experiences, voices, and stories on how they engage with their CPD. Comparative research in teacher education has gained prominence in England (see Adagiri 2014; Czerniawski 2007; Stephens et al. 2004) but is less visible in Algeria. One indicator of this difference is the abundant bodies of research and organisations that specifically look at teacher education in England. Other forms of this existence can be seen in conferences, seminars, research reports and the considerable amount of literature ranging from books to journals that explore comparative education in England.

The two contexts in this study have never been researched in parallel, and their location in two different continents, Algeria and England offer a valuable area of study: Northern Europe and Northern Africa. There are noticeable differences in culture, traditions, economic status and, most significantly, in their education systems which constitute the core of this study's exploration. It is hoped that this research will be helpful for future studies that can draw on the findings revealed from this research in order to secure a more complete 'Tale of Two Cities' (Bray and Manzon 2005).

5.1 Defining comparative education

Mugo and Wolhuter (2013) define comparative education as 'a fully established academic field of study that examines education in one country (or group of countries) by using data and insights drawn from the practices and situations in another country, or countries' (p. 2). Along similar lines, Osborn (2004, p. 384) refers to 'comparative research' as the cross-cultural comparison of similarities and differences in social phenomena that a study such as this explores. On the other hand, Wilson (2003, p. 17) presented the definition proposed by Noah and Eckstein (1969) who stated:

'Comparative education is an intersection of the social sciences, education and cross-national study which attempts to use cross-national data to test propositions about the

relationship between education and society and between teaching practices and learning outcomes' (p. 127).

Comparative education involves the juxtaposition of two or more cultures to better understand how educational policies are being implemented and how educational systems function in a given context. On the other end of the spectrum, Cowen (2006) declared what comparative education is not,

‘...comparative education as an academic subject does not fix educational things, when they are broken; it does not serve the needs of Ministries of Education; it is not a branch of policy studies, it is not reducible to sociology, or to political science, or to history...’ (p. 570)

I agree with Cowen but simultaneously believe that even though comparative educational studies are not a political tool, they can still inspire revision of current educational policies rather than be used merely as a research method. For example, Khakpour (2012, p.25) argued that comparative studies could help design and implement educational changes by comparing the content and processes of successful education systems.

5.2 Importance of comparative research

Comparative research is of great value, as the conclusions and recommendations drawn from the findings may constitute the grounds to influence educational agendas and be used as an inspiration to reshape policy debates worldwide (Hallak 1990). One of the most salient features of comparative studies is learning from experiences in other countries (Steiner-Khamsi 2016). Khapour (2012) maintained that the foundation of modern and efficient education systems depends on new ideas and techniques generated from cross-international comparisons (p. 20). Like any other type of research, comparative studies carry with them potential elements of hazards as well as benefits. Exploring the similarities and differences can help achieve greater awareness and deeper understanding of the social reality of nations, providing that consideration is made to the set of social and cultural institutions, traditions, systems, lifestyle,

language and thought patterns (Khapour 2012). The rewards for practitioners can take the form of acquiring more skill in their practice and becoming wiser in relation to the choices they make through exposure to comparative education (Borrowman 1975, p. 354). The importance of comparative research is centred around going beyond ‘the intellectual and academic critique of education systems’ and emphasizing the importance of comparative approaches ‘as a way to legitimise national policies based on ‘international measures’ (Nóvoa and Yariv-Mashal 2003, p. 426).

5.3 Issues of comparative research

Several issues are associated with comparative research, which can affect its validity. For this study, several challenges related to the cross-national comparison of the two countries have arisen, such as problems of complexities and contextual sensitivity. Foremost, when dealing with comparative studies in two countries of different backgrounds and educational systems, the issue of policy transfer and borrowing from one cultural context to another is prevalent in comparative international education (Adagiri 2014, p. 24). Osborn (2004) warned that many comparisons risk overlooking the in-depth understanding of educational perspectives and practices gained when viewed through the lenses of professionals within their own cultural context Czerniawski 2015 also explained that oversimplified findings and superficial conclusions often accompany an inability to grasp complexities in language, history, and culture.

Alexander (2009) maintained that the issues highlighted above in comparative research can lead to ‘cherry picking and a desire to snatch something from one country expecting it, unproblematically, to work elsewhere’ (p. 2). Sobe and Kowalczyk (2012) agreed with this argument and clarified that there is a tendency in comparative research to universalise schools, teaching, and learning, assuming that research findings from one place can unproblematically have the same results in different settings (p. 56). Kennedy (2014) challenged the policy borrowing approach that seeks to replicate key aspects of high-performing countries’ policies without a deep

understanding of each country's problems and why specific solutions might work and others not (p. 698). These arguments indicate that borrowing ideas from one system to another requires more than a simple migration of policies. Therefore, it can be concluded that the complexities of cultures in comparative education must be considered.

Along the line of complexities in comparative research, the issue of contextual sensitivity and contextual qualification strikes as well (Czerniawski 2015). When conducting comparative research, there is a tendency to universalise educational systems and concepts across national systems, assuming that the meaning of a concept in a particular context mirrors another. In such cases, generalisations become very problematic as several factors influence the provision of education, such as the culture, infrastructure and political situation in a given context. I relate to this in my own experience in data collection when discussing the notion of familiarity and strangeness (Murphy and Burke-Tomlinson 2019; Kosci-Ryzko 2011; Harbers 2011) in comparative research.

My positionality as an overseas student from Algeria was put under the spotlight when I realised that my own understanding of what CPD encapsulates is entirely different from how teachers and educators in England perceive it. As a teacher coming from Algeria and taking on board a new teaching position in London, my teaching experience has allowed me to assimilate into the English educational system while simultaneously investigating MFL teachers' CPD in both contexts. This has also allowed me to unravel different realities between the two settings about CPD. This point is crucial as the notion of contextual specificity (Irwin et al. 2012; Salway et al. 2011) frequently surfaces throughout the conduct of comparative research between different contexts. Sobe and Kowalczyk (2012, p. 56) argue that paying more attention to how researchers conceptualise the contexts of schools and education systems is critical for advancing the field of comparative education, and indeed it is an area that educational researchers should be more concerned about. Consequently, I am carrying out the research for this study with caution paid to aspects of complexity and

contextual sensitivity. Nevertheless, I bear and acknowledge my responsibility for identifying any of the above-mentioned challenges, and this has been considered throughout the conduct of this research.

5.4 Concluding thoughts

Whether comparative studies are small or large, their importance is significant because they provide a greater understanding of different education systems and allow a chance to revise the policies of contexts regardless of their location. Comparative education gained a foothold in England, and this has been well documented in the literature, where it enjoyed great popularity among educators and researchers. As for Algeria, although the study of comparative education is an invaluable source of knowledge and inspiration, it has yet to receive much recognition among researchers and educational leaders. When compared to another country, every context has something to offer. However, , we cannot presume or expect that a particular policy or method that has worked well or did not in a particular context may be efficacious in another. In other words, we cannot assume that different educational policies can be applied in various places worldwide. Therefore, there is a call for greater attention to contextual sensitivity when conducting comparative research.

The renewed interest in comparative education is not simply a call to question the current education systems around the world with an aspiration to change. Novova and Yariv-Mashal (2003) contend that the focus of comparative education should not be on the ‘facts’ or the ‘realities’ but on problems. As facts such as events, countries, systems...etc, have been argued to be incomparable (p. 436), it would still be possible to highlight the differences and similarities between two or more contexts. Like any other comparative study, it is believed that the complex and subtle findings revealed from this study will be worthy of careful reflection, mainly to researchers interested in how context and culture can impact different systems and educational experiences.

6. Research aims and questions

6.1 The research aims

This study aims to identify, compare, and critically reflect on MFL teachers' perceptions of CPD in their own contexts in Algeria and England. The study also aims to provide a channel through which MFL teachers in Algeria and England can voice their problems and concerns and share their perceptions on their CPD provision. Additionally, the study aims to explore the formal and informal CPD activities that MFL teachers engage with in their contexts and which ones they find most valuable and powerful for their practice. Lastly, the study aims to investigate the factors that either support or hinder MFL teachers' engagement with CPD in Algeria and England.

6.2 The research questions

The central questions directing the research are:

- 1- What are the similarities and/or differences between MFL teachers' perceptions of CPD in their context in Algeria and England?
- 2- What are the perceived factors that support/ hinder MFL teachers in their contexts in Algeria and England from engaging with CPD?
- 3- What can be learnt about the provision of CPD for MFL teachers in Algeria and England?

7. Outline of the thesis

This thesis is organised into eight chapters which are summarized as follows, chapter 1 opens with a general introduction to the thesis. It then sets out the background of the study, followed by the rationale for conducting the research. Next, the chapter provides an overview of the two research contexts of the study. A further section in the chapter highlights the importance of comparative research in education. It presents the reasons that underpin the choice of this type of research and points out the issues associated

with comparative research. Finally, the chapter concludes with the research questions and aims that govern the study.

Chapter 2 gives an overview of the context of the education system in Algeria and England. It presents the schooling structure of the two contexts with a focus on the teaching pathways on offer for prospective MFL teachers. The chapter also touches upon the provision of ITE in England and Algeria. By doing so, it addresses different debates in the field, such as the policy paradox and neoliberalism in ITE. The last section of the chapter discusses the language landscape in Algeria and England. It starts by providing an in-depth account of the history of foreign languages in Algeria and ends with a discussion of the landscape of MFLs in England.

Chapter 3 provides a review of CPD-related literature. It examines the concept of CPD and addresses key debates about definitions, contestability of terms in the field and issues relevant to the research subject, such as the binary discourse of managerial and democratic professionalism. The chapter also presents the conceptual framework of CPD, which highlights the relationship between the different levels of influence over the provision of CPD. The chapter concludes with a number of comparative research in the field of teacher education that have looked at teachers' CPD.

Chapter 4 represents the practical part of the study. It outlines the research methodology, including my positionality in the research, philosophical underpinnings, the design and the paradigm of the research. The chapter also presents the study's sampling frame, including the sample of choice of schools, while providing a detailed description of the research methods adopted for data collection. The chapter discusses the researcher's positionality and brings to light how it has affected the overall conduct of the research. Finally, the chapter gives a detailed account of data collection procedures and data analysis framework and concludes with ethical considerations and methodological challenges.

Chapters 5 and chapter 6 present the findings generated from the semi-structured interviews.

Chapter 7 discusses the findings that have emerged from the study and showcases how these correlate with/ or differ from findings of other studies in the field. It also draws back to the literature and examines any correlation between the empirical findings and the literature.

Chapter 8 is the general conclusion of the thesis and aims to provide an overview of the study. It highlights the major findings and presents recommendations for the governments, school leaders, and MFL teachers. The chapter also proposes a framework of CPD that can be implemented by teachers, CPD coordinators, school leaders, and government stakeholders to bring about improvements to the provision of CPD for MFL teachers.

Chapter Two: Context of the study

1. Introduction

This chapter aims to present a thorough overview of the two research contexts of the study, Algeria and England. The chapter highlights key developments and reforms in the education system of the two contexts over the past few decades. It compares the schooling structure between Algeria and England and provides a detailed account of the teaching pathways that applicants can undertake to become qualified teachers of MFLs. The chapter also gives an overview of ITE provision in Algeria and England. In particular, it highlights key debates in the policy trajectory of ITE, such the policy paradox in TE. Finally, the chapter presents the landscape of MFLs in Algeria with a historical background of the latter's language policy after its independence from French colonisation in 1962. Finally, the chapter presents a review of the landscape of MFLs in England.

2. The current education system in Algeria and England

This section of the chapter focuses mainly on the education system of Algeria and England. It aims to familiarise the reader with the context of the present study and help understand the discussions informing the research. Each country is unique with different stages in the educational ladder. Algeria begins with preschool, primary, basic, secondary/ or vocational and higher education. England starts with preschool, primary, secondary, sixth form colleges/ or vocational and finally higher education. An illustration of these stages is found in Tables 1 and 2 in this chapter. This section will not present the literature related to education in Algeria and England separately but aims to add to the existing body of knowledge on comparative education by addressing the two-education system jointly. The following section will give a critical review of the schooling structure in Algeria and England.

2.1 Schooling structure in Algeria and England

The education system in Algeria is inspired by the Napoleon system in its form and history, which is linked to French colonisation (MERIC-Net, 2019). Such influence of the French colonisation on the structure of the education system in Algeria can explain the differences in the education stages between England and Algeria. The education structure in England begins from age 5, with full-time education being compulsory from age 5 to 18 for all children. Changes have been made in the education policies with the education and skills Act (2008), that came into effect in 2013 partially and 2015 fully. Revisions of the school leaving age were put in place as 16 at present and the education leaving age as 18 (Education and Skills Act 2018). This is different to the age range of compulsory education in Algeria, which changed after the introduction of the education reform of 2003. The reform affirmed that free and compulsory education is provided to all students from 6 to 15 in Algeria (Singh 2016), while free non-compulsory education extends until higher education, including doctoral level. The following section aims to outline each stage of the education system in each country.

2.1.1 Pre-primary education

The provision of preschool education in England is for children aged between 3 to 5 and those who are entitled to an optional, state-funded preschool education comprising 600 hours per year. This is provided in terms of exposing children to playgroups, community childcare centres, nurseries, and/or nursery classes in the school (World Bank 2020). This is similar to Algeria, where children whose age ranges between two and five are put under the care of such institutions by primarily working parents. Therefore, not all children are given the chance to experience preschool education. However, both countries have similar institutions that cater to this age category's needs, such as nurseries, which can be either public or private.

2.1.2 Primary education

The framework of early childhood education is common between the two countries where children aged between 4 to 5 (England) and 5 to 6 (Algeria) attend primary school reception. Notwithstanding the non-compulsory nature of the preparatory stage of education in Algeria, the state ensures the development of preparatory education. It continues its generalisation with public establishments and the private sector (Tounsi 2016). The aim of the preparatory stage of education in particular is to foster children's development of their personality, develop their language literacy and communication skills through game and fun activities, and to introduce children to the first elements of reading, writing and calculation (Law n° 08-04, the National Education Orientation Law 2008). The first stage of compulsory education in Algeria and England is primary education. Glavin (2014) asserted that the central goal of primary education is for pupils to acquire basic literacy and numeracy skills and establish foundations in science, mathematics and other subjects.

The degree of public regulation varies cross-nationally between England and Algeria. The Algerian government holds a strong monopoly in several fields of societal life, including education. Education in Algeria starts with primary education (*Enseignement Primaire*). The education policy data centre (2017) reported that until 2003, primary and middle schools in Algeria were combined and referred to as Fundamental Education (*Enseignement Fondamental*). With the 2003 reform, these two were separated into primary education and basic education. Presently, primary education in Algeria caters for children between 6 and 12 years. The age range in England is different as primary schools generally cater from 5 to 11 years old and usually occur within key stages. The first stage is the foundation years stage, starting from age 5 to 7 and is named years 1 and 2 of the education ladder. The second key stage is for pupils between 8 and 11 years old. This stage is referred to as the primary education stage. At the end of primary education, pupils take the SATs to transition into secondary education. This is similar to the formal examinations in the fundamental subjects of the national curriculum in Algeria which pupils take. The

national exam in Algeria marks the end of primary education and signals pupils' transition to the next level of the education ladder, that is, basic education. In England, Statistics on the attainment of primary, secondary and post-16 pupil results are presented in league tables. There is a similar process of showcasing the best results of the final examination taken by pupils in primary education in Algeria. This takes place locally between all primary schools at every wilaya (city). The transition from primary to secondary schools is relatively straightforward for state schools in both countries, where pupils move between the two levels of education depending on certain factors, such as the school's location. In England, however, pupils who want to study in private and independent schools need to pass an entrance examination. The next section will discuss the level of education that follows primary education in both countries.

2.1.3 Basic education in Algeria and Secondary Education in England

Education offered after primary education remains free and compulsory in both countries. Interestingly, while this is the second stage of education in Algeria and England, there is a different name allocated to this stage in education in the two countries. In England, primary education is followed by secondary education. In Algeria, it is called basic education (also called lower secondary) and provided at the level of middle schools. In Algeria, the Reform Act of 2003 extended basic education from 3 to 4 years, for pupils aged between 12 to 15 years old. At the end of basic education, students take the national basic education examination (Brevet d'Enseignement Moyen BEM) (Clark 2013). Based on their results in the BEM, students who are successful on the examination are awarded the BEM, which grants them access to secondary education or are oriented toward vocational training in the case of failing the national examination. In England, secondary education caters for pupils aged between 11 and 16. It is divided into two key stages: key stage 3 for pupils aged between 11 to 13 and key stage 4 for pupils aged between 14 to 16. This sub-division of secondary education does not exist for basic education in Algeria. Likewise, in

Algeria, secondary education in England ends with pupils taking final examination tests called the General Certificate of Secondary Education exams (GCSEs).

2.1.4 Secondary education in Algeria and A-levels/ or FE in England

In Algeria, free education extends to 3 years of high school (secondary education) and is provided for pupils aged between 16 to 18. In the first year of high school, students are oriented based on their grades in the BEM to either scientific and technical stream, which is particularly attractive to parents and students, or to the literature stream, with a sharp decrease in interest. After one year of high school, the two streams branch out into additional streams, some of which are perceived as rewarding and successful such as the Mathematics stream (Tounsi 2016). The baccalaureate exam marks the end of the secondary education cycle, considered the most important exam in the whole education ladder. Moreover, it gives its holders access to higher education (Hamdy 2007). Before 2013, The GCSE was used to mark the end of compulsory education in England. Nevertheless, as of 2013, this was extended to 16 years, and by 2015 to 18 years. After that, pupils have a variety of options ranging from continuing their studies for A-Levels (key stage 5) at sixth-form colleges, starting an apprenticeship, applying for an internship, or pursuing education at further education (FE) college (GOV.UK, 2020). The following section discusses vocational education and training offered in Algeria and England.

2.1.5 Vocational education and training (VET)

Vocational education in Algeria is provided for pupils who did not pass the BEM and no longer wish to proceed to secondary education (high school). These pupils are given the possibility to be integrated into vocational training. Vocational education in Algeria is not very prominent in the country, mainly because after its independence, the country was left with no national vocational education policy (Algeria Encyclopaedia 2018). The colonial authorities regarded vocational schools as the

second-class education options for Algerian citizens. This why it is not surprising that soon after independence in 1962, this type of schooling was perceived in a pejorative way (Algeria Encyclopaedia 2018). Presently, the European Training Foundation (ETF) (2020) indicated that VET enrolment has doubled since the beginning of the 2000s. Tounsi (2016) asserted that Algeria's s vocational provision of education and training is attributed to many flaws in 'the referral system' (p. 54). He further stressed that:

‘The link between national education and vocational training is not regulated in terms of orientation. As a result, vocational training and education remain unattractive and are often seen as a receptacle for academic failure. This takes us away from the objective of giving students the elements to choose a post-compulsory orientation, favouring the opening of the school to the sociocultural, technological, and professional environment’ (Tounsi, 2016, p. 55).

This commentary on vocational education and training in Algeria has been accompanied by a social stigma in Algeria, where vocational education is considered an inferior second choice for those who had little interest in formal education. . This could explain why despite clear evidence that showed vocational education are more likely to result in employment, Algerian students continue to enrol in universities in significant numbers (Mahdjoub and Miliani 2017, p. 123). The European Training Foundation (ETF) (2020) stressed that it is a priority for the Algerian government to improve the quality of VET as it has a relatively low-skilled labour force. The ETF also noted the absence of coordination between VET with general education and higher education and emphasised the need to facilitate dialogue and consultation between all the players and partners to meet the needs of the labour market (p. 6).

Similarly, in England, there is also a stigma attached to vocational education and training due to the division that exists between vocational and academic education. Chankseliani, Relly and Laczik (2015) asserted that raising the attractiveness of vocational education and training (VET) has been on the UK and the European agenda primarily for economic purposes. Nevertheless, a project carried out by Atkins and

Flint (2015) concluded that although recent policy reforms like the introduction of University Technical Colleges have succeeded in raising the esteem of some forms of VET, other short courses associated with 'employability' and 're-engagement' and vocational programmes will continue to be given the slightest educational advantage and held in lower esteem to those young people who pursue them from working-class backgrounds (p. 35). In this regard, Chankseliani, Relly and Laczik (2015) contend that consistent policy efforts are needed to spread excellence throughout the entire VET sector. It can be concluded that the two countries differ significantly in the structure of their educational system. A number of factors c help explain this discrepancy in the design of the education ladder between the countries, which can range from history to sociocultural and economic factors. The following two tables illustrate the two education systems of England and Algeria, respectively.

Child's Age on 31st Aug	School Year Group	Curriculum Stage	School Type		
3	Nursery	Foundation Stage	Nursery school		
4	Reception		Primary school		
5	Year 1	Key Stage 1			Infant school
6	Year 2				Key Stage 2
7	Year 3				
8	Year 4				
9	Year 5				
10	Year 6	Key Stage 3	Secondary school	Secondary school	
11	Year 7				
12	Year 8				
13	Year 9	Key Stage 4 / GCSE	Secondary school		
14	Year 10				
15	Year 11	Sixth form / A' level	Sixth form college		
16	Year 12 (Lower Sixth Form)				
	Year 13 (Upper Sixth Form)				

Table1: The education system in England

Child's Age on 31st August	School Year Group	School type	
2-4	Nursery	Nursery school	
5	Reception	Primary school	Primary education
6	Year 1		
7	Year 2		
8	Year 3		
9	Year 4		
10	Year 5		
11	Year 1	Middle school	Basic education
12	Year 2		
13	Year 3		
14	Year 4		
15	Year 1	High school	Secondary education
16	Year 2		
17	Year 3		

Table 2: The education system in Algeria

As illustrated in tables 1 and 2, the structure of the schooling systems between Algeria and England is quite similar; however, some disparities exist. The entry age into the school levels is different between England and Algeria. In England, children start their reception at four and formally start year 1 of primary schooling at 5. This is different in Algeria, where children enter reception at five and start their primary education at 6. The years spent at primary school also differ between the two countries. Whereas children in England spend six years at primary school divided between infant and junior school, this has changed in Algeria to 5 years in 2003. Primary education is followed by five years of secondary education in England which parallels to four years of basic education in Algeria. The next stage of education in England is A-levels attended at 6th-form colleges or further education colleges. In Algeria, most students who pass their BEM examination successfully proceed directly to secondary education

or are oriented to VET if they fail the BEM exam. Free education in Algeria extends to higher education, while free education in England stops at the end of A-levels/ sixth form. The following section presents pathways into teaching in the two research contexts.

2.2 Pathways into teaching

There are different pathways on offer for teachers' recruitment and ITE in Algeria and England. The Algerian and English governments introduced several reform policies to reframe teaching pathways and framework for Initial Teacher Education (ITE). This section will give an overview of the variety of pathways that exist into teaching for MFL teachers in the two research contexts under scrutiny, Algeria and England.

2.2.1 Pathways into teaching in England

Teacher education in England has undergone major changes in the last three decades following interventions by the English government on Initial Teacher Education (ITE) (Murray and Mutton 2015). Such changes had an impact on the teaching pathways on offer, resulting in them becoming increasingly diversified (Barton et al. 1996). Getting teaching positions in England is generally competitive, but arguably, could be less for subjects that suffer from shortage in staff, such as MFLs (Swain 2022). This section aims to identify the main pathways that lead to teaching in England including postgraduate, ITE/ITT providers, undergraduate, and employment-based.

The most common pathway into teaching in England is the Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE), which can be completed by enrolling on a university-led initial teacher education programme (Hobson et al. 2006). The PGCE was launched as part of the English government's intention to move ITE from universities to schools by establishing partnerships between higher education institutions (HEIs) and schools. The degree of PGCE runs over a period of one year full-time or two years part-time (Swain 2022; Reid & Caudwell 1997). As part of their training, teachers spend their time at university or placement in schools (Swain 2022). Hobson's (2002) study revealed that most of student teachers enrolled on secondary PGCE programmes in

England were expected to obtain their learning more from schools with school-based mentors than from universities with university tutors (cited in Hobson et al. 2006, p. 60). Swain (2022) asserted that student teachers spend up to two-thirds of their time on placement in schools. After a satisfactory one year of employment as a newly qualified teacher (NQT), teachers are usually recommended to apply for Qualified Teacher Status (QTS) (Parfitt 2020).

Another possible pathway into teaching is to get a QTS through completing a teacher training course (GOV.UK 2022) or a program of Initial Teacher Education (ITE) (Hall et al. 2018). State-maintained schools would request for their teachers to have a qualified teacher status (QTS), but since May 2010, the English government policy loosened restrictions on requirements to become a teacher. At present day, free schools, academies, and private schools do not specify QTS as a requirement when hiring individuals (DfE 2021), but it remains still advantageous to have it.

Another teaching pathway in England is the undergraduate route, completed at university on a comprehensive 3 (full-time) or 4 years (part-time) programme. This is ideally for candidates who do not have a degree yet, to study for either a Bachelor of Education (Bed), Bachelor of Arts (BA) or Bachelor of Science (BSc) (Swain, 2022). Completion of this degree will give the student Qualified Teacher Status (QTS) in England. Furlong et al. (2000) assert that this route has lesser and declining numbers of prospective teachers (especially for the secondary phase) (cited in Whiting et al. 2018, p.71)

Graduates who aspire to become teachers in England can also consider the employment-based route. The Graduate Teacher Programme (GTP) was the first provider of this route, introduced by the then Teacher Training Agency (TTA) in 1990s (OFSTED 2002). It is noteworthy that the GTP was developed as part of the Licensed and Articled Teacher Scheme which allowed students with an undergraduate degree from university to become teachers without completing a postgraduate study (McNamara et al., 2017). Through the GTP, the TTA (2003) contended that schools

are able to employ unqualified teachers while training them to meet national standards for qualified teacher status (QTS) (cited in Griffiths, 2007, p.107). However, in 2010, the GTP closed down and was substituted with the School Direct programme, which is still in operation today. The School Direct programme aims to provide student teachers with an experience of working while learning on the job (Beauchamp et al. 2015 Lamote & Engels 2010). The pathway gives a chance to schools to accept applications from candidates with less professional experience to attract individuals to teach subjects that are difficult to fill (GOV.UK 2014). The following diagram illustrates the different routes to teaching that exists in England.

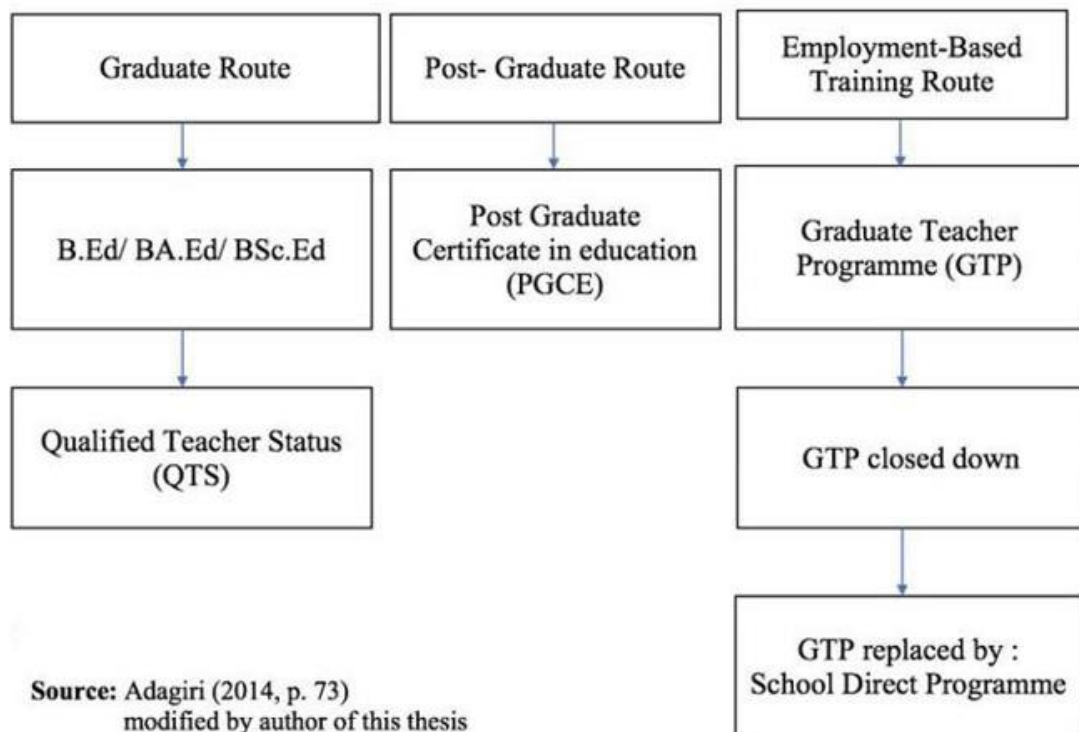


Figure 1: Teaching Routes in England

From the above diagram, we can see that there exist in England several officially recognised routes to gain a teaching qualification which highlights striking changes in the history of England. A variety of pathways are available for candidates to choose from, with salient features that exist between each one of them. Although the outcome

of training provided by the different bodies enables candidates to get a teaching qualification, the setting, nature and quality of the preparation offered can vary significantly between ITE providers, such as the school-based route, the graduate route or the PGCE with HEI-led ITT partnership with schools (Murray & Mutton 2016).

Despite the multiple pathways to teaching, the problem of teacher shortage in England appears to be ongoing. Morris (2015) asserted that the lack of teachers in English schools is considered a crisis. This can be due to several factors that deter candidates from entering the profession. On the one hand, one would argue that the different pathways into teaching may not always be well understood by applicants and can be confusing to those who wish to join the profession (Fifth Report of Session 2016-2017). On the other hand, (Coughlan 2015) argued that new graduates are not interested in becoming teachers due to the large amount of paperwork, constant changes in the curriculum after a change of government and the generally heavy workload. This section has presented the different teaching pathways available in the UK. The following section will present pathways into teaching in Algeria.

2.2.2 Pathways into teaching in Algeria

The French colonisation of Algeria caused significant changes to the teaching pathways available for prospective teachers. After gaining independence in 1962, Algeria was left with staff that had minimal literacy level. The government introduced several reforms to the teaching profession that brought about changes to the pathways available for applicants to join the profession. This section will give an overview of the different pathways into teaching on offer for prospective MFL teachers in Algeria.

The first pathway into teaching in Algeria was introduced in the early 1970s, a few years after its independence from French colonization, through the establishment of Instituts Technologiques de l'Education (ITEs). The ITEs were training centres operating under the Ministry of Education (MoE) and aimed to improve the quality of initial teacher training (ITT) for teachers at all levels of education in Algeria (Bellalem 2008). At the ITEs, the training of teachers ran over a period of 2 years, and it was an

effective solution to address the national shortage of language teachers in the country and ensure a continuous and gradual improvement in the preparation of teachers (Ouarzeddine, Gomatos, and Ravanis 2020).

The later years of 1990s marked a profound change in the teaching pathways available in the country. A new reform was launched by the Algerian government which introduced revisions to initial teacher training programs (Bekhouche 2020). The ITEs were closed and replaced by the École Normale Supérieure (ENS). Five new ENS establishments were created in different regions of the country. From 2016, the number of ENS increased to 11 establishments operating under the supervision of the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research. The ENS became the only centres responsible for the ITT of teachers of all educational cycles in Algeria (Guendouz-Benammar 2017). Access to ENS is conditional to a computerized selection of applicants based on their average in the baccalaureate exam. Additionally, a further interview is held where applicants must express the reasons why they merit access to the ENS, supported by a cover letter. Upon approval of entry to study at the ENS, prospective teachers sign a contract with the Ministry of Education that gave them the right to be assigned a teaching position upon completion of their degree. The duration of the programme is different depending on the cycle applicants choose (primary school teacher, middle school teacher, or high school teacher). The following table illustrates the duration of the programme for each cycle at the ENS:

Number of Years of studies	Level of Teaching
Baccalaureate + 3 years	Primary School Teacher (P.S.T)
Baccalaureate + 4 years	Middle School Teacher (M.S.T)
Baccalaureate + 5 years	Secondary School Teacher (S.S.T)

Table 3: The current recruitment system for student teachers at the ENS

From the table above, we can see three different levels of teaching qualifications offered at the ENS. These levels are selected based on the grades student teachers receive in their foundation year. With that being said, student teachers who study for three years become primary school teachers (PST); those who study for four years become middle school teachers (MST), and those who study for five years become secondary school teachers (SST) (Bellalem 2008). A few universities across the country work in partnership with the MoE to contribute to the ITT of the workforce by following rigorously the programs applied at the ENS. Student teachers for all school levels receive training (theory) at the ENS/ or university followed by practical training at schools where they get up to 4 months placements and are supervised by a mentor teacher (Ouarzeddine, Gomatos, and Ravanis 2020).

Similar to the graduate school in England, the graduate route in Algeria is a prevalent pathway for students studying for an MFL degree at university, and for those who aspire to become teachers. The Ministry of Education runs recruitment examination, mainly to cope with teacher shortages, especially in rural areas (Bellalem 2008). Graduates with a Bachelor of Art (BA) degree in an MFL can take the recruitment examination to teach at primary or middle school level. Graduates who have an MA (Master of Arts) degree in an MFL can take the recruitment examination to teach at secondary school level. The examination involves a written test followed by an interview where potential recruits are examined orally on their knowledge of teaching pedagogy and methods of teaching (Bellalem 2008). The successful candidates are offered teaching positions and are summoned to attend an Initial Teacher Training (ITT).

The graduate route is not as teaching-career focused as the ENS but instead provides students, who study for a BA in an MFL degree such as French or English, with a basic knowledge about British civilisation, British and American literature, Phonetics and Linguistics. A study conducted by Ounis and Kaouli (2020) with three MFL inspectors revealed that participants' overall evaluation of the content for university programme for students who decided to become teachers showed that 'the programme

student teachers receive at university does not allow them a full mastery of the didactic and psychological aspects of teaching. Their programmes are well-varied but often not oriented towards the teaching profession' (p. 1143). Aouali (2021) argued that the university route does not support the professional needs of MFL teachers, and it is limited in preparing prospective teachers both quantitatively (time allocation for subjects) and qualitatively (the content of subject knowledge) (p. 64). Ounis and Kaouli (2020) argued that graduates from university often possess a good linguistic background, but usually a very limited experience in teaching (p. 1142). They asserted that due to the gap between what is theoretically taught at university and the requirements of the actual classroom practices, novice teachers are 'often faced by many challenges that require a certain training that is unfortunately missing from their courses at university (p. 1136). A study carried out by Bekhouche (2020) explored the experiences of newly entrants into the profession and revealed that trainee teachers faced numerous challenges in their first year, leading to many abandoning the profession. Regardless of these difficulties, newly graduates from university, are still more likely to take a teaching position after graduation due to the high unemployment rate for MFL graduates reaching a percentage of 22% in Algeria (Madoui 2015).

In their first-year teaching, trainees are put on a one-year probationary period in which they receive 15 hours minimum mentoring at the workplace or at a school near their location by an experienced teacher-mentor (Bellalem 2008). Throughout the one-year probationary period, trainees receive regular visits from their inspector (Ouarzeddine, Gomatos, and Ravanis 2020). At the end of their first year, trainees are awarded a Qualified Teacher Status (QTS), providing the success of their probationary period. The following diagram illustrates the different routes MFL teachers can undertake to join the teaching profession in Algeria:

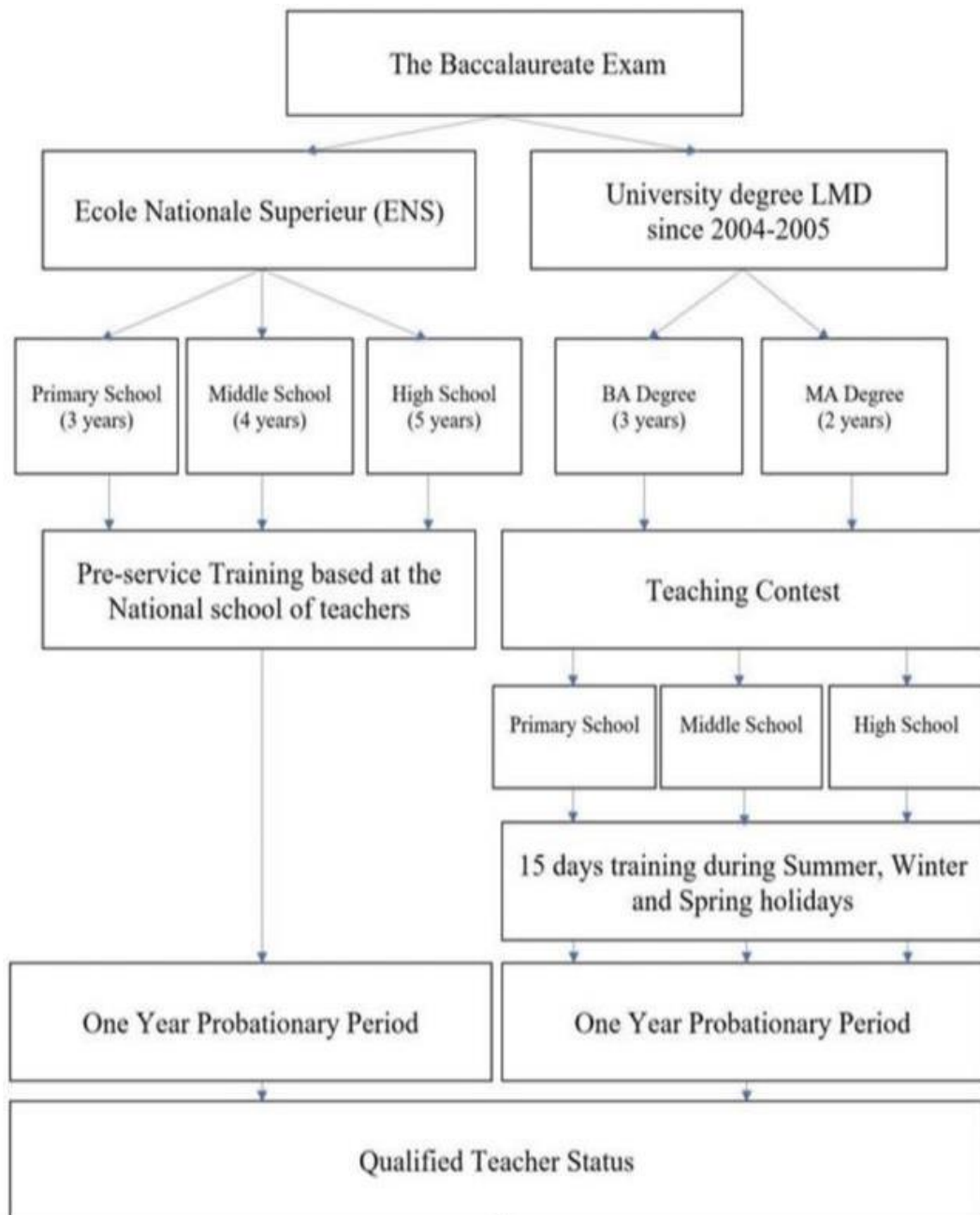


Figure 2: Teaching Routes in Algeria (developed by author of this thesis)

The above diagram shows that there are mainly two types of pathways for teachers' recruitment and initial teacher education (ITE) in Algeria at present time. Several features of interest emerge from the diagram. One particularly salient point is the recruitment examination currently held in Algeria, where many candidates compete to

get a teaching position and become MFL teachers. The teaching examination involves a written test followed by an oral test (Bellalem 2008).

This section has presented the various pathways to teaching available in England and Algeria. In both countries, various routes exist for students and candidates to enter the teaching profession. Nevertheless, it is noteworthy that even when they receive a high-quality initial teacher education, MFL teachers' quest for knowledge cannot only be achieved with ITE. In order to be able to manage the ever-changing challenges MFL teachers face along their careers, continuing professional development (CPD) should follow from the initial teacher training and act as a vehicle to improve their practice and develop new skills (Eaton & Carbone 2008). The following section aims to explore the provision of ITE in England and Algeria.

2.3 Initial Teacher Education (ITE)

The definitions, structure and setting of initial teacher education have changed and been reshaped throughout the 19th and 20th centuries (Taylor 2008; Stephens et al. 2004; Brooks et al. 1997). This has resulted from the increased rivalry to improve the economy accompanied by international comparisons of performance which have become a catalyst to reshape teacher education (Brown, Rowley and Smith 2015). As a result, initial teacher education is governed by conflicting concepts that are highly contested, and its landscape has witnessed a contentious change for numerous years (Murray et al. 2017; McNamara et al. 2014; Darling-Hammond 2013). This section aims to address the policy trajectory of ITE in Algeria and England while simultaneously attempting to touch upon the debate of key issues in the field, such as the divide between theory and practice.

2.3.1 Initial Teacher Education (ITE) in England

In England, ITE has witnessed a 'persistent turbulence for the last thirty years' (McIntyre et al. 2017) with a propensity to return to practice and changes in the legislature since 1984 (Migliarini, & Stinson 2020). The changes in TE were

accelerated when the Conservative Coalition Government (2010-2015) came into power and were relentlessly pursued after that by the Conservative administration (2015 onwards) (Mutton and Murray 2016). As a result, ITE has become more politicised and positioned as an operational process to change the structure of teacher education and control changes at the school level (Furlong 2019; Trippestad et al. 2017). Moreover, there has been an expansion of different routes into teaching, resulting in an increasingly complex and diverse pattern of training provision (George and Maguire 2019), along with different interpretations of the nature of teaching and how and where teachers' training is to be carried out. The value of partnerships with ITE university providers has been questioned, and this has been tightly linked to 'a neoliberal agenda, with the strong regulatory framework and appeal to market mechanisms' (Mutton et al. 2017, p. 16). All these significant complex issues in the policy landscape of TE in England signalled the recognition of teacher education as a 'policy problem' (Cochran-Smith 2004). In this section in the literature, I aim to give an overview of teacher education in England while establishing a link of how neoliberal principles have contributed to framing the delivery of TE in England at present; central to this is the issue of political paradox that exists between the government's discourse on TE and what is actually practised in the real terrain.

2.3.1.1 Neo-liberalism in Initial Teacher Education (ITE)

The introduction of policy reforms to teacher education in England has been driven by neoliberal policies. Sanderse and Cooke (2019) claimed that teacher education in the UK had been strongly influenced by the neoliberal policies, which promoted decentralisation and privatisation of public schools and universities. This has subsequently resulted in a profound impact on teachers' professional development. Struthers (2017) addressed the impact of the political climate in England between 2010 and 2016 and contended that the neo-liberal agenda had shaped the legislation of Initial Teacher Education (ITE). According to Ball (2016), the practices associated with neoliberal reforms, including the privatisation of teacher education, have led to education changes and given rise to a slow burn of the sector. He also affirmed that all

this aimed to improve the economy. However, as a result, it imposed a change to a less democratic culture, undermining the professionalism of teachers and harmfully changing the subjective experience of education in the pursuit of measures, targets, and tests. Brown, Rowley and Smith (2015) asserted that the diversification of teaching routes, the alleviation of regulations to employ teachers with no qualified status, and the devolvement of the responsibility to the market demonstrate a commitment towards neoliberal principles (p. 12).

One of the most significant concerns about the widespread of neoliberalism and privatisation of education is the lack of equity it promotes in the education sector. For instance, Mendez (2017) found that the neoliberalism system has considered strategies to increase the performance of poor people. However, it turned out to be dominated by the upper and middle class. This has resulted in inequality in the initial teachers' education system rather than equal opportunities between schools and universities (Mauri et al. 2019). Along similar lines, Schlicht-Schmälzle et al. (2011) argued that the conflict between public regulation, on the one hand, and the market model, on the other hand, describes one of the most fundamental political struggles. Their cross-national comparative perspective pointed out that only higher social classes benefit more from deregulation, increasing educational inequality.

Moreover, Olssen (2016) pointed out that neoliberal policies emphasise the achievement and performance targets in core subjects, leading to neglecting students who cannot demonstrate their learning up to the mark. He claimed that this represents 'a new, more sinister phase of neoliberal control' (p. 129). Last but not least, an analytical review of teacher preparation programs by Rodriguez and Magill (2016) revealed that several factors hinder the success of teacher preparation programs, including a pervasive and closed neoliberal epistemology (p. 7). It can be concluded from the review of relevant literature that there is a shared consensus amongst educationists in the field about the negative impact of neoliberal policies on TE. The following section aims to discuss the role of higher education institutes (HEI) in ITE in England.

2.3.1.2 The Role of Higher Education Institutes (HEIs) in ITE in England

The change that took place in teacher education due to the introduction of neoliberal reforms was accelerated with the deregulation of the schooling system and the monitoring of ITE (Migliarini, & Stinson 2020). The reforms led to changes in initial teacher education framework and partnerships among schools and universities (Murray, and Mutton 2016). Higher Education Institutes (HEIs) have been prominently present in the landscape of ITE in England, and there is ample evidence that testifies to the significant role they played in preparing teachers for their profession. The university-led provision of ITE was committed to combining viewpoints from research in the education field with calls for performativity, pedagogical and subject knowledge (Orr & Shreeve 2017).

Described as a 'pendulum swing' (Murray and Mutton 2016, p. 72), ITE in England has moved further away from the dominance of HEIs (Mula et al. 2017). Due to the changing landmarks in initial teacher education between 1990 and 2017, there has been a move towards school-based and school-led programmes of ITE (George and Maguire 2019). The current reforms to ITE provision have been characterised by a 'turn to the practical' (Beauchamp et al. 2013), and this has led to the creation of a division between theory and practice in teacher education in England (McNamara, Murray and Phillips 2017; Brown, Rowley and Smith 2015). Therefore, the principle of HEIs to build unique and intellectual teachers has been constantly eroded in the array of routes and providers who now house school-led ITE. Instead, the new culture, framework, and institutional organisation of ITE are more instrumental, focusing mainly on mastering subject-specific content and shifting ITE to a school-focused enterprise resulting in a thorough change in the epistemology of ITE. (Murray and Mutton 2016). Therefore, these political reforms have aimed mainly to exert more control and re-locate teacher education from academia to a primarily practical, pertinent and school-led assessment by the government (Kosnik et al. 2016; McNamara & Murray 2013).

The rapidly changing policies have created some instability for many universities. It is argued in the study of Mutton (2017) that teacher education in the UK has stepped away from HEIs and moved towards promoting a more significant role of the school system. The ambition for more practical preparation and training of teachers with training places reallocated to schools has triggered major policy dispute and controversy. Nevertheless, the role of university-based teacher education should not be undermined here. As Peiser et al. (2019) highlighted, teacher education in the UK has had a strong relationship with utilising the effective partnership and dependency between schools and universities based on the core subject, clear vision, and mutual understanding of HEIs (Hedegaard-Soerensen 2020). Cochran-Smith (2018) further identified through Carter's review that teachers' training must involve a strong association between schools and universities, promoting interaction and collaboration among teachers in the ITT program. An effective partnership is the optimal combination of training through a range of different schools and universities (Mauri et al. 2019). It is therefore advised that the government's vision of schools leading recruitment and delivery of training for teachers is combined with a vision that appreciates and recognises the role HEIs in the education of teachers. The next section will discuss the policy paradox of TE in England.

2.3.1.3 Policy Paradox of TE in England

There has been an altered message in the policy initiatives introduced by the English government regarding the valuable place HEIs occupy in the education and preparation of student teachers. While the English government acknowledged the contribution of HEIs and recommended for ITE providers to continue working closely with them (DfE 2011; Ofsted 2011; Ofsted 2010), there has been a sustained ideological attack on teacher education establishments as well as on the input from universities and the educational theory it provides in ITE (Menter et al. 2017, p. 623). The definition of the 'good' teacher has also been reconstructed by concentrating on competencies and skills at the expense of seeing education as an intellectual discipline

(George and Maguire 2019). In 2010, a provocative claim was made by the then Secretary of State for Education, Michael Gove, in the White Paper 'The Importance of Teaching', which has significantly disrupted and fragmented the provision of TE since then. Gove (2010) demonstrated a commitment to view teaching as a craft rather than a profession, which was best learned on an apprenticeship basis and most fittingly honed by observing excellent teachers in schools (Mutton et al. 2017). The ongoing initiatives since the publication of the White Paper in 2010 have consistently sought to reform initial teacher training so that more training is on the job. There has also been an expansion of different routes into teaching, resulting in an increasingly complex and diverse pattern of training provision. The diversity and choice of different routes into teaching have resulted in fragmentation and incoherence of these routes. George and Maguire (2019) argued that as a result of this, in the marketplace of English ITE, 'there is now a complex amalgam of choice, competition, deregulation and flexibility' (p. 24).

A further dissonance has been noted between the political reforms of the English government in terms of appreciating research-informed TE. It is perplexing to see that the policy rhetoric calls for the engagement of teachers in the field of research and encourages 'Evidence-Based Teaching' (Mitchell, & Sutherland 2020; Masters 2018; Culyer et al. 2018). At the same time however, the development of the new frameworks puts the sustainability and capacity of various University Schools of Education, the classic homes of research-informed methods of teacher education, in danger (Furlong 2019). Henceforth, policies regarding more time spent in class are just for preparing the teacher for their role, not for the creation of better teachers. I would argue that policies need to be carefully planned, assessed, and implemented to establish a sense of how teacher learning can be best promoted in very challenging and complex circumstances (López-Pastor and Sicilia-Camacho 2017).

2.3.2 Initial Teacher Education (ITE) in Algeria

Education is now, more than ever, regarded as a significant driver of social and economic change. The Algerian educational system has been marked by successive

changes to meet the country's political, social, and economic growth needs and improve the quality of education provision. Nonetheless, regardless of all the efforts deployed to reach this aim, it is generally accepted that no education reform will be effective unless the actors who carry it out have obtained the requisite education and training (OECD 1989). In the Algerian context, similarly to the English context, teacher education has been identified by the Algerian government as one of the factors that can improve the quality of education. Ultimately, teachers have found themselves key actors in these endeavours to improve the quality of education. In 2003, a series of reforms were launched by the Ministry of Education (MoE) with an aim to enhance the quality and efficiency of education (Rezig 2011; Bellalem 2008). The reforms established a strong link between improving teaching quality and teachers' pedagogical training (initial and in-service training). Nevertheless, it would seem that teacher education appeared ill prepared for the greater challenges and pressures that emerged from these reforms (Bellalem 2008).

Notwithstanding the substantial efforts exerted to improve the quality of education, Algeria's history of 132 years of French colonisation, which lasted until 1962, has had a significant impact on education and has left the country with poor infrastructure and limited conditions in schools. Haouam (2014) claimed that:

‘Algeria's educational policies have always been overly optimistic, given the country's limited human and material resources along with other significant deficiencies such as overloaded systems and outdated teaching methods’ (p. 7).

However, in most official discourses about contemporary national education, teacher training and retraining have been given a strong emphasis. For instance, the Official Gazette of the Republic of Algeria (2012, p. 42) announced:

‘Given the importance of training as an essential tool to achieve high quality of education and improve both the performance, competencies and cost-effectiveness of different employees working in the sector of national education, an effective and

constructive design of training program has been prepared for a smooth running of the program and to guarantee its success [...] In an endeavour to seek quality education on a national level, the Ministry of Education set strategic objectives and also regulated a set of activities and operations for the training program, and identified the targeted groups, needs and also the contents of the framework so that its results align with the requirements of the law of National Education guideline. The Ministry aimed to make the program successful and improve the performance of the educational and training system’.

Translated from Arabic by the author of the thesis.

The statement shows the extent to which teacher training has occupied an essential place in official documents. Haouam, though, (2014) has contended that there is a gap between education reforms and appropriate teacher preparation (p. 9). Similarly, Bellalem (2008, p. 3) found that the Ministry's educational reforms were not in line with social, political and economic reforms. Moreover, the strong emphasis of the government's reforms on the introduction of ICT at all levels of the education system is another example of the dissonance between the government's rhetoric and teachers' lived realities at schools (Haouam 2015, p. 10). Indeed, very little of the actual discourses do present themselves in the realms of teachers' practices. In conclusion, it can be said that policy implementation in the real world is not as evident as it is in official governmental documents in Algeria.

2.3.2.1 University or ENS for Initial Teacher Education (ITE)

Amongst the reasons that caused the gap between the reforms introduced to the Algerian education system and teacher preparation programs was the 'low level of academic credentials and pedagogic training' (Haouam 2015, p. 9). In Algeria, most teachers in primary or basic education (lower secondary) hold university degrees. The degrees offered at university do not stress teaching-related subjects but are rather oriented towards the subject matter of the MFL studied. University graduates interested in joining the teaching profession receive their ITE after they pass the

teachers' recruitment examination without any prior training (Bellalem 2008). Their initial teacher education comes down to 45 days of ITE scattered across the school holidays during their first probationary year. The ITE aims to facilitate the trainees' shift from university to schools. The lack of practical preparation university graduates receive along their academic track at university imposes on them to learn how to teach on the job.

The second establishment offering ITE to teachers in Algeria emerged in 1997 and replaced the Instituts Technologiques de l'Education (ITEs). A ministerial decree was issued and stated that prospective teachers would be trained in particular higher education institutions 'Ecoles Normale Supérieure' (ENS). At present, there are only eleven institutions that cater for ITE in Algeria, and these are located mainly in the major big cities in the country. Findings from a study carried out by Ounis and Kaouli (2020) showed that inspectors found that the ENS graduates usually receive an adequate ITE programme and consequently start their job with a good experience in teaching MFLs. Participants from the study also found, from their experiences with MFL teachers, that ENS graduates do not encounter the same difficulties as their counterparts coming from universities (p. 1143).

In-service training and formal CPD sessions are organised later after teachers get their QTS (Nekkal 2013). This entails organising training days and seminars with inspectors and local authorities from each city's different Directorates of Education (Bellalem 2008). Nevertheless, Haouam (2015) argued that teachers' education in Algeria has been reduced to ad-hoc sessions organised by the inspectors of each level or subject. Dahoua (2016) stated that MFL teachers benefit from six formal CPD sessions per year (p. 139). Haouam, on the other hand, (2015) contended that these meetings have often been quite 'heterogeneous and fragmented in their form and scope' and, as a result, regarded by teachers as unproductive in terms of improving their practice and professional development. (p. 9). A recent study by Gherzouli (2019) also showed that although teachers were entitled to six formal training sessions per year, teachers were called to attend only two formal training sessions with their inspector throughout the

whole school year (p. 14). This section has reviewed the establishments responsible for ITE in Algeria. The following sections offers some concluding thoughts on the provision of ITE in Algeria and England.

2.3.3 Concluding thoughts

In both countries, the delivery of teacher education programmes varies between a range of TE providers in both location and content. This diversity in TE provision may be related to the different interpretations these bodies have of the knowledge teachers must have at the end of their initial teacher training. The English and Algerian governments have shown a commitment in their policy rhetoric to provide high-quality CPD to teachers (see The Education Committee 2017; The Official Gazette of the Republic of Algeria 2012). However, scholars and academics in the field, in both contexts, continue to strongly contest such rhetorical discourse (Webster-Wright 2009; Houam 2014). An analysis of TE-related literature and governmental policy documents has shown a policy paradox in Teacher Education. The research argues that the view of ITE promoted in much of the policy rhetoric and highlighted in the recent literature by academics is not established in real terms. Webster-Wright (2009) reported on 'the identification of a significant dissonance between the reality of participants' learning experiences and the rhetoric of stakeholders' expectations about PD' (p. 725). This mismatch between reality and rhetoric clearly shows a conflict between teachers' aspirations of professional learning and the system-wide expectations of professional learning (Kennedy 2014). The research calls for a need to conduct more rigorous research that would question the reasons underlying this disparity and give us more clarity to understand the professional learning of teachers across their careers and the different contested notions associated with it (Webster-Wright 2009).

3. The landscape of Modern Foreign Languages (MFLs) in Algeria

Language constitutes an eminent part of Algeria's history and has been subject to significant scrutiny, sensitivity, and complexity throughout the years (Le Roux 2017; Brooks 2016; Khosravi 2011; Migge and Léglise 2007). In discussing the status of MFLs in Algeria, one must discuss the language policy after the country gained independence from the French colonisation in 1962 due to its irreconcilable ties with the French. Algeria's language policy has been subject to many shifts of emphasis and changes of direction throughout history. Nevertheless, all the languages used in Algeria today are in place due to the country's historical, socio-cultural, as well as socio-linguistic development of the country. The following section aims to address the history of MFLs in Algeria.

3.1 History of Modern Foreign Languages (MFLs) in Algeria

3.1.1 Colonial era

Algeria's linguistic history can be traced back to the colonisation of the French and their attempt to build an education system similar to the system in France. This system had posed problems for the Algerian people in as they were exposed to a language they had not heard before and had no understanding of (Brooks 2016). Both Arabs and Berbers experienced the process of acculturation and identity reconstruction as soon as the French invaded the country. The Algerian education system had been overshadowed by the French language for many years under French colonisation. The French linguistic policy in Algeria aimed at substituting Arabic with French, which aimed to control and ultimately subjugate the country. Although the French were aware that Algeria belonged to the broader Arab Islamic society, Harik and Schilling (1984) argued that the literate culture of Algeria and its system of schools and higher learning was found inadequate and irrelevant to the modern world by the French government (p. 185). Algerians considered the influence of the French language as a threat to their Islamic culture and resisted the French language and culture. The year

1926 saw the emergence of the first anti-colonial group Étoile Nord-Africaine (ENA), which demanded an increase in Muslim rights. Thirty-six years later, Algeria gained its independence in 1962, and the two languages used in schools at that time were French and classical Arabic. Le Roux (2017) contended that 'language is inevitably bound up with power relations and is intimately linked to individual and national identity' (p. 112). The priority of the Algerian government after independence was to build, restore, and reconstruct the Algerian identity through the Arabic language and Islamic values (Hadjarab 2000). Amongst the ways to execute this was the introduction of the Arabization policy, considered one of the milestones in the history of Algeria's linguistic landscape. The following section aims to discuss the Arabization policy in the post-colonial era of Algeria's history.

3.1.2 post-colonial era: the introduction of the Arabization policy

One of the most recurrent reasons for choosing the dominant language in education practices relates to the country's post-colonial history (Boukadi 2013 p. 14). After the independence of Algeria, classic Arabic was declared as the official language according to the Algerian national constitution (Benrabah 2007a). The introduction of the Arabization policy aimed to restore the country's national identity as the newly independent Algeria inherited a 'hybrid education system' where French schools in Algeria operated in parallel with the system in France, and students in both countries were taught the same curriculum (Batiche 2020). However, this did not align with the aspirations of the newly-born Algerian nation that endeavoured to restore its Arab and Islamic identity and culture (Chemami 2011). As noted by Whidden (nd), 'curricula were remodelled to foster 'authentic' Arab and Islamic national identity to counter the effect of the 'civilizing mission', which had made the language of the government English or French, rather than Arabic' (cited in Shillington 2006 p. 397).

The process of Arabization was executed at the expense of both French and English, and the use of the French language, although still powerful, grew less in control of the linguistic landscape in Algeria (Chambers 2013, p. 27). Through linguistic

Arabization, the first president of Algeria, Aḥmad bin Billah, made classic Arabic mandatory at all school levels. However, this was followed by many problems as the country lacked qualified teachers to teach classic Arabic (Benrabah 2013; Berger 2002). The shortage of Arabic teachers did not hinder the Algerian government from making the Arabic language the most dominant language of the country. Instead, the Algerian government sought to reduce the presence of European and mainly French teachers by replacing them with teachers from Egypt, Iraq, Tunisia and Syria (Zaghlami 2017).

Despite all these attempts to Arabize the country, the French language was still prominent because it could not be erased after 132 years of colonization. The language of the country's administration, judicial, and school systems was French, 'a language in which only a restricted number of Algerians were educated' (Slimani - Rolls 2016, p. 14). In 1965, the first president of Algeria, Aḥmad bin Billah, acknowledged that Arabization was 'an arduous task, which needed to consider bilingualism in, at least, the early stages of implementation' (Slimani - Rolls 2016, p. 14). However, Zaghlami (2017) contended that the privilege the French language occupied in Algeria's education system after independence was considered 'an insult to the country's martyrs'. According to the former minister of education, Dr Ahmed Taleb Ibrahim:

‘The adoption of Arabic in the educational system was deemed unequivocal and irrevocable because it fitted within the cultural revolution, which aimed to create a new citizen living in an independent Algeria’ (Slimani-Rolls 2016 p. 14).

The Arabization policy had, henceforth, undergone stages to be implemented. The Algerian government started Arabizing its sectors at a gradual pace. The process of Arabization continued in the 1970s. In the 1980s, the government of Algeria had plans to Arabize several majors in the country's university sector, and the year 1985, witnessed the end of the bilingual education system in Algeria. Today, the only two sectors that have not been Arabized are the technical sector at tertiary education and health. Whether there should be Arabization of higher education remains persistent today. This concern is grounded on the belief that university students might face

marginalization and isolation from the progressive global trends if the higher education sector is Arabized.

In 2002, Tamazight, the language of the indigenous people of North Africa Berbers, also came to be recognized as a national language. The entire country was introduced to the language in 2003. In 2008, the government of Algeria started reintroducing French in the education system (Slackman 2013). Algeria now has four spoken languages: literary Arabic, Arabic with regional dialects, French, Tamazight, and other varieties of Berber language. With all of these languages used in the country, the official language remains to be only one: literary Arabic (Hamzaoui 2017). This is the reason why Algeria's society is considered a society that is characterized by sociolinguistic multiplicity. Language has been a source of major controversies in the education system in Algeria. Shifts from bilingualism in French and Arabic to monolingualism, wherein the Arabic language has dominated the education structure, have been subject to many debates (Negadi 2015).

The postcolonial history of Algeria created a problem in learning MFLs, for Algerian students to learn foreign languages and for MFL teachers to teach it, respectively. The legacy of the French colonisation has not solely had a major impact on the education system, but it has also affected the representation of teachers and their training. The barriers to solving such problems were found to be in strong political and cultural ties to French colonisation (the British Council 1984). In a study carried out by Boudebia-Baala (2012), investigating the impact of sociolinguistic on the teaching/learning of French, one of the questions asked to 73 teachers was about the impact of French colonisation on their teacher training. The question was sensitive, and consequently, answers were difficult to retrieve. The study's findings revealed that most teachers often faced difficulty in pursuing a career in teaching because they did not feel prepared or qualified. The Arabization policy had put teachers of French in a situation of identity discomfort. Many teachers did not dare to speak openly about the generalisation of the use of Arabic in the education system, which aimed to eradicate the French language (the coloniser's language). They were conflicted between Arabic

(an essential element that shapes their identity) and French (an important constituent of their linguistic identity) (Boudebia-Baala 2012, p. 82).

Realising the significance of learning languages worldwide, the government acknowledged the importance of MFLs and thereupon revisited its policies in the last two decades to reinforce the study of French and the English language (primary, and onwards) (Mebitil 2011; Rezig 2011). As Bellalem (2012) explained, policymakers always saw foreign languages as tools for scientific and technological progress and economic prosperity (p.8). Therefore, teaching and learning foreign languages became a necessity that cannot be overlooked in the modern world (Chambers 2013, p. 31). The following section aims to discuss the status of English in Algeria's language landscape.

3.2 Teaching English as a Foreign Language TEFL in Algeria

The English language has become the language of global communication (De Swaan 2013) and a crucial tool for economic, social, and technological advancement (Nunan 2003). Learning this language is considered a valuable skill as it is considered the language of business, growth, and economic prosperity (Runde and Nealer 2017). Currently, the English language acts as a bridge that enables people to interact globally and empowers them with communications skills to remove international and cultural barriers. Numerous studies have referred to the dominant status of English language worldwide (Ushioda 2017; Gayton 2016), mainly in the areas of education and economic growth (Obiegbu 2015).

The English language received considerable interest by the Algerian government. English emerged as one of the vital tools for the country to keep up with international measures of globalisation. A survey conducted by Benrabah (2013) revealed that English in Algeria is only spoken by 10% of the population but with considerable potential for development. Several scholars have argued that teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) in Algeria is advancing with more acceptance (Sarnou et al.

2016; Rezig 2011). It may appear paradoxical when looking at the Algerians' attitude toward English and Britain compared to French and France in the past. Though such a nation (Britain) happens to be yet another Western imperial power with imperial linguistic policies, Algerians nurse different attitudes toward the UK and English from those towards France. The English language is not associated with colonialism and linguicism in Algeria. It may be rightfully claimed that it enjoys a most favourable kind of additive bilingualism. Bacher (2013) claimed that Algerians and other Arabs conceive the British policies as innocuous as far as the language is concerned (p. 28).

The importance that the English language has increased globally, accompanied by the increasing globalisation of academia, economy, and culture, has highlighted the need for learning English as a tool for education and academic research (Missoum 2015, p. 164). Correspondingly, Algeria's educational landscape has undergone significant changes in recent years. Rezig (2011) declared that many educational reforms took place to introduce the English language at an earlier stage in intermediate schools. For the first time, in September 2022, the Algerian government introduced English in primary schools across the country for third grade pupils, a move that aims to bring the English language on a par with the French language (Africa News 2022). This move is considered as a symbolic step toward taking the country further away from its past as a French colony (The Independent, 2022) and signals 'erosion of France's sway' (Caulcutt 2022). The following section aims to discuss the status of MFLs in England.

4. The landscape of Modern Foreign Languages (MFLs) in England

Learning foreign languages is considered as a liberation from insularity as it provides a door to other civilisations and cultures (GOV.UK, 2013). The British Academy (2019) considered monolingualism 'the illiteracy of the 21st Century' (Roberts, Leite & Wade 2018, cited in Sturt-Schmidt, 2020). Nevertheless, there is substantial doubt around the utility of foreign languages (Mitchell, 2002) which explains why several authors reported and predicted on the decline of MFLs in England over the last two decades (Payne 2012; Macaro 2002; Pachler 2002). Amongst the reasons believed to

be the cause for this decline are perceived to be rooted in the English government's decision to make the subject MFLs optional in secondary education (Payne 2012; Coleman, Galaczi and Astruc 2007). Nevertheless, in recent years, MFLs have been subject to policy reforms that opened the possibility to reassess their position in the curriculum. A new proposal was introduced which includes a foreign language in the English Baccalaureate so as to combat the huge drop off in pupils studying languages (Blake 2010). This initiative has created confusion about the status of MFLs in English secondary schools.

Currently, MFLs are a part of the National Curriculum in England between ages seven and fourteen (Long and Danechi 2022). Most schools teach one or more MFLs, such as French, German and Spanish, but the government does not promote teaching particular languages. Therefore, there is no case in the UK where a particular MFL is equivalent to English in non-anglophone countries (Dobson 2018, p. 76). In fact, restrictions on the range of languages were relaxed along the course of various revisions to the National Curriculum so that any MFL can be taught. Tinsley (2019) reported on the English government's ambition for 90% of pupils to sit a GCSE in a foreign language by 2025 (p. 2).

The landscape of language learning in the UK is not as neutral as it may seem but has become politicised after Brexit. Brexit induced the politicisation of Language Learning and is considered a 'linguistic symptom of Britain retreating into its shell' (Lanvers et al. 2018). In England, there is a huge variation between schools in terms of the language expertise existing among staff (Tinsley 2019). However, post-Brexit, the UK experienced a diminishing supply of multilingual professionals from mainland Europe wishing to train as teachers (Tinsley and Board 2016). The UK falls upon an already complex context of a 'language learning crisis' where assumptions on the UK's unwillingness to learn languages is a symptom of Europhobia (Lanvers et al. 2018). The language crisis is also argued to have reinforced patterns of the social divide in language learning, which are associated to the social segregation between people who can speak languages and those who do not (Lanvers and Coleman 2017). Recent

research by Tinsley & Doležal (2018) and Tinsley (2019) on the current situation of MFL in England showed that a widespread view among children and their parents placed MFLs not 'at the top' of subjects (cited in Sturt-Schmidt, 2020). This tendency to not learn languages could be related to the 'global English' phenomenon (Lanvers et al. 2018) where the significance of MFLs is downplayed by the widespread of English language globally, undermining the motivation of English native speakers to learn foreign languages (Payne 2012, p. 47).

The teaching of MFLs in England is faced with different challenges than those found in Algeria by EFL teachers. It is interesting, however, that, in both contexts, a concern for the low participation of MFL teachers in CPD has been raised (Tinsley 2019) (in England) and Bellalem 2014 (in Algeria). The role of teachers' CPD is paramount for MFL teachers' practice and the consistent development of the subject in schools (Tinsley 2019). Therefore, there is a vital need for more research in this area. This section has looked at the language landscape of MFLs in Algeria and England. The following section will give an overview of the current education system in Algeria and England.

5. Summary

This chapter has provided an overview of the educational system of Algeria and England as they constitute the two research contexts where the present study has been carried out. The chapter gave a detailed account of the schooling structure in the two research contexts, the different pathways available to teaching for prospective applicants. The chapter also reviewed the provision of ITE in Algeria and England. In particular, there was more emphasis on key debates in the policy trajectory of ITE, such as the theory-practice divide, and the policy paradox in TE. Finally, the chapter presented the landscape of MFLs in Algeria. By providing a historical background of language policy in Algeria, it was found in the light of the literature review that the language is a sensitive and controversial issue in Algerian politics due to many factors linked to French colonisation. The chapter then proceeded to discuss the language landscape of MFLs in England. This chapter has prepared the foundation for the

theoretical discussions in Chapter 3. The next chapter discusses the concept of CPD, its contestation and the relevant debates associated with it in the field of teacher education.

Chapter Three: Continuous Professional Development (CPD) and professional learning (PL)

1. Introduction

The previous chapter provided an overview of the historical background of MFLs in Algeria and England. It examined the education system and the schooling structure while presenting the teaching pathways available in both countries. This chapter explores the conceptualisation of key concepts in the study: CPD and PL and attempts to address the conflation between the two. Through a review of relevant literature, the chapter also addresses the policy direction and its impact on CPD and teacher professionalism. The chapter also gives an overview of Teacher Education provision in the two contexts and, while doing so, draws the discussion around key themes, such as theory and practice, neoliberalism in TE, and structure and agency. The chapter also presents the conceptual framework of the thesis. Finally, the chapter concludes with an overview of comparative studies that have been carried out in the area of teachers' CPD.

2. Continuous Professional Development (CPD) and Professional Learning (PL)

The phenomenon of teacher learning is a major area of focus in the field of education. CPD and PL are key concepts in this field and have caught major attention in the last two decades (Czerniawski 2018; Sachs 2016; Kennedy 2014; Darling-Hammond et al. 2007; Friedman & Philips 2004; Evans 2002; Day 1999). As the research unfolds itself to different debates in the field, it was difficult to overlook the contention between conflicting terms in the field, such as CPD and PL. As a doctoral student, it was vital for me to not only recognise the complexity of the situation but also unpack the meaning of these terms as I positioned myself in the windstorm of different perspectives and interpretations associated with them. The difference between the two terms reveals radically different conceptions of how the education of teachers is conceived. Indeed, the origin of the debate goes beyond an ontological difference in

the meaning of the two words to mirror a deep tension surrounding the policy trajectory of teachers' learning. For the purpose of this thesis, the two terms, CPD and PL, had to be analytically separated lest they be entangled in the uncertainty of where to classify the different experiences of MFL teachers in the study. This section aims to critically review CPD and PL-related literature and unpack the complexity and ambiguity surrounding these two terms.

2.1 Continuous Professional Development (CPD)

Teachers' continuous professional development has emerged over the last three decades as an identifiable area of study, and much has been written on the subject (European Commission 2020; McNamara, Jones, and Murray 2014; Timperley et al. 2007; Hustler et al. 2003; Brown and McNamara 2001; Day 1999). Although CPD is a term that is frequently used in the literature, it remains a concept that is often ill-defined (Rose and Reynolds 2007). Several authors claimed that definitions of CPD are an area of contestation in the literature (Kennedy 2014; Evans 2002). The 'conceptual vagueness' (Coffield 2000) that circulates around the discourse of CPD made it very problematic to find a clear and absolute definition of the term. Consequently, defining the term professional development proved to be far more challenging than it was anticipated at the beginning of the study.

An answer to the difficulty in defining CPD can be found in the numerous terms used to describe this concept. The most common of which are professional development, continuous professional development, personal development and professional learning (Czerniawski 2018; Soine and Lumpe 2014; Mann 2005; Friedman & Philips 2004). These terms are often used interchangeably and without precision in the literature which adds to the cloudiness that blurs the phenomenon of teachers' CPD. A concern that Crowley (2014) has already expressed was the conflation in the terminology of CPD, which she recommended to be challenged as it may have an impact on the essence of CPD leading it to lose its value (p. 67). A precise definition of continuous professional development has therefore proved to be elusive due to the issue of the interrelated yet distinct features of similar terms in this field. A probable explanation

to this dilemma CPD could be related to the 'locus of control' (Keay 2004) of who does teachers' professional development and who will benefit more from this professional development: is it the individual, the institution, the profession and/or the state? The broad use of the term continuous professional development might be the outcome of the storm between the beneficiaries involved in this professional development and their attempt to mark their forces in the field.

The term CPD embodies a multitude of concepts that are sometimes overlapping, and this might be due to the fact that what is meant by CPD, who does CPD, to whom it is done, and how it is perceived is not universally agreed or understood. What counts as professional development is open to many interpretations, and academics disagree with each other and have fundamentally different positions about what they mean by it (Evans 2002; Friedman & Philips 2004). The consensus agrees that CPD is a slippery concept which means different things to different people. A definition that could encompass all the interests of people involved in CPD would be as broad as it is evasive. Nevertheless, the ambiguity and contestation of the concept CPD have emphasised the need to be explicit about what exactly is meant by CPD in this research. Therefore, for this thesis, the definition of CPD which I will be deploying is drawn from the definition of Day (1999): ,

‘Professional development consists of all-natural learning experiences and those conscious and planned activities which are intended to be of direct or indirect benefit to the individual, group or school, which contribute, through these, to the quality of education in the classroom. It is the process by which, alone and with others, teachers review, renew and extend their commitment as change agents to the moral purpose of teaching; and by which they acquire and develop critically the knowledge, skills and emotional intelligence essential to good professional thinking, planning and practice with children, young people and colleagues throughout each phase of their teaching lives’ (p. 4).

Day was one of the first people to define the term professional development, and a review of CPD-related literature has shown that after two decades, his definition is still

relatable to current issues and appreciated by many researchers and scholarly documents in the field (see Fotopoulou and Ifanti 2018; Hayes 2014; O'Sullivan 2012; Rose and Reynolds 2007). Moreover, the definition of Day clearly embraces the two forms of formal and informal CPD, which leads to critical professional thinking and reflection.

The complex nature of teachers' CPD and its different forms have been addressed by several scholars in the literature (Kennedy 2014; Fraser et al. 2007). The two forms of learning are distinct in their nature but intertwine in their occurring due to the complexity of the phenomenon of teachers' learning (Czerniawski 2013). In its most recognisable form, formal CPD appeared to be more planned, structured, and organised most often by CPD coordinators/ headteachers. Czerniawski MacPhail and Guberman (2017) argued that formal learning provision alone is unlikely to exert a major impact on teacher educators' development (cited in Murray, Kidd, McMahon and Vswarajan 2020). The second form of learning is not always easily discernible due to the subtle ways in which it can occur. This form of learning is informal, unplanned and takes place most often in an unstructured manner, frequently initiated and planned by teachers and their colleagues. The continuing professional development of teachers includes not just their formal learning at organised events or through structured activities at their schools but also their informal everyday workplace learning with colleagues. The distinction that is made between formal and informal learning can be unhelpful as it implies that formal institution-based education is different from, and in some way superior to, learning that occurs informally between colleagues (Shanks, Robson and Gray 2012). While previous research in the field has privileged the formal and structured learning for teachers and positioned the informal and unstructured learning as deficit (Billett 2004), more recent research has showcased the importance and benefits of informal learning for practitioners' professional learning (Murray, Kidd, McMahon and Viswarajan 2020). Eraut (2004) stated that the most common form of learning that takes place at the workplace is informal, and it encapsulates a 'combination of learning from other people and learning from personal experience, often both together' (p. 248). In writing this section, I have engaged with different

definitions and positions of scholars in the field to help enrich understanding of CPD. It is nevertheless crucial for this research that I position myself in the field and find my own definition of CPD.

In a broad sense, I define CPD as all types of activities, courses, and experiences of formal and informal learning that teachers undertake as part of their education. It empowers teachers to reflect on their practices and update and broaden their professional knowledge. It aims mainly to help teachers improve their teaching skills and engage in meaningful professional learning that underpins teaching as a profession. CPD comes in different forms and encompasses a variety of shapes. Typical activities may include in-service training courses, peer observation, conferences, collaborative learning, networking, self-directed learning, conducting research and mentoring other teachers. This section has given a preview of CPD and aimed to highlight the contestability of the term. The following section discusses the concept of professional learning (PL).

2.2 Professional Learning (PL)

Professional learning is one of the concepts that is often conflated in meaning with CPD. In this thesis, professional learning is looked at from a different angle than how it is usually presented in the literature. The term has prevailed in many scholarly documents discussing teacher education (Hardy & Melville 2019; King 2019; Boylan et al. 2018; Kennedy 2014). Sachs (2016) argued that 'different times require different responses and current thinking, and debates now circulate around professional learning' (p. 413). The concept of PL is loosely interlaced with CPD, and definitions of the term vary widely in the literature depending on where the researchers stand and how they look at the phenomenon of teacher learning. Therefore, it was necessary to clarify precisely what I mean by the term PL and how I use it in the current study.

A number of studies (Robinson and Sebba 2004; Hustler et al. 2003; Edmonds and Lee 2002) have looked at teachers' perceptions of professional learning and have reported that teachers perceive PL as something that is just done as part of the job and

is separate from CPD (cited in Rose and Reynolds 2007, p. 219). Moreover, Donaldson (2010, p. 63) claimed that 'PL is understood as an ongoing professional obligation aimed at institutional change for the improvement of outcomes for learners' (cited in Watson & Michael 2016). These views of PL are very limited and undermine the complexity of the process of teacher learning. Several scholars gave differing positions in their definitions of PL. For instance, according to Eraut (2001):

'Professional learning does not take place in discrete, bite-sized chunks at off-the-job CPD events, but is an ongoing process where learning continues as the individual incorporates new learning through a significant period of practical experience' (Friedman & Philips 2004, p. 373).

The meaning of the term PL has been broadened in recent years. For instance, Watson & Michael (2016) argued that professional learning, as practice, differs markedly from CPD, where the teacher embarks on an endless journey of becoming, taking on the responsibility for their own self-development (p. 272). Alshandudi (2017) also asserted that PL should provide a dynamic, engaging, and ongoing learning environment that combines learned knowledge with its use in context and encourages teachers to expand their capacity, question their beliefs about teaching and adapt their classroom practices accordingly (p. 55). In a similar vein, Czerniawski (2018) defined teacher educators' professional learning as 'both formal and informal processes that enable them to improve their professional practice throughout their careers with a commitment to transform education for the better' (p. 25). Based on all the different definitions available in the field, my stance in the research about PL makes a clear cut between the two ends of the spectrum regarding the usefulness of teachers' learning.

The different uses of the two terms CPD and PL reveals different ontological stances that policymakers and academics have about teachers' learning. My argument aligns with that of Kennedy's (2014) who argued that the term CPD is 'placed along a spectrum from performative to developmental', and its use in relation to professional learning is dependent on the wide range of purposes of learning that it serves to achieve, be it prioritising the system-wide reforms or leaning more to the learning that is appropriate for the individual needs of the teacher (p. 1). I would therefore define

the PL of teachers as an inclusive term to encompass all the learning that teachers engage in which empowers their practice, whether it is formal or informal learning. I look at professional learning as the meaningful learning teachers take from the CPD and the extent to which it meets their learning expectations and needs. This section has looked at the concepts of CPD and PL and attempted to unpack the conflation between the two. The following section aims to give a critique of the notion of performative and developmental CPD.

3. Performative or developmental CPD

The multi-dimensional phenomenon of teacher learning has attracted researchers' attention for numerous years (Korthagen 2017; Vermunt 2014; Lieberman and Pointer Mace 2008). The CPD-related literature available in abundance has contributed significantly to understanding the phenomenon of teacher learning. However, there is still an exigency to develop a deeper understanding of CPD and the mechanism that underlay its delivery. When consulting literature on this topic and which have made a valuable analysis of CPD policies, I understood that the term resides at the centre of an age-old heated discussion. Kennedy (2014) offers the following view:

‘There is a need for a more sophisticated and accessible means to understand CPD more deeply [...] as the dominant global discourse continues to promote a policy trajectory which promotes good teacher learning as central to good pupil learning’ (p. 4).

A division has been established in terms of the interpretation of what makes a 'good teacher learning' or, in other terms, 'effective CPD', and this has ultimately led to the creation of an intersection between academics' view of professional learning and governments' aspirations to compete in the global economic race.

In today's world, the global economy is increasingly becoming market-driven, especially with the influence of neo-liberal policies (Gertz & Kharas 2019). The introduction of international education league tables and assessment benchmarks such

as PISA, along with other reforms, including national literacy and numeracy testing (Leonard 2015), have put the role of education in enhancing the economic status of nations under the spotlight (Sellar and Lingard 2013). Field (2010) argued that ‘education is and will continue to be subjected to and regulated by market forces and supervision by the government’ (p. 22). Drawing on the work of Loomis et al. (2008), Kennedy (2014) explains further:

‘Policy on teacher learning, or CPD, has risen in prominence internationally, driven in no small measure by the global-hyper narrative that tells us (and tells governments in particular!) that improving teacher quality will improve pupil outcomes which will increase nation states' economic competitiveness’ (p. 5).

In a similar vein, King (2019) contended that the plethora of education policies which have put pressure on schools to raise standards in literacy, numeracy and science reflects governments' exertion to enhance the knowledge economy.

Realising the significant contribution that education can make to the economic growth of nations, policymakers have sought to improve the quality of teachers and teaching by adopting a set of professional teaching standards (Leonard 2015). This was prompted by the consensus view, which suggests that providing good quality teaching will improve students' learning outcomes and can be used as the engine towards a prosperous economy. The teaching standards aim to support teachers and trainers in improving teaching and learning outcomes for learners. On the other hand, it expected teachers to be committed to maintaining and developing their expertise to ensure the best outcomes for their learners (Department of Education 2011). In this regard, Sachs (2016) stated:

‘Ostensibly, teachers and governments are working in the collective enterprise of ensuring quality student learning. The differences emerge in terms of how that quality is defined and how it is measured’ (p. 415).

Some critical questions arise here about who defines and measure the quality of education. Most importantly, which definitions will be used as the basis of political reforms for countries endeavouring to reach such an end. The global discourse that has put the quality of teaching as a requisite to boost learning outcomes has been used as an incentive by governments to reshape teacher education which was identified as one of the vehicles to reach high-quality teaching and learning (Murray 2014; Kennedy 2014). A universal interest has therefore been shared amongst governments worldwide to steer their attention to introduce new policy reforms to teachers' CPD.

The new direction that CPD has moved into is drawn on recent policy reforms, which have been described as 'performative' reforms, seeks to improve teacher practice by increasing external accountability (Ball 2013). The exertion of many governments to improve the quality of education has encouraged increasingly standardised teaching practices and an overwhelming culture of performativity and accountability. Sachs (2016) argued that such governmental policies usually aim to improve the quality of education in order to meet international economic agendas. She further asserted that performance culture within the public sector of education implies a low level of trust in the professionalism of their employees. This comes in agreement with Elliott's (2001) view, who stated, 'the more pervasive the gaze of audit, the lesser the trust invested in the moral competence of its members to respond to the needs of the people they serve' (cited in Sachs 2016, p. 415). This approach to CPD sharply contrasts the nature of CPD academics and teacher educators call for. For the sake of argument, I believe that the best way to address the differences of views about CPD is through discussing them in parallel with the binary discourse of managerial and democratic professionalism, which was first introduced by Sachs (2001).

3.1 Professionalism, managerial or democratic?

Debates in the area of professionalism have moved in recent years to become more politically driven. As part of the literature review of this thesis, I found it crucial to look at the concept of professionalism and examine the extent to which it has an

impact on teachers' CPD. The work of Sachs (2001) from an Australian perspective, in particular, is very helpful in giving insight into how the concept of professionalism has influenced not only teachers' CPD but also the teaching profession. Kennedy (2007) and later in (2014) drew on Sachs' work to investigate teachers' CPD in Scotland and identified the two contrasting models of professionalism, managerial and democratic. This confirmed my presumption that the policy direction in England is similar to many other countries, and the current dilemma is not context-specific to a few countries only but is, in fact, a global matter of concern. Sachs (2001) claimed that the managerial discourse as 'mandated by the state' has become very dominant in recent years (p. 151). This approach to professionalism calls for more performativity in teaching. It has rendered the education of learners into a reductionist manner in which standardised teaching practice is increasingly encouraged, and the primary focus is to improve the pupils' performance in standardised tests to have more of a quantitative approach to evaluation (Leonard 2015; Kennedy 2014).

The sharp increase in policy reforms that rely heavily on performativity can lead to 'a sense of de-professionalisation as teachers can feel that they are performing in order to demonstrate their competence' (Perryman 2006, p. 158). According to Tomlinson (2001, p. 36), teachers have turned into 'a technical workforce to be managed and controlled rather than a profession to be respected' (Perryman & Calvert 2020, p. 6). The notion of the de-professionalisation of the teaching profession is by no means alarmist and it may lend strength to the view that teaching is more of a craft than a profession, a statement first made by Michael Gove, Secretary of State for Education in England, who described teaching as '... a craft ... best learnt as an apprentice' (Burstow and Winch 2014, p. 191). Numerous scholars in the field discuss the threat menacing the teaching profession at different educational levels (Ball 2021; Ball 2016).

The managerial approach has been disapproved by the large community of academics and educationists in the field due to its focus on compliance to meeting a set of standards that have been externally imposed and undermining teachers' agency. Sachs

(2003) warned teachers of the danger that accepting the standards without questioning their usefulness to their professional learning can result in them being accomplices in their own sabotage (Kennedy 2015, p. 12). This has been argued by Hargreaves and Goodson's (1996), who asserted that professionalism is a 'rhetorical use' which is used to 'get teachers to misrecognise their own exploitation' (Kennedy 2007, p.28). Conversely, the democratic or developmental approach to professionalism is more popular in the academic arena, although less evident in official documents. The democratic approach calls for self-directed teacher CPD in which teacher agency is given more space to be exerted, and their autonomy is valued. Unfortunately, at present, 'the more common policy approach when developing 'sophisticated' CPD systems and programmes has been to 'tie them [teachers] up in bureaucratic, managerial knots which squeeze out autonomy and instead seek and reward compliance and uniformity' ((Kennedy 2007, , p. 5). For my thesis, I support and argue for the developmental approach to professionalism and denounce the managerial approach, which undermines teachers' agency. This section aimed to give a critique of the policy direction that has moved teachers' CPD to a more performative approach. The following section aims to present the conceptual framework of the thesis.

4. The conceptual framework of the thesis

4.1 Introduction

This section aims to present the theoretical framework for the thesis that would help explain the phenomenon of teachers' CPD and how teachers learn. Scholars over the last decade have emphasised the need to theorise CPD in the field of teacher education. For instance, Kennedy in 2005 and later in 2014 stressed that it is now more critical to develop a deeper and richer understanding of CPD (p. 4). Therefore, the conceptual framework of this thesis has been developed with an endeavour to contribute to the body of knowledge in the literature attempting to theorise the professional development of teachers and understanding of how individuals learn. This could be fundamental for developing effective approaches to teachers' CPD. The

discussion now moves to consider how the theoretical framework of this thesis has been developed.

Deciding on a theoretical framework for the thesis was not a straightforward process. The abundance of theories in the field of education did not make it less challenging for the selection process. The aim was to find a combination of theories that would reflect the complexity of teachers' learning. Several factors need to be considered when developing a theoretical framework for the thesis. My positionality as a researcher and a former teacher in Algeria and England at secondary schools helped me to acknowledge all the different layers of influence over my experiences with CPD in both settings. I have realised that my perceptions have been informed by three main factors: the governmental policies that have been introduced about teaching, the culture of the learning environment where I taught, and my own individual dispositions to learning.

For this reason, in my design for a theoretical framework that would fit the purpose of this thesis, I am drawing on Atwal's (2016) framework to frame the different levels that influence teachers' CPD. These are the government, the institution, and the individual and examine how each level impacts teachers' learning. The theoretical framework of this thesis aims to demonstrate the dynamics between these three different yet interrelated layers of influence. The main argument is that teachers do not live and work in a vacuum; their ability to actively engage in CPD to enhance their practice are significantly influenced by their learning dispositions, working contexts, as well as the economic and political climate in which they work (Marynowski et al. 2022; Atwal 2016). This section offers a vivid description of the different theories that explain how teachers learn while also breaking down the factors that either support or hinder their education.

While consulting the literature that discusses teacher learning, it appeared that there are seemingly two opposite perspectives on how teachers learn. The traditional approach of teacher education considers the teacher as a 'Tabula Rasa', which

translates to a blank slate and assumes that there is a fixed knowledge that the individual teacher must come to know. This kind of knowledge is usually theories that need to be applied in practice, a 'sacred theory-practice story' (Clandinin 1995) that remains a permanent issue in teacher education programs. The traditional approach to teacher education falls within the positivist approach, and it was found to be problematic by many scholars (Barone, Berliner, Blanchard, Casanova, & McGowan 1996). Critics have argued that such an approach places teachers in a passive role where they are expected to accept the information, they are given without questioning the instructor. It has also been dismissed by academics because the theories are often taught in isolation, with little connection to teachers' practice (Korthagen 2017, p. 529). Most importantly, limiting teachers' learning to learning a fixed knowledge in a specified form overlooks the context of where teachers work and the complexity of their learning.

For this reason, and for the purpose of this thesis, I reject the view of the positivist approach to how teachers learn. Instead, I aimed to choose a theoretical framework that would recognise the different forms that CPD can take inside and outside the teachers' workplace, both formally and informally. The choice for the theory had also to embrace the different factors that would inhibit or support teacher learning. In paying consideration to all these aspects, the theoretical framework of the thesis takes elements from a range of ideas from different theories. However, it mainly draws on Situated Learning Theory (SLT), first developed by theorists Lave and Wenger in 1991. Some of the key reasons why the theory of SLT has been selected to be at the centre of the theoretical framework of this thesis is because it fits well with the main argument I am claiming: teachers' learning takes place within a much more complex process of learning. It is significantly impacted by the context where they work. This context is primarily placed within macro, meso and micro levels of influence (see below Figure 3). The overall insight stemming from this theory is that learning is a process, situated in authentic contexts and social interactions.

In contrast to the traditional approach that involves the acquisition of abstract knowledge where context is not emphasised, Lave and Wenger (1991) argue that learning is situated and embedded within activity, context, and culture. It is also unintentional, a natural process rather than deliberate. A crucial component of teachers' learning in situated learning is the exposure of learners to authentic experiences of genuine collaboration with peers and within professional groups labelled Communities of Practice (CoP) (Lave and Wenger 1991). The Situated Learning theory acknowledges that learning takes place as a social activity between colleagues through social interaction. For this reason, in developing the theoretical framework of the thesis, I am also drawing on some elements of the social constructivism theory of Vygotsky (1978). According to social constructivism theory, context is key in shaping individuals' perceptions and experiences. The use of SLT and social constructivism can promote a discussion between the three dimensions of the government, the institution, and the individual teacher with CPD. The following section will explore in detail how these three levels impact teachers' experiences with CPD.

4.2 The three levels of influence over CPD

4.2.1 The government

In an era of performativity and accountability, a clear move towards instrumental, managerial approaches to education has been witnessed in recent years through standardised tests to gauge pupils' performance. This was due to the dominant global discourse that has promoted a policy trajectory which dictates good teacher learning as central to good pupil learning (Kennedy 2014, p. 4). Day & Sachs (2004) argue that government policies, ubiquitous neoliberal principles, and other political ideologies have influenced how teachers are prepared for their careers and the implementation of the school curriculum in schools. Moreover, the influence of government policy has also extended to impact teachers' workplace (Evans et al. 2006; Hodkinson & Hodkinson 2004). Since the 1980s and 1990s, the field of education witnessed the development of a marketisation system (Hodkinson & Hodkinson 2005). This has led

the field of teacher education to become market-driven, which, in turn, led to the creation of more diverse learning opportunities for teachers. The marketisation system has been strongly linked to neoliberal policies, which have largely reshaped teacher education (Czerniawski 2013). The marketisation system has been accompanied by the rise of an accountability culture with an externally imposed demand for conformity and compliance for teachers (Sugrue & Mertkan 2016). A great amount of pressure has been put on schools and students through the introduction of league tables to a point where it changed the nature of teaching, making it 'teaching to the test' and this, as Thompson (2017) put it, could potentially distort the basic values and principles of education. The current climate for teacher education promoted a notion of teacher learning that is overtly utilitarian (Czerniawski 2013). This can be seen through characteristics of the Fordist movement that restricted workforce skills to learning a set of skills that are inherent to the teacher role (Atwal 2013). These characteristics go against the principles of situated learning theory highlighted above in the introduction. It rather mirrors somehow the traditional approach to learning where the teacher is sent on training to learn about a specific teaching method without any attention paid to the context where they work and learn.

Many governments worldwide initiated large-scale reforms to their teacher education systems (Furlong, Griffiths, Hannigan-Davies, Harris, and Jones 2021; Zhou 2014; Avalos 2000; Knight, Lingard and Bartlett 1994). Yet these reforms have been associated with increased accountability and control over teachers' performance, impacting their education by downplaying their learning needs and focusing on curriculum changes. For example, Mayer and Mills (2020) have argued that performance management, standards, and greater accountability are some of the ways in which policies on teacher education are de-professionalising teacher educators and teachers. (p. 45).

Through a qualitative study of secondary schools in England, Sugrue and Mertkan (2016) examined the extent to which teachers' CPD experiences may be perceived as enhancing their sense of professional responsibility or an externally imposed demand

for accountability, conformity, and compliance. Their findings demonstrated that the culture of accountability and performativity is pervasive throughout schools. At the same time, the enhancement of a sense of professional responsibility is rendered more difficult, marginalised, if not entirely silenced. The authors concluded that the language of professional responsibility continues to be weakened or diluted by being filtered through the closely woven weave of externally prescribed accountability criteria. Furthermore, the current political discourse raises concerns about the quality of the learning environment promoted at schools where teachers learn. Teachers are put in an environment where they compete with their colleagues, following a target-driven approach (Evans et al. 2006) that manages their performance (Atwal 2016). This ultimately decreases any chances for the development of informal learning opportunities between colleagues, which would, in turn, impact on teachers' perceptions of their Continuing Professional Development (CPD).

4.2.2 The institution

Teachers work in schools that are subject to government policies. Yet not all these policies settle at the level of the schools in a congruous manner. Atwal (2016) reported on the study of Hodkinson & Hodkinson (2004) that showed how teachers' experiences with CPD were drastically different from one school to another, although the policy initiatives introduced are the same. This is due to schools' different interpretations of governmental policies. Therefore, policy settlement can vary drastically based on the working contexts where teachers work. The above exemplar study points out a different layer of influence that impacts teacher learning than merely governmental policies, which is the institution. Schools have a central role in facilitating teachers' access to learning opportunities, be it formal or informal. Evidence from the literature indicates that teacher learning at the school is vital for the school improvement plan and the implementation of educational reform (Imants and Veen 2010). Nevertheless, Czerniawski (2018) argues that 'schools are also complex and often hectic institutions that have structurally developed over time to prioritise pupil learning over that of the professional learning of teachers and teacher educators'

(p. 15). This means that depending on the school's priorities, vision, and, most notably, learning culture, there could be considerable differences between teachers' experiences with their CPD.

The significance of the organisational culture at the school where teachers work is crucial in terms of ensuring teachers' accessibility to formal learning opportunities, but also in extending to underpin the nurturing of opportunities for informal learning. A good illustration of how the theory of situated learning manifested naturally between colleagues was demonstrated in a study conducted by Fuller et al. (2005). They captured teachers intuitively engaging in informal learning during regular working hours. In this regard, the authors noted that learning becomes integral to teachers' daily work (p. 60).

Learning through social practice has also been an inherent aspect of situated learning theory which Lave, and Wenger (1991) attributed to Communities of Practice (CoP). When teachers engage in learning at the workplace, they contribute not just for their learning, but also that of their colleagues. In reference to the study mentioned above of Hodkinson & Hodkinson (2004), the findings indicated that collaboration among teachers who worked at the same school from different departments positively impacted teachers' learning (Atwal 2013, p. 24). A closer look at these teachers' experiences with collaborative learning showed an increased development of informal learning opportunities. This confirms earlier assumptions that the tendency of institutional learning environments to foster informal learning opportunities between teachers helps improve teachers' experiences with learning.

The culture of the learning environment where teachers work has been a determinant factor in influencing their experiences with their learning (O'Leary 2013). Two types of learning environments have been identified from the literature. These are the expansive and restrictive learning environments which were first developed by Fuller and Unwin (2003). The two types of learning environments differ greatly in their characteristics, the opportunities they provide for learning, and the impact they can

have on supporting or limiting teachers' access to learning in and beyond the workplace, both formally and informally. In their definition, Fuller, and Unwin (2004) defined expansive learning environments are the type of workplace that foster learning at work and offer employees diverse forms of participation. In contrast, a restrictive learning environment has been characterised by an 'over-emphasis on school and government learning priorities at the expense of those of the teachers themselves' (Hodkinson & Hodkinson 2005, p. 125). It is crucial at this stage to also recognise the extent to which leadership at the school level can have an impact on promoting either type of learning environment. Studies have shown that the learning dispositions of headteachers and CPD coordinators can affect the learning culture at schools in a way that their own views about learning can shape the direction of the learning of teachers (Atwal 2016; Hodkinson & Hodkinson 2005).

4.2.3 The individual

The framework of this thesis has demonstrated the different levels of influence that affect teachers' CPD. These are the government, and the institution, but they can also extend to include the individual teacher. While teachers following the traditional approach have been treated as 'consumers of knowledge' (Borg 2015), their teachers' agency has been overlooked in the process. During the last decade, the role of teacher agency has been growing significantly in research carried out in the field of teacher professional development (Imants and Van der Wal 2020). The literature in this area points to issues of power hierarchy and control where teacher agency is overlooked and therefore, teachers being silenced. For instance, a study conducted by Smith and Ulvik (2017) on four cases of qualified teachers who left their profession, findings revealed that participants chose to leave teaching because they needed more space and autonomy than they had as teachers. In research that looked at teachers' perceptions of their learning, findings revealed that teachers linked CPD effectiveness to a number of contextual variables including teacher agency (Muijs et al. 2004). The relevant evidence from the literature points to the importance of acknowledging teachers' individual agency. Billet (2001) highlighted the significance of individual agency in

shaping teachers' engagement in practices at work and in what they learn (cited in Atwal 2016, p. 25). Furthermore, Moore (2012) identified control and autonomy over classroom decisions as crucial factors for teachers to be satisfied with their jobs, which is in most of the time, determined by the management of the school where teachers work. Sachs (2016) contended that recent debates which have circulated around professional learning call for a new approach in which 'teachers collectively and individually address those in power to make it clear that a top-down approach is simply not working' (p. 414). Acknowledging teachers' agency is crucial; if they are not engaged in the process of planning the activities they are expected to perform as part of their professional learning, they will most likely choose not to use them if they do not align with their beliefs, the reality of their contexts, and the needs of their students (Timperley, Wilson, Barrar, and Fung 2008). With teachers' agency receiving more recognition in the field of teacher learning, a shift in thinking took place in teacher learning from considering teachers as passive participants and their learning as something that is done to them to recognising the complexity of their learning process (Imants and Veen 2010) and treating them as 'generators of knowledge' (Borg 2015).

The agency of teachers is linked to their dispositions to learning. Teachers are learners who bring their prior knowledge, understanding and skills into the workplace and all these elements influence how they engage with their work and learning (Evans et al. 2006). Teachers' dispositions about learning and teaching also impact upon their decisions, and their participation in CPD. The role of individual dispositions in impacting teachers' engagement with their learning has been addressed by many scholars in the field (Evans et al. 2006; Fuller et al. 2005). For instance, the study of Hodkinson & Hodkinson (2004) showed that although the impact on teachers' learning made by the government and institutions where participants in the study work were the same, considering that participants worked at the same school, teachers had differing perceptions towards the learning opportunities that were provided (Atwal 2013, p. 25). This implies that although teachers may be part of a community, they remain unique individuals with their own experiences and perceptions of CPD. The findings provided compelling evidence for the significance of teachers' agency and individual

dispositions in influencing teachers' experiences with learning. Teachers' individual dispositions are highly influenced by the nature of the institutional environment where they work. For instance, if the workplace provides an expansive learning environment, teachers' dispositions to learning would most likely be positive with tendency to engage in informal learning opportunities with colleagues. In contrast, certain dispositions to learning in a restrictive workplace environment could be, lack of motivation/interest (Abraham 2019) or teachers' reluctance to participate in CPD activities (Geldenuys and Oosthuizen 2015).

The learning disposition of teachers is not a fixed variable but can in fact change as they move throughout their careers depending on the interaction of the individual with other people and different learning environments (Shanks, Robson & Gray 2012; Hodkinson & Hodkinson 2003). This is due to the fact that teachers' learning is constructed and influenced by those members who are part of their community of practice (Lave and Wenger 1991). This aligns well with the understanding of social constructivism of reality that is always changing. In other words, teachers' dispositions are amenable to change because the ideas and beliefs that actors have evolved over time and are subject to change (Theys 2018). Central to social constructivism theory is the key role of the context; instrumental to which is the workplace, in shaping individuals' dispositions towards learning (Attard Tonna and Shanks 2017). Teachers' professional commitments would be strengthened if positive norms of practice are shared and promoted within teacher communities (McLaughlin and Talbert 2001). Teachers' values and dispositions are co-produced and reproduced in communities of practice (Hodkinson and Hodkinson 2003). Hodkinson & Hodkinson (2003) argued that it is important to consider members of the Communities of Practice and their evolving dispositions towards working and learning. The conceptual framework of the thesis is premised on the argument that learning is fundamentally a social phenomenon where individuals learn and gain knowledge through their lived experience of participation in the world. (Attard Tonna and Shanks 2017).

Therefore, it is important to consider the stability of the Community of Practice (CoP) and the relationship that exist between members and their evolving dispositions towards working and learning (Hodkinson and Hodkinson 2003). Teachers' dispositions towards learning can impact on the way they engage with learning opportunities on offer. For instance, Atwal (2016) commented on a study carried out by Evans et al. (2006), who conducted research with experienced employees in Australia that were resistant to being called 'learners' lest being identified as non-competent at their jobs. In contrast to this view, Atwal (2016) claimed that other employees with more positive individual dispositions would have embraced this label of 'learners' positively and associated it with lifelong learning (p. 26). It can be concluded therefore that individual dispositions to learning can considerably impact the level of teachers' engagement in learning opportunities. The conceptual framework of the thesis is represented below in Figure 3 and will be used to examine the different levels of influence that impact teachers' experiences with CPD.

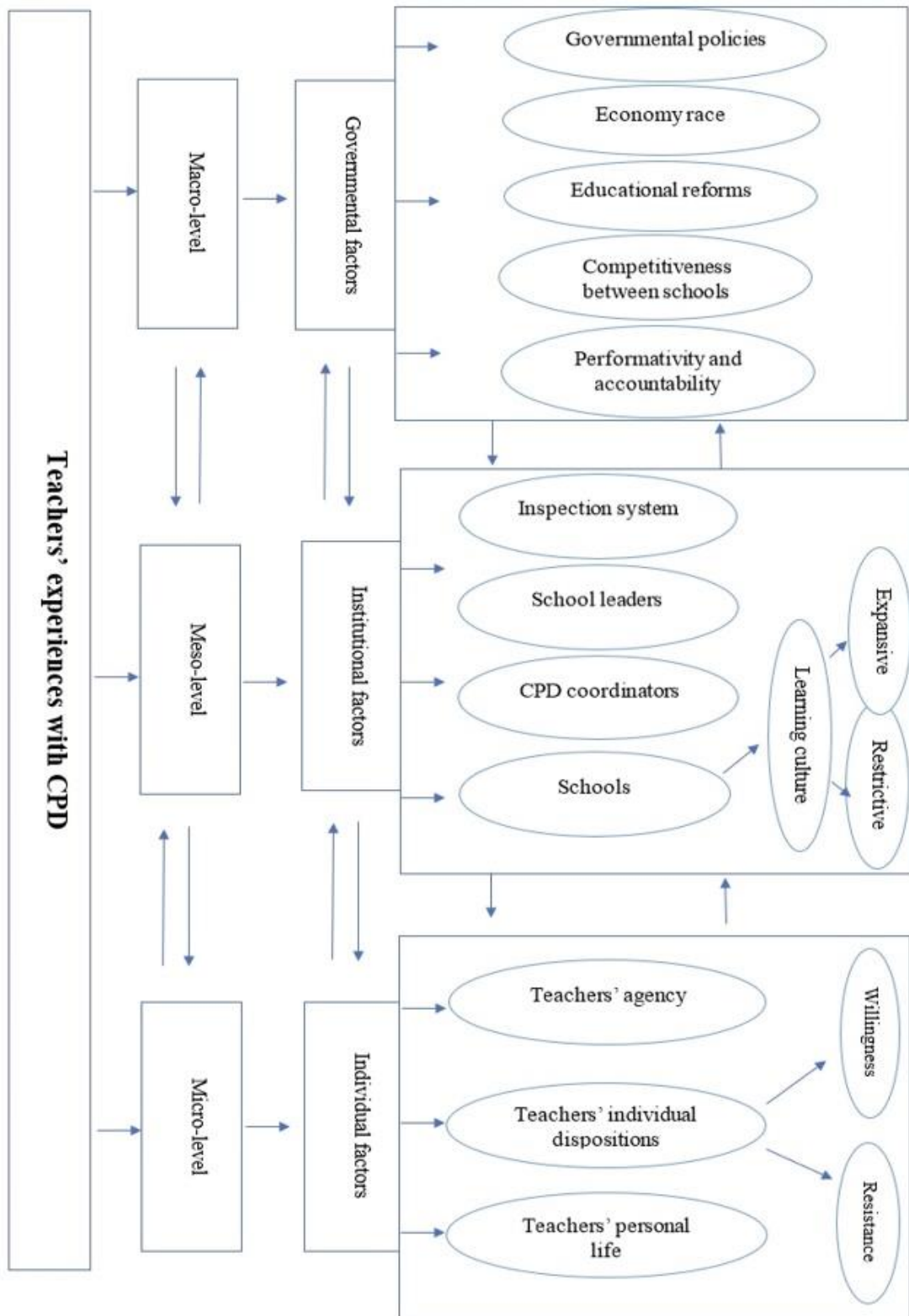


Figure 3: The Conceptual framework of the three levels of influence over CPD

The diagram illustrates how teachers' CPD is governed by external forces which, on a regular basis, redefine their experiences with CPD by introducing new policy initiatives (Santiago et al. 2016). When delving into the nature of teachers' learning, Timperley (2008) noted that 'professional learning is strongly shaped by the context in which the teacher works. This is usually the classroom, which, in turn, is strongly influenced by the wider school culture, the community and society in which the school is situated' (p. 6). Ultimately, teachers' perceptions of CPD are informed by governmental policies; the learning culture at schools; and teachers' individual dispositions to learning. To understand the learning taking place in a particular environment, the phenomenon needs to be studied from the perspective of individuals (Bryman 1988). This study looks at the phenomenon of CPD from the point of view of MFL teachers who are engaged in different forms of CPD in their contexts in Algeria and England. This section has presented the conceptual framework of the thesis. The following section aims to give an overview of comparative studies carried out in the field of CPD.

5. Teachers' perceptions of CPD: an international perspective

There are several international studies that have been conducted to explore teachers' perceptions of CPD. However, despite the extensive literature in this area in the field of TE, only a few of these studies have been conducted from a comparative perspective, Czerniawski (2013) argued that a longitudinal comparative study is rare within the literature on teachers' CPD and teacher training (p. 396). This section aims to look at recent comparative studies that have been carried out in this area.

Zhang (2010) conducted a comparative study on *Teachers' Professional Development in the Changing and Challenging Context - A comparative study between Mainland China and Hong Kong*. The study aimed to compare TPD in the two regions by identifying the ways different social-cultural and historical contexts impact policy making of TPD as well as indicating their similarities and differences with reference to

the policies on TPD in Mainland China and Hong Kong. A further aim of the study was to bring to light teachers' experiences of TPD from Mainland China and Hong Kong and reveal their views about the strengths and the limitations or current TPD practices. In terms of methodology, Zhang (2010) employed a qualitative research approach. Data was collected from document analysis and interviews. Individual semi-structured interviews were conducted with 16 teachers in Mainland China and Hong Kong. The findings from the study showed that the features of TPD in the two regions have been shaped by social, economic, political, and cultural factors. These factors have accounted for the similarities and differences identified in policy making, implementations of TPD, and teachers' experiences.

Another comparative study in this field was carried out by O'Sullivan, McConnell, and McMillan in 2012, which aimed to explore *Continuous professional development and its impact on practice: A north-south comparative study of Irish teachers' perceptions, experiences and motivations*. A mixed methodological approach was employed in the study incorporating both quantitative and qualitative methods through the use of focus groups and online questionnaires. A general level of agreement between teachers in ROI and NI was revealed in the study: Teachers in both jurisdictions agreed that the primary purpose of CPD was to up-skill themselves and they felt that generally, it was their own personal responsibility to engage in CPD. Concerning the impact of CPD, they felt that gaining accredited, higher level qualifications that were both relevant and applicable along with the provision of opportunities for reflection had the most impact on their practice.

While the two studies cited above have given a great insight about comparative studies in the area of CPD in different contexts across the world, I attempted in my query to enrich my understanding of comparative research in this field by reviewing some of the studies that have been conducted in England with comparison to other countries on CPD. For instance, the subject of INSET the professional development of teachers has been under the spotlight for a lot of empirical of research. Altun (2011) contributed to this area by conducting a study that looked at *INSET (In-Service Education and*

Training) and Professional Development of Teachers: A Comparison of British and Turkish Cases. His study aimed to provide an insight about the possibilities and the limits of the INSET for teachers' CPD in the UK and Turkey. The main findings of the study indicated that in the UK, since the 1980s, teachers' role in CPD as well as the value of school-based curriculum development and school-centred INSET has become increasingly scrutinized which reinforced the role of teacher professional development in the school context. In Turkey, however, such reality has yet to be realized; school-initiated INSET activities have not been implemented yet. As the whole system is centrally controlled, and due to limited resources in schools (funding and trainers), it seems that there is a long way to promote a CPD model in schools. As part of his research recommendations, Altun (2011) highlighted that the context of the school needs much more attention from researchers. He suggested that policymakers should collaborate with school leaders and teachers to design a new model of school-based CPD (Altun 2011, p. 856).

Although the research of Altun (2011) holds significant contribution to the field by providing valuable information about the current INSET practices, it lacked empirical data given that the study was a desk study. Using document analysis as a research method in research is less time-consuming since it requires data selection instead of data collection (Bowen 2009, p. 31); however, it would be fair to argue that this study had been mostly restricted to documentation analysis. Consequently, it does not provide sufficient details to answer a research question (Bowen, 2009, p. 32) since it has used only one research method. This limitation was significantly considered for the current study.

Czerniawski (2013) is also among the researchers who have contributed to this area. He was interested in exploring the *Professional development for professional learners: teachers' experiences in Norway, Germany and England.* His study aimed mainly to examine the extent to which teachers' experiences with professional development have addressed their professional needs and/or the professional needs of the institutions in which they work. This study was conducted as part of a longitudinal study in which

Czerniawski aimed to revisit the lives of teachers nine years after they were interviewed in research examining their values and identity. While in the original study, a purposive sample of thirty-two teachers from Norway, Germany and England were interviewed, the sample of the follow-up study consisted of ten Norwegian, nine German and eight English teachers from the original sample. Drawing on the literature related to teachers' CPD, Czerniawski (2013) used semi-structured questionnaires to gather information about the types of formal and informal professional development these teachers had received. Face-to-face and telephone interviews were also used at a later stage to capture and elaborate these teachers' perceptions about their experiences. All in all, the study aimed to explore the variety and depth of experiences they have had of professional development, and consider whose interests are being satisfied by CPD.

Another study in this area was carried out by Adagiri (2014), *A Comparative Study of Teachers' Continuing Professional Development (CPD) In Nigeria and England: A Study of Primary Schools in Abuja and Portsmouth*. The aim of the study was to compare teachers' CPD in primary education between English and Nigeria, so as find any transferable best practices that can improve the quality of primary teachers' CPD in Abuja. The study drew upon literature on comparative education research to explore the similarities and differences of primary education between public and private schools. The researcher used a similar approach as Czerniawski (2013) and utilized a triangulation of methods including interviews, questionnaires, and documents analysis. Despite the common drive towards professionalism and teacher quality, the findings from the study revealed differences in the teaching conditions and CPD opportunities for primary school teachers in the two countries.

This section has attempted to review some theoretical and empirical studies related to CPD in England and other countries. The studies cited so far provide valid arguments about the importance of documenting significantly different practices of CPD. All of the contexts examined are interesting case studies, located in different continents across the world such as Asia, Europe and Africa. Most of them used qualitative

research methods in collecting data. Nevertheless, it is interesting to note that none of them used observation of teachers' CPD as a research method. This limitation was considered when choosing methods for the current study. Moreover, none of the studies mentioned in this section included the Algerian context in their research. The impetus of conducting this study has been triggered by an informed scarcity of this type of research on CPD in Algeria. While this study is not longitudinal in nature, the comparative nature of this study (one that looks at Algeria and England in particular) is useful because no research such as this has been undertaken to date in Algeria. Another element that adds to the originality of the current research relates to the sample of the study. The current study addresses teachers' perceptions of CPD within a particular professional subject that is Modern Foreign Language (MFLs).

5.1 Concluding Thoughts

Much scholarly attention has been directed to investigate teachers' professional learning in different national contexts (King 2016; Leonard 2015; Darling-Hammond 2005). This ample amount of research in the field has been rewarding in the way that it has provided us with great insight into the subject and how it can be approached for the current study. Nevertheless, when consulting the literature, I have found an ample body of literature from the Western/Anglo-Saxon perspective. There was, however, limited literature available from North African countries, particularly Algerian studies that explored the perceptions of MFL teachers about their CPD. The notion of Continuing Professional Development (CPD) is still relatively little understood and explored in the Algerian context compared to the term in-service teacher training which is a recurrent theme in government's discourse and academic publications.

It is alarming that the subject of CPD has not been addressed in the Algerian literature, even though teachers are found at the heart of educational changes when they take place; they are the recipients with whom these policies settle and acted upon. I would cautiously claim that this absence could be because teachers' views about the changes brought to their professional development have been overlooked. However, I believe

that teachers' voices are and should be placed amongst the highest priority of enquiry. Teachers need to start questioning the value of the CPD they receive and whether it is valuable to be considered as professional learning. This study has taken this into account and aimed to address this gap in the literature by conducting empirical research that looks at MFL teachers' perceptions of CPD in Algeria. The study levels up the standards of such enquiry by addressing the subject from a comparative perspective. Kennedy (2015) affirmed that studies in different national contexts with different approaches to professional development could open up discussion about the mismatch or the tension that occurs between 'performative- focused national policies which focus on standards-based outcomes, and issue-driven professional learning which occurs in order to enhance knowledge and understanding of, in this case, sustainable practice' (p. 2). In producing this chapter of the literature review, I have attempted to address the impact of this tension on teachers' education which was somehow subtle to identify at first but became quite recognisable as I attempted to unpack this relationship at a deeper level. The following section aims to present a summary of this chapter.

6. Summary

In this chapter, I have attempted to present a critical review of literature relevant to the notion of CPD. In summary, there is substantial conflation between CPD and other terms in the field, which makes it difficult to have a clear understanding of the phenomenon. CPD is a broad and extensive concept and has been defined differently in the literature. In such a case, there is a concern here that the acronyms take over, and the meaning of the concept CPD loses its essence. As a result, what learning actually means becomes squeezed into a simplistic version of CPD, resulting in CPD being reduced to a practice of ticking a box (Crowley 2014, p. 56). The phenomenon of CPD is thus a complex and dynamic process. Considering the wide breadth of the area of CPD, I acknowledge this chapter's limitation in looking at most of the debates in the field. Nevertheless, we should at least entertain in the discussions that have developed and may yet develop, but also reflect on what can be accomplished. The

chapter also presented the conceptual framework of the thesis that showcases the different levels of influence that impact on teachers' experiences with CPD. The chapter ended with an overview of other comparative research in the field which have explored teachers' perceptions of CPD which highlighted the originality of the study and emphasised the need to voice MFL needs. The following chapter, Chapter 4, presents the methodology deployed in this qualitative study.

Chapter Four: Methodology

1. Introduction

This chapter explains and justifies the methodology used for the current study. It has been organised in the following way. The first section begins by presenting the research questions, followed by the research aim that this research is premised on. It then highlights the researcher's positionality, which has been established as a key aspect of the study. The chapter then proceeds to discuss the philosophical assumptions adopted in the study, lays out the research design selected, and presents the paradigm that governs the study. The remaining structure of the chapter takes the form of eight sections. The first five sections provide a detailed account of the sampling frame, criteria for the choice of schools, the participants, the methods used for data collection, and the pilot study. It also presents a thorough report of fieldwork carried out in the two research contexts. This is followed by a comprehensive record of data analysis procedures carried out using a thematic approach. The chapter concludes with a discussion of ethical issues, including the researcher's bias and translation, with a final section that deals with the challenges faced by the researcher during data collection.

2. Research Aims and Questions

2.1 The Research Aim

This study aims to identify, compare and critically reflect on MFL teachers' perceptions of CPD in their own contexts in Algeria and England. The study also aims to provide a channel through which MFL teachers in Algeria and England can voice their problems and concerns and share their perceptions on their CPD provision. Additionally, the study aims to explore the variety of CPD forms MFL teachers engage with in their contexts and which ones they find most valuable and powerful for their practice. Lastly, the study aims to explore the factors that either hinder or support MFL teachers' CPD. Lastly, the study aims to investigate the factors that either support or hinder MFL teachers' engagement with CPD in Algeria and England.

2.2 Research Questions

The central questions directing the research are:

- 1- What are the similarities and/or differences between MFL teachers' perceptions of CPD in their context in Algeria and England?
- 2- What are the perceived factors that support/ hinder MFL teachers in their contexts in Algeria and England from engaging with CPD?
- 3- What can be learnt about the provision of CPD for MFL teachers in Algeria and England?

3. Researcher Positionality

When discussing comparative research, one cannot overlook the significance of the researcher's positionality in this field. Across the numerous disciplines that use qualitative methods, the issue of researcher positionality in the research and its effect on the research outcomes have been raised by numerous researchers (Berger 2015; Beoku-Betts 1994; Collins 1986). Several attributes are associated with researcher positionality. A few of these are linked to relational positions in society rather than intrinsic qualities such as race, class, gender, and sexuality (Manohar et al. 2017; Fisher 2014). Before conducting this research, salient concepts such as insider-outsider binary, age, religious faith and gender were raised. As some of these factors can shape the researcher's position in a particular context as a strength, they can be a restriction in another. In my study, the researcher's positionality has been identified as an essential aspect, and its occurrence in the research was inevitable. Acknowledging its existence and impact on the research data was imperative for the validity of my findings, notably because I am conducting comparative research. Throughout the conduct of this research, there was a need to pay significant consideration and reflexivity to my stance in the research, and I have attempted to the best of my ability to identify my position in the research before and after the main inquiry of data collection. In this regard, Purwaningrum and Shtaltovna (2017, p. 2) assert:

‘one's positionality is not an automatic result of one's native identity. Rather, choosing the stance to opt for during the fieldwork can be a conscious decision for the researcher. This is decisive for the researcher's personal security and the unique collection of data’.

As an international student from abroad and a former member of the teaching profession, I have never had the opportunity to conduct research in a setting I am fairly acquainted with. Although it was genuinely intriguing for me to step out of my comfort zone and carry out this research in a setting that I am not familiar with, I found it quite intimidating to know that I would have to visit schools in England and conduct interviews with MFL teachers who are English nationals. The issue of language, culture and the different education systems between Algeria and England were all challenges that I needed to acknowledge at the outset of my research. Along these challenges lies my age and gender, which might have a strong link to my relationship with my participants as the factor of power is involved. Chacko therefore (2004) stressed:

‘acknowledging one's position is crucial in pre- and post-fieldwork to endow a researcher with a vigilance over power relations and the consequences they might have on exchange and production of knowledge’ (2017, p. 3).

During my master's degree in Algeria, I acquired methodological knowledge of qualitative research methods, yet, I had never conducted comparative research in an environment where I was an outsider, nor have I questioned my positionality as I had gained acceptance in the research context thanks to my shared identity with most of the participants whom I observed and interviewed for my master's dissertation. This is the case for England specifically with respect to gender and religious faith, as I had a few concerns before conducting the research for being a Muslim female (wearing Hijab). Purwaningrum and Shtaltovna (2017), stated,

‘When it comes to a comparative inquiry of how positionality features in the category of in-sider-outsider and gender, it is argued that there are gender restrictions arising for female researchers. Recognising one's position as a female requires an

awareness that there are gender-related obstacles in the field and a willingness to negotiate the research process in the face of such barriers' (p. 2).

As a former teacher who comes from a country that adopts broadly similar approaches to teacher education in Northern Africa, one of the reasons I wanted to embark on this journey was to look at Algeria and explore the issues and challenges found in MFL teachers' CPD. Arriving in London and being fascinated by its diversity and the variety of resources available on CPD made me much more excited about my research.

Although many people may presume that the choice of my research topic is related to the scholarship grant that I have received from my government to conduct this research, it has, in fact, no connection to the latter. The choice of my research comes from intrinsic motivation. Based on my personal experience in teaching and some of my colleagues' anecdotes, it has come to my awareness that the current CPD provision in Algeria is unsatisfactory. Therefore, at the outset of this research, I had the tendency to always refer to the aim of my research as a changing engine to the present situation of CPD provision for MFL teachers in Algeria. As a researcher in the field of teacher education in Algeria, I had to be constantly reminded by my supervisors that my research is merely exploratory, as it is the first study to investigate MFL teachers' perceptions of their CPD provision in the Algerian context. Although I came to this country with big ideas, acting like an 'agent of change' (Badley 1986), I had to set myself a humble foot in the research area I am working on. The comparative nature of my research adds to its complexity and uniqueness, which makes it more suitable to be investigatory research as a first step rather than research that aims to bring about changes to both educational settings. In this regard, Terri (2014) explains that the business and commercial world has already moved from 'problem solving' to 'problem finding'. She quotes Pink (2012):

‘Right now, especially in the commercial world, if I know exactly what my problem is, I can find the solution to my own problem. I don't need someone to help me. Where I need help is when I don't know what my problem is or when I'm wrong about what my problem is’ (Terri 2014, p. 14).

I agree with Terri's suggestion that the same logic could be applied to the world of comparative education and that problem-finding has a priority over problem-solving, especially when conducting original research in an under-researched area.

3.1 Insider-Outsider Binary

When discussing researcher positionality in comparative research, the aspect of the outsider-insider binary (Obasi 2014; Dwyer et al. 2009; Merton 1972) is fundamental. A study conducted by Banks in 1998 indicated two dimensions to the researcher positionality theme of outsider-insider: the first dimension reflects the origin of the researcher in relation to the community studied (indigenous or external), and the second relates to the perspective taken throughout the research itself (insider-outsider) (Purwaningrum and Shtaltovna 2017, p. 3). Being an insider in one culture and an outsider in the second, this section aims to explain the impact of this binary on my research positionality.

3.1.1 The Evolution of my Researcher Positionality along the Course of Research

I worked as an MFL teacher in Algeria for one year before starting my PhD research in England. During that period, I was able to develop close relationships with my colleagues. Significantly, I also developed strong friendships with other MFL teachers whom I met in my initial training as a trainee teacher. The case for England was different; as an overseas student, I had no contact with my participants before starting the research. My English was competent ; I was the youngest PhD student at UEL university and, to the best of my knowledge, the only international student at the department of education. I viewed my fieldwork in England as intimidating because I

considered myself an outsider in an 'Alien world' (Terri 2014). Peculiarly, while I represented many of the stereotypical outsider traits that can be found in research, I found the context of England rather more accommodating to conduct my fieldwork than I expected. The support that I had received at UEL to help me begin my data collection, and the welcoming of MFL staff at schools I had visited in London, were at great variance to my initial expectations. On the other side of the world, as an indigenous citizen of Algeria, I was contented with having pre-established contacts with MFL teachers in my 'Home world' (Terri 2014) from my initial teacher training and my former school. To reaffirm volatile nature of my feelings, Thomson, Ansoms and Murison (2013, p. vii) state:

‘Most researchers face their first foray into the field, whether on home ground or in a new and alien world, with a combination of fear and elation. Fieldwork is a life-transforming experience...’

Nevertheless, a turning point in my research was when I started my fieldwork. I was offered a teaching position at one of the schools I visited to conduct interviews, and during my fieldwork to other schools in London, I was surprised to see that most of the MFL teachers I met are not English nationals but rather foreign teachers who are, in most cases, natives of the languages they teach. Interestingly, their background resembled mine because we were both foreigners living in England, but both were teaching our native language. There was hence this notion of 'other insiders' where my participants and I were outsiders to the English context. The more I immersed myself in the English education system, the more attainable my data became. Expanding my network of MFL teachers and building a rapport with my participants made the process more straightforward and allowed me to gain acceptance in the field. My new position as an MFL also helped me assimilate into the English educational system and understand its peculiarities closely.

Contrastingly, my fieldwork in Algeria was quite a disagreeable experience for me. I faced numerous challenges in approaching my participants, and there was a shift in my identity between insider and outsider; in some incidents, I felt like an outsider in my

own community. Some of my colleagues considered me an outsider in the sense that I came back to Algeria as a western researcher to conduct doctoral research with a condescending attitude. *An instance of this was when I visited the school where I worked as an EFL teacher for one year before receiving my scholarship. I met a former colleague, a male EFL teacher in his late 40s. I invited him to participate in the study and was thrilled to see his interest in the research, but as he had not been aware of the scope of my research, I had to mention later in the talk that I am pursuing my PhD research abroad in London. The change in the atmosphere was then instantly detected. I may have forgotten his exact words as I was not recording the conversation, but he told me (in Algerian dialect), '...I have an old male friend who is still between jobs and trying to make two ends meet, while you (looking at me from head to toe), at this age, got a job in this school straight after your master's and now doing PhD in England! The only ones getting jobs in this country are women' (sarcastic laugh). I tried to reach him a few days later to arrange a setting for the interview, but he stopped answering my calls. I understood from his behaviour that he had withdrawn from the research. Until now, I do not know the reason for his withdrawal, but I can only presume that it is related to ideological and cultural issues relating gender and age in society which is hierarchical in those aspects.*

Additionally, I realised that although I had identified myself as one of my participants before the start of my fieldwork due to my former position as an EFL teacher, I was surprised to encounter rejection from several candidates whose participation in the research would have been fruitful considering their many years of experience in teaching. The above anecdote highlights one of the reasons I had to travel to Algeria twice to conduct interviews since four teachers and one CPD coordinator withdrew from research. Deggs and Hernandez (2018) argued that reflection on positionality between research subjects and researcher provides a means for researchers to embrace both their explicit and implicit subjectivity about the occurrences within the research setting and from within themselves (p. 2555). I attribute this phenomenon to what Terri (2014) had described as a 'comparative gaze', which entails implicit power relations between the researcher and the researched while

doing comparative education. This section has discussed the evolution of my researcher positionality and its impact on my research. The next part of this section will look at power relations in research.

3.2. Power Relations in Research

The shifting dynamics of power in interview relationships have received considerable interest among researchers conducting qualitative research (Anyan 2013; Chen 2011; van der Riet & Boettiger 2009). This web of power relations manifests itself as a central characteristic in interviews and breaks through during the research process in various ways. When conducting semi-structured interviews, it is vital to tease out these power relations because it helps in creating a better understanding of the interviewing process (Råheim et al. 2016; Limerick et al. 1996).

Despite researchers' efforts to establish an anti-authoritarian relationship between them and their participants, experiences of power shifts are inevitable to emerge. This can be demonstrated through the power of the interviewees as the givers of the 'gift' interview and the researcher indebted to them (Limerick et al. 1996) and/or due to insider and outsider binary (Råheim et al. 2016), gender, age and in some cases even in a language where the interviewee and the interviewer do not share the same L1 (Chen 2010).

The power dance (Vähäsantanen and Saarinen 2012) has surfaced several times in my interviews despite my numerous efforts to minimise its occurrence. For example, before entering the field, I changed my clothing style to look mature and professional (Coffey 1999) because I look younger than my age. I also gave great consideration to the place where I conducted my interviews (Lavington 2016). In that case, I gave my participants a chance to choose the setting where they felt most at ease and comfortable. This was an attempt from me to bounce back the power relations involved in interviews. When I was given the choice, I made sure to assess the practicalities of the location, such as accessibility to the location, appropriateness to have a conversation, quiet, in a cool area, private and away from other people and

distractions (Elwood and Martin 2000). I also made sure to choose a neutral place where my participants would not be in a position to feel powerless.

Nevertheless, even with consideration paid to all these factors, other aspects of my identity highlighted the power hierarchies between my participants and me. These may include gender, religion, age, being a non-native language interviewer (Chen 2010) in addition to the inequalities between the developed and developing worlds (Elwood and Martin 2000). When reviewing the literature about the presence of power relations in interviews, it seems like the interview process creates an unequal power relation regardless of the researcher's position. This is premised on the fact that even if the researcher minimises, to his/her best ability, power relations, the researcher is still the one leading the process, constructing the interviews, analysing data and deciding what goes in the discussion.

3.3 Concluding Thoughts on Positionality

Understanding the power relation between the interviewer and the interviewee in qualitative research is crucial. The dynamism in power shifts can have a great influence on data collection and analysis as well. Acknowledging these throughout the research process is fundamental. In carrying out this research, the aspect of positionality caught my attention from an early stage in the research. Putting my position in the research under close scrutiny and reflecting from a positionality lens on my fieldwork experiences has been a requisite to ensure data validity. At an early stage in my research, I realised that it is challenging to pre-define my stance in the research because it is an ongoing journey and part of a highly complex process. At the risk of jeopardising the validity of my data, I came to the conclusion that acknowledging the presence of these attributes in my research is crucial to secure as much reliable and credible data as possible.

Researchers can best understand the positionality of their subjects through careful and critical reflection of their own positionality, including taking ownership of their'

interpretive lenses and bias' (Deggs and Hernandez 2018, p. 2552). Staying cautious about making assumptions based on experiences from similar settings is a mechanism that researchers can benefit from to prevent the possibility of compromising their participants' experiences. A piece of advice I found really worth looking at is the need for novice researchers to 'embrace their philosophical lens, personal epistemology, and bias as they embark on their first efforts to collect, interpret, and analyse qualitative data' (Deggs and Hernandez 2018, p. 2555). Starting this research with an open mindset and being equipped with the necessary toolkit to conduct this research, such as reflexivity over my researcher positionality, has been crucial throughout my data collection.

4. Philosophical underpinnings of the research

The philosophical underpinnings of research are premised on the epistemological and ontological positions of the researcher and how they view reality (see Kelly, Dowling, and Millar 2018; Slevitch 2011; Bryman 2004). For the purpose of discussion, this section aims to give an overview of the debate that exist between positivism and interpretivism and the perspective of each paradigm about knowledge and how it is conceived. I will conclude with my own philosophical assumptions in this research which have informed the choices I made for the study regarding the research design, paradigm and the methods chosen to collect data (Creswell 2014; Bahari 2010).

There are certain philosophical questions in research that govern how researchers go about finding knowledge, such as what knowledge is and how we can attain it (Admiraal and Wubbels 2005). The answers to these questions have established a division in the field of research between the objective and subjective view of reality. On the one hand, the ontology of the positivist paradigm argues for the existence of one truth/reality. The researcher, in this view, is regarded as independent and detached from this reality (Slevitch 2013) with a standpoint that is 'value-neutral and free of social, psychological, or theoretical biases (Admiraal and Wubbels 2005, p. 325). The ontology of the interpretivist paradigm, on the other hand, stands by the view that there are multiple realities (Bahari 2010). The repercussions of the debate between

these different views led proponents of the two to adopt opposing methodological approaches in research (Kvale 1996).

The epistemology of the positivist paradigm is guided by an objective view of reality which dictate that research findings can only be captured by using quantifiable measures such as surveys and questionnaires (Bahari 2010) and are viewed as the truthful representation of reality (Slevitch 2013, p. 76). The interpretivist paradigm sits on the other end of the spectrum with an epistemology that endorses the plurality of realities (Moon & Blackman 2014) which exist through the subjective representation of the participants' views by the researcher (Denzin & Lincoln 2005). Such view of knowledge calls for the use of qualitative research methods, such as interviews. Benoliel (1996) states:

‘knowledge is relative to particular circumstances-historical, temporal, cultural, subjective—and exists in multiple forms as representations of reality (interpretations by individuals)’ (Levers 2013, p. 3).

Proponents of the interpretive paradigm advocate for the pluralistic nature of reality (Moon and Blackman 2014) as no objective conceptualisation of ‘truth’ exist. In fact, knowledge, in the interpretive paradigm, is perceived to be continuously reconstructed and altered by individuals and groups (Sułkowski 2010). In this study, I am taking the position of the interpretive paradigm as the research I am carrying out a study that looks at the experiences of MFL teachers who are subject to the phenomenon of CPD. I am aiming to explore the provision of CPD through various worldviews of MFL teachers about their experiences with CPD, therefore offering different perspectives from each individual (Creswell 2007). Bryman (1988) argued that the aim of qualitative investigation is to acquire better understanding of the phenomena from the point of view of participants in the study (Slevitch 2013, p. 77). This section has presented my philosophical assumptions in research. The following section will discuss the research paradigm.

5. Research Paradigm

There exist many types of paradigms in the literature with different philosophical assumptions that underpin each one of them. The paradigms differ from one another in terms of how they view the world. Kuhn (2012) acknowledged that the concept of a paradigm is 'in essence a way that scientists within their relative time and society make sense of their world and its reality' (Kelly, Dowling and Millar 2020, p.1). Research in the field (Bogdan and Biklen (1998) Patton (1990) explain that this leads to implementing different strategies of inquiry (methodologies) across them, and it eventually influences how knowledge is generated, studied and interpreted (Adagiri 2014, p. 101).

Discussion about research paradigms that exist in the field of research is profusely present in the literature (Rehman and Alharthi 2016; Foreman and Gillett 1998). In an attempt to grapple with the different underpinning assumptions associated with paradigms, I have come to conclude that there is a paradigm war in the field of research (Bryman 2008; Oakley 1999). The debate about the underlying philosophical assumptions between paradigms seems to be never-ending. Researchers such as Bredo (2009) argued that we need to 'get over the methodology wars'. I agree with Bedro and argue that as researchers, we need to step away from this seemingly never-ending debate and focus on developing new knowledge that will improve the field of research. Despite the cold war in research, there is no best paradigm to use in inquiry; the choice of the research paradigm is dependent on the research questions and what the researcher is trying to find (Silverman 2005).

Debates about paradigms have led some researchers to categorise paradigms into either positivist, constructivist, interpretive, transformative or pragmatic. A number of qualitative researchers were disturbed by this categorisation in qualitative research. Academics believe that 'research is research' and maintain that 'there is no such thing as a research paradigm... stop drawing lines in the sand' (Court 2013, p. 7). I take a middle-ground position and agree partially with this division between paradigms. I therefore sit somewhere between the two extremes of this debate as I do believe that

different research paradigms have fundamentally different epistemologies. However, I would like to point out that even within each of these paradigms, there are various differences in the views and positions undertaken by researchers. In each research paradigm, the philosophical assumptions of the researchers are shaped by their own worldviews that guide the direction of their research and frame their theoretical lens (Creswell 2012). My own ontological and epistemological beliefs stem from my position as an interpretive researcher. This systematically situates the present study in the interpretive paradigm.

Within the interpretive paradigm, a wide array of approaches subtly differ in their philosophical nuances. Kelly, Dowling and Millar (2020) draw on the work of Dahlberg et al. (2008) in their claim that interpretive paradigm is a very broad and complex term with different 'shades' of methodologies that fall under the heading of 'interpretivism' and which can be 'perplexing' (p, 7). Interpretivist approaches allow researchers to view the world through the perceptions and experiences of the participants (Thanh and Thanh 2015). The core belief of an interpretive paradigm is that reality is socially constructed (Prabash 2012; Phothongsunan 2010; Willis 2007). Cohen et al. (2000) explained that 'the interpretive paradigm is to understand the subjective world of human experience...efforts are made to get inside the person and to understand from within' (p. 22).

In educational research, interpretive approaches do not attempt to make any generalisation (Dudovskiy 2018; Thanh and Thanh 2015; Phothongsunan 2010). This characteristic meets the scope of my research as I am not attempting to make any wide representative claims. In fact, I have chosen the interpretivism paradigm because I am more concerned with gathering comprehensive information about the perceptions of MFL teachers about their experiences and engagement with CPD in two research contexts Algeria and England. I seek to capture a deeper understanding and insight into MFL teachers' experiences to give them a chance to voice their opinions which have, till now, been silent. In this study, I am adopting an interpretive stance that is grounded on the interpretation of my participants' perceptions and views which

involves making meaning of the information and drawing inferences (Adagiri 2014). That is to say, for the current study, knowledge about the research inquiry is informed by how I interpret the participants' views and responses to my interview questions. The next section aims to discuss the research design of the study.

6. Research Design

The nature of this study lends itself to a qualitative exploratory research design. This section aims to present the design of the study while also giving an overview of qualitative and exploratory research.

6.1 Qualitative Research

There are two basic approaches to conducting research: quantitative and qualitative research. A fundamental distinction between the types of research exists in terms of their purpose, methodology, design and the data revealed. Quantitative research is statistics-based. It involves questions that can be best answered in numbers. Qualitative research, on the other hand, aims to describe the lived experiences of individuals around a phenomenon and reflect on their experiences with a description of the context and the setting that influenced how the participants experienced the phenomenon (Creswell 2013a). In this way, qualitative and quantitative data can be seen as complementary in the sense that if one type of research can provide us with numbers, the second can explain the reasons why we have those numbers.

Nevertheless, Austin and Sutton (2014) argue that 'what is missing from quantitative research methods is the voice of the participant' (p. 436). Patton (2002) asserted that qualitative methodological approaches tend to be based on recognising the subjective, experiential lifeworld of human beings and describing their experiences in depth (Sloan and Bove 2014). As this study takes a primary interest in giving a platform to teachers to voice their perceptions about their CPD, the current research is found to lean more towards qualitative research, which clearly manifests itself throughout the

whole research purpose, methodology and methods deployed in the study. Through qualitative research, we can explore a wide array of social phenomena (Marshall and Rossman 2011, p. 3). I am particularly interested in exploring MFL teachers' perceptions of their CPD to gain an understanding of the lived experiences of these individuals. Glesne (1999) asserted that qualitative methodologies seek to interpret a world in which reality is 'socially constructed, complex, and ever changing' (Sloan & Bowe 2014, p. 1294). This correlates with the purpose of this research which is to have a rich account of MFL teachers' perceptions of CPD and provide a comparative analysis of empirical data that captures how these teachers engage with CPD and the value they give to their CPD provision in their contexts in Algeria and England.

6.2 Exploratory Research

The study also situates itself in an exploratory research design as this type of research design 'tends to tackle new problems on which little or no previous research has been done' (Brown 2006, p. 43). In its scope, exploratory research is research that 'intends merely to explore the research questions, identify the research problem and capture a better understanding of the issue being investigated (Dudovskiy 2018). This study is rooted within an exploratory research design, as little is known about the CPD provision for MFL teachers in Algeria. In my study, I explore not only what has been written about CPD through gathering comprehensive literature on it but also scratch below the surface of CPD delivery and provide a comprehensively rich account of MFL teachers' perceptions of their experiences with CPD in Medea and London.

7. Sampling Frame

7.1 Criteria for choice of schools

My initial intention as part of my sampling frame was to approach state schools in London because the schooling system in Algeria is not as diverse as in England. State schools present the largest portion of types of schools in Algeria, and there are no private schools for secondary education in the city of Medea, where this research takes

place. I intended, at the start of my research, to bring as much comparability as possible to the two research contexts by attempting to focus on getting access to state schools and MFL teachers who work there. Nevertheless, within a year and a half, I came across a turning point that steered me away from the initial plan I aimed for. The longer I spent in London, and the sampling frame became more concretised, the more I realised that even within state schools, there are differences. Therefore, my initial plans changed, and I decided to engage with a couple of Academies and private schools as well in an attempt to delve more into the diversity of the schooling system in England.

The criteria are further illustrated in the below figure:

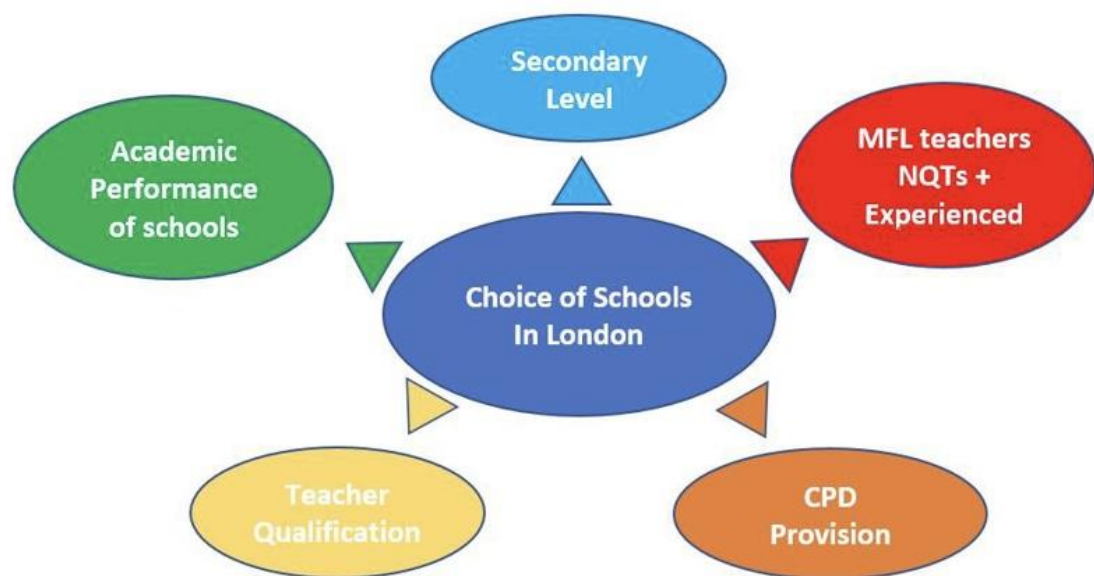


Figure 4: Criteria used for the choice of schools in England

As the figure shows, a number of criteria were used in selecting the schools in England for the study. The rationale behind this is to develop a common framework for comparing the two research contexts. Esser and Vliegthart (2016) stated, 'a key issue in conducting comparative empirical research is to ensure equivalence, that is, the ability to validly collect data that are comparable between different contexts' (p. 1).

Considering that the two countries chosen for the study are widely different and vary in many fields, such as language, education and culture. I wanted to bring as much balance as possible to the study by adopting the same criteria for comparison, the purpose for which data were gathered, and the collection method.

- **Secondary Level:** The level of the school was crucial for the study to set the two contexts with a common ground for comparison. To that end, I chose to approach secondary teachers in London in parallel with the sample of MFL teachers in Algeria who teach in middle and high school, often attended by teenagers aged between 11 and 17 years old.
- **Teacher Qualification:** In this study, I gave importance to inquire about the teaching route MFL teachers chose to become MFL teachers.
- **Academic Performance of Schools:** I paid consideration to the performance of the schools in my selection because I wanted to examine secondary schools in London with different ratings and see whether there is a relation between the schools' performance and the quality of the CPD provision. For that reason, Ofsted reports were scrutinized to identify schools' ratings.
- **CPD provision:** It was my intention to carry out observation sessions at the schools and hence it was very important for me to approach schools that provide school-based CPD for their teachers. Attending those CPD sessions enabled me to approach other MFL teachers in the department.
- **MFL teachers:** The sample chosen for the study is MFL teachers. My access to schools in London was conditioned by the presence of the MFL department at the school. Meeting this requirement has been untroublesome as the subject of MFL is compulsory in all schools, with a variance of the languages taught at the level of the MFL department of each school.

7.2 Sampling Technique

There are, broadly speaking, two types of sampling that I have consulted when choosing teachers for this study: probability and non-probability sampling. In

probability sampling, randomisation or chance is the core of the sampling technique. It is mainly associated with positivist research, and it is argued that it allows a higher level of reliability of research findings with the possibility of making generalisations of the findings (Dudovskiy 2018). However, these advantages come with higher complexity compared to non-probability sampling and are more time-consuming and usually expensive (Adagiri 2014). For this study, however, a non-probability sampling was employed, which embraces a purposive sampling strategy. The decision to choose this type of sampling is because it is less complicated, less expensive, and it does not make any claim to representativeness when used with small-scale research studies (Cohen et al. 2007).

Purposive sampling is, by definition, 'a sampling technique in which the researcher relies on their own judgment when choosing members of the population to participate in the study' (Dudovskiy 2018, p. online). Cohen et al. (2007) assert that in purposive sampling, the researcher identifies specific criteria or characteristics in a sample that meets the needs of the inquiry. These characteristics require participants to have the necessary knowledge and experience of the subject, the capability of reflection, and the willingness and time to take part in the study (Shah 2016, p. 93). I found purposive sampling to be the most appropriate sampling method for this study because it allowed me to approach MFL teachers for the study. The sample for the study was therefore dependent upon those secondary teachers who were open and willing to take part in the study, while also being knowledgeable of their role in the research.

Within the purposive sampling, there has also been a degree of snowballing sampling strategy (Atkinson & Flint 2001; Lewis-Beck, Bryman and Liao 2004) in my research. Snowballing technique is defined by Kumar (1996) as:

‘The process of selecting a sample using networks... a few individuals in a group or organisation are selected, and the required information is collected from them ... they are then asked to identify other people in the group or organisation

and the people selected by then become part of the sample’
(Bellalem 2008, p. 81).

I use this term very loosely between particular schools in London and Medea, where teachers introduced me to their colleagues who would be interested and willing to take part in the study. This part of my research fieldwork research will be fully explored in the section on data collection procedures.

7.3 Participants

After changing the nature of the research into a comparative study, I aimed to approach teachers in England who are teaching MFLs. My plan was, therefore, to target English nationals in London who are teaching languages that are foreign to them, similar to the Algerian context where I am approaching Algerian teachers who are teaching MFLs. However, it is noteworthy that the teachers I ended up working with in London are mainly foreign teachers coming from abroad to teach MFLs in London, and who happen to be natives of the languages they teach. This may be due to the multicultural nature of London, which opens doors of teaching recruitment to professionals from other countries thanks to their native language.

Flick (2009) argued that in qualitative research, there are no set rules for the number of participants. It is at the researchers' discretion to determine the sample size after considering various factors such as time, resources, purpose and depth of the study (Shah 2016, p. 93). For this study, the participants were 10 MFL teachers from England and 10 EFL teachers from Algeria teaching teenagers aged between 11 and 17. The study also examines the perceptions of two CPD coordinators from both research contexts. I have chosen to engage with both novice teachers and experienced teachers for my research. This helped me to create a more holistic picture of MFL teachers' experiences with CPD.

Teacher	Nationality	Subject	Teaching Route	Years of service
Miss. Johanna	German	Spanish	PGCE	5 years
Miss. Isabella	Spanish	Spanish/ French	MA in Spain/ QTS	2 years
Miss. Gabriela	Spanish	Spanish	MA in Spain/ QTS	2 years
Mr. Hacen	French	French/ Spanish	GTP	17 years
Mrs. Emma	English	French	PGCE	2 years
Mrs. Jiniya	Bengali	Bengali	QTS / employment route	5 years
Miss. Soumia	English/ Moroccan	French	PGCE	1 year
Mrs. Zahra	Iraqi	Arabic	Post 16 teacher training	12 years
Mrs. Zineb	Algerian	French	BA in French + QTS	10 years
Mrs. Nora	Algerian	Spanish/ French	BA in French + Degree in Spanish	24 years

Table 4: The profiles of MFL teachers in England

Teacher	Nationality	Subject	Teaching Route	Years of service
Miss. Radjaa	Algerian	English	MA in English/	3 years

			Teaching Contest	
Miss. Hadjer	Algerian	English	MA in English/ Teaching Contest	3 years
Miss. Hiba	Algerian	English	MA in English/ Teaching Contest	2 years
Mr. Mohamed	Algerian	English	MA in English/ Teaching Contest	4 years
Mrs. Huda	Algerian	English	MA in English/ Teaching Contest	3 years
Miss. Nabila	Algerian	English	MA in English/ Teaching Contest	3 years
Miss. Taysir	Algerian	English	ENS 'Ecole Normale Superieure'	3 years
Mr. Tarek	Algerian	English	ITE 'Les instituts de technologie de l' ducation'	20 years

Mr. Amine	Algerian	English	ITE 'Les instituts de technologie de l' ducation'	30 years
Miss. Farah	Algerian	English	ENS 'Ecole Normale Superieure'	3 years

Table 5: The profiles of MFL teachers in Algeria

Name	Nationality	Jurisdiction	Job	Years of service
Mrs. Aqsaa	English/ Pakistani	City of London	Teacher of science/ CPD coordinator	7 years

Table 6: The profiles of the CPD coordinator in England

Name	Nationality	Jurisdiction	Job	Years of service
Mr. Ahmed	Algerian	City of Oran	Inspector of English/ CPD coordinator	32 years
Mrs. Nacera	Algerian	City of Medea	Inspector of English/ CPD coordinator	20 years

Table 7: The profiles of CPD coordinators in Algeria

The tables 4, 5, 6, and 7 show a great diversity in teachers' profiles between the two research contexts and even within their contexts, ranging from gender to ethnic background. tables 5 and 7 in this section demonstrate that all MFL Algerian teachers were white (North African background), whereas tables 4 and 6 show that MFL teachers in London were considerably different in their ethnic backgrounds. The tables

also indicate that there was also a wide range of age and years of service in the profession among participants as well.

I recognise that there is a limitation in my sample in England because I have aimed at the start of my data collection to target English nationals who are teaching MFLs in London. However, the sample I ended up working with, are 90% foreigners coming to teach MFLs in London from abroad. But what was interesting from the emerging data was that I came to realise that this limitation was rather rewarding for my research findings in terms of gathering a rich account of MFL teachers' perceptions of CPD from different backgrounds. Furthermore, these MFL teachers who came to teach in England from different countries, cultures and different education systems helped add variety to my findings and level up the diversity of teachers' profiles in my research.

8. Research Methods

In qualitative research, Sloan and Bowe (2014) argue that personal interviewing and observations of subjects in contexts are among the techniques used to find data. For this research, I had initially planned on carrying out two methods, non-participant observations and semi-structured interviews. Nevertheless, there are a number of reasons that actually came into play which prevented me from using observations as a data collection tool. Therefore, the method I used went on to be only semi-structured interviews. This section aims to present a detailed account of the role of observations in my research and the rationale for keeping interviews as the sole main research method for this study.

8.1 Rethinking the role of observations as a data collection method in this study

Originally, at the start of this research process, I had imagined there would be two data collection methods, non-participant observations and in-depth semi-structured interviews. Non-participant observation is often used in tangent with other data

collection methods and can offer a more 'nuanced and dynamic' appreciation of situations that cannot be as easily captured through other methods (Liu & Maitlis 2010). Mulhall (2003) puts forward the analogy of a jigsaw. She claims that interviews with individuals provide the pieces of the jigsaw, which are then fitted into the 'picture on the box', which is gained through observation (p. 308). However, although observations were planned to be a primary data collection tool in this research, it proved to be problematic during the main inquiry of the study. This section aims to highlight the reasons why observations were eventually not deployed as a data collection method, while nevertheless proving useful during the conduct of this comparative study.

At the start of my fieldwork and after gaining the approval of the University Research Ethics Committee (UREC) to start my data collection, I had the intention to use observations as a main research method along with the semi-structured interviews. Therefore, I carried out a pilot study for the observations in order to check for the feasibility to film the CPD sessions and capture as much data as possible about the CPD delivery in both research contexts. Heacock, Souder, & Chastain (1996) affirmed that it is challenging to capture data through direct person-to-person observations, and using video-captured data is useful because it provides a chance for researchers to replay and review events which would help achieve great levels of details in observation and analysis (Woolrych et al. 2015). The pilot study took place in London as teachers and CPD coordinators were more approachable in England than in Algeria due to my full-time schedule at the University of East London.

The participants understood that the aim of the pilot observation did not specifically target their learning but were broadly used to check the feasibility of filming the CPD session, and they were happy to help. One of the teachers even offered to help me set up my camera and place it on the stand. I did not feel that teachers were uncomfortable during the pilot observation, and I was informed at a later stage that teachers did not feel any inconvenience by the observation and filming, so it was assumed that participants in the main study would have the same feeling. One worthwhile outcome of the pilot study was developing strategies to collect observational data. Through

filming the CPD session, I discovered where to best place the camera for video recording, how to copy the recording to my computer and the usefulness of taking notes during the session aside from the film recording. I strongly believed that observational data would be helpful in providing context for my participants' interviews.

Nevertheless, after completing the pilot study and starting the main inquiry of the research, I came across some methodological as well as cultural challenges in relation to filming the CPD sessions. Both in England and Algeria, permissions were sought to film this CPD session, but the request was declined by the CPD coordinators in both research contexts. In England, formal CPD sessions offered for MFL teachers are generic CPD for all the staff. So, it was not permissible to get the consent of all teachers teaching at the schools where participants work. There was only one subject-specific CPD session organised for MFLs where an external consultant delivered the session for MFL teachers at one of the schools in London. Permissions were sought to film this CPD session, but the request was declined. In Algeria, female teachers preserved their right not to be filmed due to the conservative culture in the country as opposed to the male teachers, who had no problem being filmed during the CPD session. Therefore, no filming took place in Medea.

CPD sessions in Algeria are not regularly planned for MFL teachers during the academic year. Carrying out observation in two research contexts was not a realistic aim for my research. My travelling schedule and full-time program at UEL impeded me from returning to Algeria each time to attend CPD sessions. Thus, I was only able to conduct one observation session of CPD for MFL teachers in Medea. During the research process, I realised that it would be impossible to get a holistic picture of the CPD provision in both research contexts that was reliant on observations as a data Collection method. The observation sessions that I was able to carry out during my fieldwork are therefore considered merely snapshots of reality.

In London, I attended some of the CPD sessions at the four schools where the 10 participants of the study in London work. These observation sessions of CPD were particularly useful because they helped me as an overseas doctoral student to

understand the context, the schooling system, teachers and CPD coordinators' roles, themes covered in the CPD sessions, and teachers' responses to the session. During my fieldwork in London, I was employed by a private Islamic school to teach Arabic and assist in teaching French. My job as an MFL teacher at the school was beneficial to absorb a different educational environment to that in Algeria. Even so, my employment at the school started after I finished my fieldwork, and I do not explicitly draw on it for my data analysis.

Carrying out observations was incredibly useful to gain a deeper understanding of the variety of teachers' experiences with CPD. This enabled me to focus on the research method that I deployed, semi-structured interviews. The observations helped me contextualise the data generated from my interviews. The fact that I was present in the CPD sessions of MFL teachers who took part in the study, in both contexts, helped the smooth flow of the interview for the main inquiry. For instance, owing to my presence in some of the CPD sessions, I could relate what my participants said in the interview to the sessions I attended during my fieldwork. An instance of this was when Gabriela, one of the Spanish teachers I interviewed, talked about what makes a CPD session useful for her:

“What makes a good CPD for me is talking about the topic that you are interested in, like behaviour management and making you do something with it, not just like listening to people talking about it, but by giving you an activity to work on. So, for example, we had a session conducted by a teacher who is also foreign; he is Romanian, and he gave us this worksheet with a plant and the parts of the plant in Romanian, so it was about how to think outside the box for students whose first language is not English”.

As I had the privilege to attend that session myself, I immediately could relate what Gabriela was talking about to that CPD session, which was extremely helpful for our discussion in the interview. Nevertheless, there are certain limitations associated with observations which, to a great extent, may have affected the data obtained from this research method. Firstly, the presence of the observer is a great concern in research that uses observation as a research method and is argued to be a reason that may change the social dynamics in the room and/ or for the people being observed to alter

their behaviour (Price et al. 2020). This is referred to as 'the Hawthorne effect' (Fernald, Coombs, DeAlleaume, West, & Parnes 2012), a change in behaviour as a response to observation. Another issue that emerged in the research was a significant concern for me, as it touched on the authenticity of the data I gathered from my observations. I was approached by an MFL teacher that I was acquainted with and who was present at the session. The MFL teacher informed me that the CPD coordinator (inspector) had been informed that I am coming from London for data collection and therefore, the planning of the CPD session was designed for the purpose of my visit. In her own words, she stated, "the session was just a show for you". This has brought to my attention that the events that occurred in my observations may not have been as authentic as they would occur in a natural setting.

Another consideration and potential limitation of research using observations is the researcher bias. Kawulich (2012) stressed that researchers need to be aware of their own biases, which may stem from their background experiences, gender, culture, and ideologies. She contended that all these spices would filter their understanding of the situation under study (p, 8). In this study, I acknowledge that my one-year experience teaching EFL in Algeria, and the five months of experience teaching MFLs in London, might have impacted the data collection and analysis process. I recognise the possibility that I might have reapplied a lens of my experience at the schools when analysing my data, and I have, therefore, attempted to the best of my ability to separate my positionality between the two when doing data Analysis.

I have carefully reflected on the problematic use of observations, and that its use was partly a by-product of the complexities of doing comparative research in two different contexts. Nevertheless, its role in this thesis, as a comparative researcher from the point of view of somebody coming from another country, was that it was invaluable to deepen my understanding of the contexts I looked at in my study, mainly the English education system. Observational data is thoroughly dependent on the lens of the observer and their epistemological stance and positionality. There is a distinction between the positivist and interpretivist paradigms in research when it comes to the lens that the observer embraces when carrying out observation. For this study, I

acknowledge that my epistemological interpretation of the observational data may have been nuanced by my stance as an interpretive researcher. As Ratner (2002) pointed out, you need to acknowledge your own biases and put aside those biases as much as possible to view the data neutrally and make accurate interpretations (Kaluwich 2012, p. 8). Therefore, I would like to point out that my field notes reflect my observational lens and not necessarily that of reality. I draw partially on the data from my observations to contextualise the data generated from the interviews and gauge the extent to which teachers' perception of what they do is similar to what they actually do in reality (Stickdorn et al. 2018; Mulhall 2003). In that case, I also acknowledge that in the same situation, another observer/ researcher may not fully agree with my observational data. Reid et al. (1996) affirm that multiple researchers observing the same events in a single setting do not necessarily 'see' the same things. This section has addressed the role of observations in this research. The next section will present the main research method deployed in this study, semi-structured interviews.

8.2 Semi-structured interviews

Interviews are one of the most common methods used in research (Alshenqeeti 2014; Ryan, Coughlan and Cronin 2009), and the primary means for collecting information in qualitative research (Stephens 2018; Cresswell 2007). There is a broad range of interpretations of what we mean by interviews (see Kvale 2013); the latter has been defined by Kvale & Brinkmann (2009) as,

‘a conversation that has a structure and a purpose. It goes beyond the spontaneous exchange of views in everyday conversations and becomes a careful questioning and listening approach with the purpose of obtaining thoroughly tested knowledge’ (p. 3).

Interviews can be placed on a continuum of structure, from 'unstructured' to highly 'structured' and, embedded in this continuum is the idea of how much 'control' the interviewer will have over the interaction of the participants' (Harrell and Bradley 2009, p. 25). For this study, I chose to engage with semi-structured interviews as a

form of conversational dialogue. Åkerlind (2005) asserted that a very common and useful research method in various qualitative research has been the open and deep interview, carried out in a dialogical manner. In this study, I used interviews to collect data for my research because they were compatible with the nature of the design and paradigm that I embraced for the study, which is interpretive research.

In-depth interviews are used as a primary research method in the study, and I overwhelmingly draw on the data generated from the interviews for my research findings. Clifford et al. (2016) stated, 'semi-structured interviews do not offer research a route to 'the truth', but they do offer a route to partial insights into what people do and think' (p. 112). Henceforth, the aim of using interviews as a primary research method in the study was not to seek homogeneity among MFL teachers' perceptions of CPD. Instead, I acknowledge differences in teachers' views and draw on this range of individual perceptions of teachers to produce a big mosaic picture of CPD provision. The aim was to get an in-depth understanding of MFL teachers' experiences of how they engage with CPD and paint a picture of CPD provision while attempting to determine the reasons that shaped teachers' perceptions. In the same vein, semi-structured interviews were also carried out with two CPD coordinators in both locations to investigate the nature and purpose of the CPD sessions in the eyes of the CPD coordinators.

8.2.1 Piloting semi-structured interviews

Piloting is an essential part of research and has become a widely used method. There is extensive literature on piloting (see Thabane et al. 2010; Arain et al. 2010; Cohen et al. 2007). The field of education and social sciences has witnessed an increase in the use of piloting over the last two decades (Yujin 2011; Johanson and Brooks 2010; Teijlingen and Hundley 2001). For this study, I carried out a pilot study in order to try out the interviews. This came with the intention to seek ideas and comments from the participants and help reduce any problems that might arise during the main inquiry, such as ambiguous or misunderstood questions.

Piloting constituted an important step in my research as I found it imperative to prepare myself prior to conducting the interviews for the main inquiry of the research. Therefore, I approached an MFL teacher of French who happened to be my flatmate at the time and asked her to carry out a pilot interview which she agreed to. After providing her with the participant information sheet and consent form, I asked her to read through them and tell me whether there was anything more she needed to know about the research. The feedback I received from the participant was helpful in the revision of the interview schedule and the rewording of the questions as she reported on some questions being vague.

Another issue in the interview guide was that I was too engaged with the participant's answers. I often interrupted the discussion to ask her about things she said which I found interesting and may bring up useful data if developed further in the discussion. Therefore, I added more probing in order to get rich data. These follow-up questions gave a more natural flow to the discussion. I also added more open-ended questions to allow the participants to open up more in their answers to questions needing more elaboration.

My relationship with the interviewee allowed her to give me constructive criticism on my performance. In my turn, I took her comments positively to improve my performance for the main inquiry. After I finished the pilot interview, I listened to the audio recording of the interview to give myself an idea about the areas I need to develop more, such as hesitations, diverting from the focus of the discussion and unpreparedness to unexpected answers by the interviewee. All of that has helped me build my confidence and readiness for the main inquiry of my research.

9. Data collection

9.1 Access to Schools in England

Attempts to gain permission to access schools in London were faced with numerous challenges that obstructed me from finding a sample for the study in London. While these will be fully explored later in this chapter (section 13.2), I wanted to give a brief

account of my experience in this section as it marked the beginning of my fieldwork journey in England. Despite those challenges, access to schools was eventually obtained through gatekeepers, which enabled me to approach participants and carry out semi-structured interviews with MFL teachers. Once access to schools had been established, permission was then sought from individual MFL teachers. Documents about the research were provided: the participant information sheet and the consent form. The documents gave an overview of the research explaining the participants' rights and my appreciation for their valuable contribution to the study.

9.2 Interviews

My first trip to Algeria for data collection was in April 2019. I could only conduct six interviews out of 10 in Medea during my time there. My fieldwork trip to Algeria coincided with Spring Holidays, and two teachers had to withdraw from my research because they had been away for holidays. In addition, two other teachers withdrew from the research for unknown reasons. Hence, before travelling to Algeria in July for the second time, I had to do some networking. I contacted some of my former colleagues on social media from the UK. I e-mailed them the participant information sheet of my research and the informed consent letter (see Appendix 2) in which I explained the nature and aim of my research. I asked them to introduce the research to other teachers they know. I also asked some members of my family involved in teaching to invite their colleagues to participate in the research.

As the interview setting can directly impact the research process and the results, I sought to conduct the interviews in a neutral location for both me and the participants (Krueger 1994). Krueger also suggested that appropriate interview locations include restaurants, private homes, and public buildings (Elwood and Martin 2000). In Algeria, since teachers were on Spring holidays, there was no possibility to meet at the schools where they work. Therefore, the interviews took place in a well-known co-working space in the city of Medea. I made sure to make my participants comfortable and relaxed. In England, I allowed my participants to choose the location that would

be most convenient for them. Elwood and Martin (2000) insisted that the interview location should be convenient for both participants and researchers; for instance, quiet and easy to find. Considering their busy schedule, I commuted to all four schools where the participants work to conduct the interviews either early in the morning or after school. I asked the teachers for a quiet place to hold the interviews, which was easy to find, considering that teachers have their own designated classes for teaching.

In preparation for the interviews, I made sure to learn the interview questions lest I be distracted during the discussion and need to refer to the interview guide which may affect the flow of the interview (Doody and Noonan 2013). This was maintained by Smith et al. (2009), who stated that 'a well-prepared researcher is more likely to be engaged, listen attentively and respond appropriately in the interview' (p. 33). This is why, learning the questions in advance helped me maintain eye contact with my participants, show interest in their answers and make them feel pleasantly involved in the interview.

I aimed for the interviews to last 45 minutes which in most cases did, however, some teachers were more open than others and their interviews extended to last for one hour or more. Clifford et al. (2016) claimed that 'although the interviewer prepares a list of predetermined questions, semi-structured interviews unfold in a conversational manner offering participants the chance to explore issues they feel are important (p. 117). An instance of this was an interview I had in Algeria with a middle school teacher who found a prime interest in discussing the obstacles that impeded her as a woman in Medea from seeking professional development opportunities outside her city. When asked whether she had attended any study days or conferences related to English language teaching, Tayssir answered, *"If there is a workshop or training, I would be interested in attending, but these opportunities are very rare in Medea. Most of the training I hear about are far; I once heard of a Conference in Constantine, but there is no train, and my family wouldn't let me go alone without my brother or father"*. I shared an interesting discussion with Tayssir about this issue.

On my first trip to Algeria, I was unable to secure enough members of participants for the study. Nevertheless, and thanks to my networking with former colleagues from

university, I was able to reach MFL teachers in other cities in Algeria. Ultimately, I managed to conduct two interviews over the phone with one teacher from the capital Algiers and one from the city of Tipaza. Holt (2010) alleged that it is more challenging for researchers conducting telephone interviews to reduce the power gap due to the hidden social differences and gestures such as handshaking, eye contact, and body language, which usually helped reduce this gap but are not possible to do through a phone interview (Harvey 2011, p. 439). In this research, however, these aspects were not problematic due to the prior established relationship I shared with the participants as they were my colleagues at university during my Masters. Moreover, even though doing those interviews did not respect the boundaries of my research, as my study is a comparative study between London and Medea, the bright side is that it gave me a chance to get an image of MFL teachers' perceptions from two other cities in Algeria. By doing so, I confirmed my claim that we cannot generalise the findings of my research in Medea to all the cities in Algeria as the findings were strikingly distinct in one of them.

The interview guide was written in English and the questions were asked in English in both research contexts. In England, the interviews were held in English as the participants and I in London share the English language, and it was our means of communication. In Algeria, although the participants and I shared L1, I asked the questions of the interview guide in English. This decision came with a consideration that the term CPD is a western concept and its use in Algeria is still in its infant stages. There were, therefore, some concerns about translation and how the meaning of the concept of CPD would lose its essence if translated into the Arabic language.

Nevertheless, although I asked the questions in English, I acknowledged that my participants' responses to the interview questions, if given in Arabic, would bring more richness to the data. However, I could not impose that choice on the participants because it would heighten the power relations in the interview in the fear that they would see it as I was undermining their English proficiency as they were all EFL teachers. Language became an issue in my data collection, and I explore this more in chapter 5, section 2. With concerns paid to all these elements and to minimise the

effect of power relations, I decided to give participants a choice to answer in the language they find more convenient: Arabic, French or English. All the Algerian teachers chose to answer me in English, justifying their choice that it was an opportunity for them to practice their English with me. However, there was the occurrence of code-switching to the mother tongue, Arabic, as a resort when they faced some difficulty with terminology and could not express themselves well in English.

There are several types of code-switching (see Livia and Hall, 1997) that can be used in discourse. The use of these different types of code-switching varies depending on the situation and the reason. In my interviews, I identified the type of code-switching that my participants opted for in the interviews as code-switching as an exploratory choice since it occurs in the case of lack of lexical item (Prelovskaja 2013). This phenomenon has been further explained by Fachriyah (2017), who clarified that 'the reasons cannot be separated from the influence of linguistic diversity in a community of people who intermingle to form a mixture of language that they can understand' (p. 149). The following section aims to discuss the method I used for data analysis.

10. Data interpretation and analysis

This section aims to give a detailed account of the process followed in data analysis. Flick (2013, p. 3) presents the process of data analysis as the central step in qualitative research. He further stresses that whatever the data are, it is the analysis that forms the outcomes of the research. Punch (1998) corroborates this view by noting that the strengths of qualitative data rest on the competence with which the analysis is carried out (Adagiri 2014, p. 117). Several researchers have argued that there is no right way to analyse qualitative data (Holloway & Todres 2003; Punch 1998). Patton (2002) states:

‘Qualitative analysis transforms data into findings. No formula exists for that transformation. Guidance, yes. But no recipe. Direction can and will be offered, but the final destination remains unique for each inquirer, known only when - and if- arrived at’ (p. 432).

From the literature, I have found numerous methods used to analyse data depending on the research study in focus and the phenomena under investigation. Knowing there are many ways to analyse qualitative data, selecting the appropriate tool can be overwhelming for novice researchers. Kawulich (2004) contended:

‘It may be helpful to understand that there is no prescribed way to address the process. The ways that they [the researchers] choose to analyse data should stem from a combination of factors, which include the research questions being asked, the theoretical foundation of the study, and the appropriateness of the technique for making sense of the data’ (p. 96).

Analysing qualitative data typically involves immersing oneself in the data to become familiar with it, breaking it down, then looking for patterns and themes, searching for various relationships in the data that help the researchers understand what they have and discovering what is important and what is to be learned (Kawulich 2004; Bogdan and Biklen 1982). For this study, I have used one source of data collection, which was interviews, using the appropriate materials (phone and audio recorders). The data elicited from the interviews have been transcribed after the fieldwork has taken place. The following section explains the process of transcribing interviews before data analysis.

10.1 Transcribing interviews

Before starting my data analysis, the first step was to listen to all the interviews I carried out in England and Algeria and do the transcription. I have decided not to hire a transcriber to transcribe my interviews on my behalf nor use a software because of budget restrictions and translation (see also this chapter, section 12.6). Therefore, I opted for an old-school method and decided to do it manually. Transcribing interviews manually has significantly helped in my analysis process in terms of engaging intensively with the data. This was ultimately fruitful when I organised and categorised the data generated from the interviews into codes and themes. Thompson

(2014) asserted that listening to the interviews again and transcribing them makes the researcher re-live the interview experience again. It also serves as an eye-opener to many factors involved in the interview, which are worth reflecting on. Instances of such are how much the researcher steered the conversation in a particular direction, gaining some sense of how trustworthy the conversation is, and how much is needed to think about the researcher's own influence on the interview (Thompson 2014).

10.2 The use of thematic analysis

The prominent literature of Algerian studies in education scarcely explores the experiences and engagement of MFL teachers in their CPD. There is a stereotype that their voices and views are silent in the field. There is also a scarce existence of exploratory research about MFL teachers' experiences with their CPD in England. The use of thematic analysis is believed to be particularly informative and fit for the study because it allows me to give a detailed account of the nuances of how MFL teachers from Algeria and England perceive their CPD. From my own analyses, I hope my data will be among the tools to break the stereotype and give a chance for MFL teachers to talk about their varied experiences with CPD in both research contexts.

Thematic analysis (TA) is a popular method for analysing qualitative data and has been used by many researchers in a variety of disciplines thanks to its flexibility across different fields. Braun and Clarke (2006) in psychology; Swap et al. (2003) in physical physics; Rooney (1998) in Mathematics...etc. Thematic analysis is considered an umbrella term for a wide range of approaches rather than a singular method (Braun et al. 2019; Braun and Clarke 2006). Different versions of thematic analysis are underpinned by different philosophical and conceptual assumptions and are divergent in terms of procedure (Caulfield 2019).

There is a wide range of definitions that scholars have advanced to define the term. My data analysis is highly influenced by the work of Braun and Clarke (2006), who defined thematic analysis as 'a method for identifying, analysing, organising, describing, and reporting themes found within a data set' (p. 79). At the heart of thematic analyses is identifying important themes from the data (Soguel et al. 2019;

Chapman et al. 2015; Floersch et al. 2010). As part of my data analysis, I have adopted a six-phase data analysis process developed by Braun & Clarke (2006). The following section will discuss how this has been put into action.

10.3 Stages of Data Analysis

The first data analysis stage was based on a constant comparative method between the interviews. I had to continuously read and re-read all the interviews several times, which allowed me to become more immersed and familiar with my data's content. While doing that, I took the chance also to highlight any utterances that I found worthy and important to answer my research questions. In this regard, Hurd, Evans and Renwick (2018) explained that the researcher needs to develop codes for data through constant comparison 'within and across' interviews (p. 1189). By repeating the process several times, codes will then be combined to create categories and later developed into conceptual themes related to the research focus (Charmaz 2014). The next major analytic phase my research consisted of was coding the data. Gibbs (2007) described coding as 'how you define what the data you are analysing are about... Coding is a way of indexing or categorising the text in order to establish a framework of thematic ideas about it' (p. 38). I considered the coding phase crucial because it led me directly to developing the theoretical categories. The following phase in my analysis comprised of examining the codes to identify significant patterns of meaning among the codes and which may be considered potential themes. For that reason, I collated the relevant data to each candidate theme and worked with and reviewed the data to check each candidate theme's likeliness to become an established one. Heydarian (2016) argued that at this stage, the researcher can use both theory-driven (deductive) and data-driven (inductive) stages of analysis to generate themes from the codes. The researcher hence starts by examining the code rates based on data for theory-driven themes according to their research interests as well as the preconceived ideas they had about the data before data collection, then identify quotes that fit within the theory-driven themes. On the other hand, the researcher can also examine any emerging

response codes that did not fit within the predetermined deductive themes and, henceforth, identify new inductively derived themes (Heydarian 2016 p. 52).

After choosing the themes, the following phase of the analysis entailed checking the accordance of the candidate theme with the data. This aimed to ensure that the choice of the theme is fit to answer the research questions and merits to tell a compelling story of the data. For this reason, upon further analysis of the data, I decided to run the themes through some refinement and changes, which resulted in them being, changed, blended, or discarded. After deciding on the themes, the next phase involved the development of a thorough examination of each theme. I focused on each one of the themes by investigating its scope and determining its 'story'. As part of this phase, I aimed to name all the themes I have chosen for my data. This section has presented the different stages of data analysis.

10.4 Concluding thoughts

As an early career researcher, drawing on the literature review I have written as part of the thesis and my readings of CPD-related literature, I still consider myself an early reader in the field. I therefore decided to abstain from imposing my thoughts on the data throughout the analysis. Based on my humble experience in the profession and research, I realised that I am not fully knowledgeable about all the pre-existing theories in the field. Thus, I decided to employ both 'open coding' (Gibbs 2011), where I retained an open mind about what I was going to find while at the same time not eliminating all my initial interests and hypothesis.

I argue that data analysis can neither be purely inductive, eliminating all our preconceived theoretical ideas, nor be utterly theory-driven, following a solely deductive approach. It is imperative to relate the emerging data to the relevant literature in the field and the research interests providing that the researcher does not force the data into these but instead allows the data to generate based on the emerging themes from the research. My process in data analysis has involved both 'empirical grounding' and 'theoretical grounding' in a way that combines both inductive and deductive methods in data analysis (Mansour 2008).

It is also noteworthy that details which I found significant in the interview transcripts were highlighted and extracted to be part of the discussion of findings in my research. The meaning attributed to each of these utterances was based on my interpretation of my participants' experiences. That is to say, the findings of my research are informed by how I interpret my participants' responses to my interview questions. In this regard, Gibbs (2011) warns that 'one should try to pull out from the data what is happening and not impose an interpretation based on pre-existing theory' (cited in Burnell 2013, p. 105). Therefore, although the interpretive stance adopted for this study is based on my interpretation of teachers' perceptions, I have attempted to the best of my ability to present their views and experiences in the most authentic possible way. The final phase of data analysis involved bringing all the pieces of the analysis together to produce an analytic narrative of the data. This included contextualising the data analysis in relation to existing literature.

11. Ethical Considerations

In this chapter, I have dealt with one of the ethical issues that can take place in qualitative research: the power relationships between the researcher and researched (Chen 2011; Karnieli-Miller, Strier and Pessach 2008). This section will delve deeper into the ethical issues involved in this research and how I chose to deal with them to ensure the maintenance of research validity and reliability.

Educational research is filled with ethical puzzles (Cohen Manion and Morrison 2018) that merit ample consideration by the researcher. These ethical concerns are significant in social research considering that involvement of human subjects (Adagiri 2014). Howe and Moses (1999) stressed the seriousness of ethical dilemmas in educational research by arguing that ethical treatments of participants in the research involve privacy, anonymity, confidentiality and informed consent (p. 25). All these elements make the process of research complex and subtle, frequently placing researchers in moral predicaments. For this particular reason, qualitative researchers should be constantly alert to the ethics that govern educational research and equip themselves

with certain moral guidelines along the journey of their research lest they jeopardise the rightfulness of the study to be recognised in the world of research.

Bloomberg and Volpe (2012) argued that ethical guidelines should underpin research phases at all stages of the research, from the nature of research to reporting data. These can be embodied in ensuring that the research is harm-free for the participants, informed consent of participants has been obtained, transparency, use of incentives, and respect are due to the boundaries of the participants' privacy and autonomy (BERA 2018). The UEL Code of Ethics, in parallel, accentuates all these criteria:

the respect for the autonomous nature of human participants in research and the protection of their rights, especially, but not limited to, issues of voluntary informed consent, freedom from any form of coercion; the right to withdraw from research; maintaining the confidentiality and protecting of their personal data against loss or misuse (Code of Practice for Research Ethics 2015).

11.1 Seeking Approval from UREC

Before the start of my data collection, I sought the permission of the University Research Ethics Committee (UREC) to carry out my pilot study and fieldwork. After roughly three months of amendments and feedback on the documents submitted: participant information sheet, consent form, interview guide and ethics application, I received approval from the committee to start my fieldwork. At the start, I conducted my pilot study for the interviews and carried out the pilot observation on-site at the University of East London. Finishing the pilot study marked the beginning of the main enquiry of the research. Still, with all the excitement that comes with it, there were essential elements that I needed to examine prior to starting my fieldwork.

11.2 Safety

An element of research that has a great impact on ethical issues is the context where the research is carried out and the field it falls within, as every field has its specific ethics (Robson 2011). The current study has no relation to the medical sector, which may have put my participants in physical harm. Teachers' participation in the research was confirmed by obtaining their full consent to take part in the study to avoid any deception or lack of informed consent.

The world of ethics does not consider the safety of participants only but also the safety of researchers (Vanclay, Baines and Taylor 2013; Shaw 2006). In my research, the main potential risk may have been in the process of data collection, where I had to conduct my fieldwork in two different settings. Interviews and observation sessions were conducted in two different countries. The scope of my research necessitated that I travel between Algeria and England to carry out data collection. Therefore, there may have been some physical risks, such as plane crashes and road accidents. This is why I completed a Risk Assessment Form to secure my safety in Algeria before my fieldwork. As for my participants, I ensured that the meeting points, if not chosen by them, adhered to the research safety guidelines with minimal chances of incidents or injury.

11.3 Informed Consent

Informed consent (first introduced in the 1947 Nuremberg Code* and the 1964 Helsinki Declaration*) is one of the procedures that researchers should implement in their research. The significance of using informed consent has been stressed by many researchers placing it at the heart of research ethics (Meyerhoff, Schleef and MacKenzie 2015; Bloomberg and Volpe 2012).

After receiving approval from UREC, consent forms were disseminated to participants to read and sign along with the Participant Information Sheet. In the two documents, I ensured that my participants were fully informed about the nature, purpose and methods intended to be used in the research. The consent form also

explained their participation in the research and highlighted that their participation in the study was completely voluntary and free from coercion.

Participants were also aware that their quotes from the interviews would be used while maintaining anonymity when reporting the study findings. Moreover, at the end of the interviews, participants were reminded that they would be sent a copy of the interview transcripts to read and agree about the information they disclosed during the interview. They were also reminded that they have the right to withdraw from the research at any stage they want, without necessarily informing the researcher of their reasons for doing so¹.

11.4 Anonymity and Confidentiality

The anonymity and confidentiality of participants are essential to ethical research practice (Crow and Wiles 2008). In my research, data collection took place in a cross-border setting, making it a complex process. I considered the privacy and confidentiality of my participants in disclosing their information by assuring them of their anonymity and the confidentiality of any information they provide (Bryman 2008; Miles and Huberman 1994). That means that I took all the necessary measures to not compromise the safety of the data and breach the code of trust I had built with them.

Even though research ethics fundamentally highlight that data and participants should be protected and disguised through secrecy, anonymity, and disclosure (Kaiser 2009; Wiles et al. 2008), using pseudonyms in research creates ethical dilemmas for researchers (Sanjari et al. 2014; Ogden 2012; Orb, Eisenhauer and Wynaden 2001). Researchers are torn in the discussion of whether to give recognition to their participants' participation in the study by using their real names or using pseudonyms

¹ The Nuremberg Code and Helsinki Declaration are the foundation of principles of consent in research today. The Nuremberg Code that was formulated in 1947 as a result of Nazi trials. It was the first and most stringent pronouncement on the rights of research subjects. The first principle of the Code stated unequivocally that “the voluntary consent of the human subject is absolutely essential.” The Nuremberg trials are often considered a watershed in the history of human subject research. A new phraseology was added to the vocabulary of the scientific community. This was the right of an individual to not only be informed of the nature of the research, but also a right to refuse to consent to serve as a subject for research (Moazam, 2000).

to protect their real identities. For my research, before I started the analysis phase of my data, I gave each participant a pseudonym. I have done this to establish anonymity and keep their identity secret, as it was reassured to them before the start of the interviews. Therefore, the participants' names in the thesis are not the actual names of the teachers who took part in the study.

Nevertheless, Ogden (2012) argues that 'researchers need to be sensitive about this matter and consider how participants might feel if they see themselves and others lost in a randomly selected pseudonym'. For this reason, when replacing the real names of my participants in this study, I took into consideration the cultural background of my participants, mainly because I am doing a comparative study. I have accordingly attempted to use similar pseudonyms to their real names to preserve their cultural background and help the reader, throughout the discussion of my findings, locate the cross-cultural differences in the experiences of participants and perceptions of their CPD between the two research contexts.

Both in England and Algeria, I have complied with the legal requirements in relation to the storage and use of personal data following the Data Protection Act (1998) as stipulated in the UK (BERA 2018, p. 23). This meant that no other party, except me, had access to the data. All audio and written records were kept on my laptop, secured with a password.

11.5 Issue of Bias

When conducting any qualitative research, concerns about the researcher's bias arise. The extent to which bias would affect the data and analysis of the research has been considered by many researchers in the field of qualitative research (Galdas 2017; Rajendran 2001). Ballalem (2008) argued that qualitative research cannot in any way be free of bias. Smith and Noble (2014) stated that 'researchers bring to each study their experiences, ideas, prejudices and personal philosophies, which, if accounted for in advance of the study, enhance the transparency of possible research bias' (p. 100). I

agree with the two scholars and wish that the issue of bias in qualitative research, when accounted for, does not undermine the significant value that this type of research contributes to knowledge. As Court (2013) has convincingly argued, there are measurements for trustworthiness in purely qualitative studies, and 'subjectivity 'is not a research swearword'. It is, therefore, necessary for researchers to acknowledge the bias in their research (Rajendran 2001) and account for potential sources of bias in order to examine the validity of their research findings. Among the milestones where my bias was present in my research was when I translated my interviews. The following section aims to discuss the issue of translation in the research.

11.6 Issue of Translation

The issue of bias has marked its presence in my research through translation. Knowing that this issue is frowned upon in the field of research, I have attempted to the best of my ability to regulate it. The use of translation entails that the researcher interprets meaning based on his/her background knowledge, and this is where bias takes place.

The interviews were translated from the Algerian dialect to the English language. Even though I am not a certified translator, being trilingual (Arabic, French, English) was in my favour as it allowed me to translate the interviews by myself without seeking help from a professional translator. Despite my knowledge that it would be a lengthy process, my decision not to hire a translator to do the translation for me was grounded in three main reasons (Bellalem 2008):

- The translation process is quite expensive on its own, let alone the supplementary cost of the daunting task of transcribing, which is also pricey.
- I wanted to transcribe the interviews and translate them myself because I wanted to familiarize myself better with my participants' perceptions and allow myself to immerse more in my data.
- I was concerned that translators are mainly accustomed to translating documents within the field of legislation and law rather than academia.

I was, therefore, uneasy about the thought that professional translators would not be able to conceptualise the concepts and themes discussed in the interviews (Bellalem 2008, p. 110). This section has analysed the issue of bias in the research and accounted for its presence in the study when translating the interviews. The next section will discuss how these elements of the study may touch on the trustworthiness of the research and how the researcher can best deal with these issues.

11.7 Trustworthiness in Qualitative Research

When conducting qualitative research, the term truthfulness has proved to be contested and problematic (Clark 2007). Quantitative researchers often convey the message that qualitative research is 'plagued by subjectivity' (Court 2013). This view of qualitative research has been shaped by the type of data generated in this kind of research. Wellington et al. (2009) argued that qualitative research involves collecting 'subjective accounts and perceptions that explain how the world is experienced and constructed by the people who live in it' (p. 100). Therefore, the issue of trustworthiness has received much consideration by several researchers who addressed the issue of truthfulness in qualitative research (Peters 2004; Bridges 1999). The consensus agreement in this field of research maintains that researchers who give priority to the truthful representation of data in the best way that mirrors their participants' views and perceptions tend to achieve validity and reliability in their research. During this research, to the best of my ability, I have attempted to ensure that the primary data collected was genuine and portrays the world I have investigated. Having discussed the issue of trustworthiness, I would like now to move to the issue of validity and credibility in research.

11.8 Validity, Reliability and Credibility

In this study, the concepts of validity, reliability and credibility were given great importance as they determine the quality of the study. The terms are often intertwined and aim to be maintained throughout the research to ensure truthfulness and consistency. Much scholarly attention has been devoted to emphasising the

significance of these issues in research. Numerous researchers have advanced strategies to establish validity and reliability in qualitative research (Morse et al. 2002; Cho & Trent 2006).

Among the issues that affect the validity of any research is the researcher's bias. A potential problem with using interviews as a research method is collecting reliable data that can be interpreted with inaccurate meaning. The danger here lies in the possibility of misinterpreting the data, which ultimately compromises the validity of the research. Discussion about the researcher's bias and how it can influence the discussion of the findings has been the subject of intense debate within qualitative research. The significant concern here is that the researcher may, intentionally, not convey the meaning as precisely expressed by participants but rather impose their own thoughts and beliefs on the data.

In my study, identifying my positionality at the start of fieldwork has significantly helped me to be attentive to the presence of bias in my research. Nevertheless, despite my various efforts to minimise its presence in the research, I realised that my own voice during processing data is inevitable. In such cases and when relevant, I have endeavoured in every possible fashion to manage it in a critical reflexive way.

There are several ways I have implemented to attain validity in my research. First and foremost, to achieve the internal validity of the present research, a pilot study was carried out in order to test the feasibility of conducting observation sessions during formal CPD. This was in addition to improving the interview schedule proposed for the main inquiry. Secondly, combining ways to obtain data can increase its external validity, as well as the accuracy of its interpretation. (Zohrabi 2013).

Reliability refers to the extent to which the results gained from the research are dependable consistent and replicable (Zohrabi 2013; Neuman 2011). However, data generated from qualitative research are known for their uniqueness and subjectivity (Gray 2013; Zohrabi 2013). This makes reproducing the same findings in qualitative research almost impossible, even if repeated under the same conditions. In such cases, it is difficult to establish reliability considering the nature of qualitative research. In

this regard, Zohrabi (2013) argued that reliability can be achieved through providing a full explanation to all phases of inquiry, rationale and the research design – not to mention the incorporation of different research instruments. In my research, data was collected through the use of two research methods, and I have provided justifiable arguments for the rigour of implementing each of them. By doing so, I attempted to make this research more reliable.

11.9 Concluding thoughts

Ethical considerations can be described as one of the most important parts of the research. It can be viewed as an umbrella term that encapsulates informed consent, the safety of the researcher and participants and the researcher's bias in qualitative research. As researchers step on the threshold of fieldwork, maintaining a balance between these elements is crucial to attaining the validity and reliability of the research. In the present research, the fact that there is a combination of methods is a significant step to achieve validity and reliability. In this chapter, I have highlighted the factors that may have affected the validity of my research and how I attempted to address each one of them.

12. Data collection challenges

12.1 Methodological challenges

Just like in any other research, this research was faced with numerous constraints that were inevitable to happen. The comparative nature of this research adds to the number of challenges associated with data collection. For instance, the scope of the research created a challenge of long distance between the two research contexts. Moreover, time and budget were recurring constraints in the research. As a full-time doctoral student, making regular trips during fieldwork was not possible due to the distance between England and Algeria. This also impeded me from conducting a pilot study in Algeria and, as a result, piloting was carried out in London for both interviews and observations.

Another methodological issue identified with comparative research is the differences in glossary and terminology of some concepts. The issue has proved unavoidable in cross-cultural comparisons, and I have discussed in length the impact it has on research in the introductory chapter. At the same time, I addressed how I dealt with it in my interviews during fieldwork (more details in this chapter, section 10.2 and chapter 5, section 2).

A further challenge I experienced in the research was more specifically about the choice of the two cities where this research was carried out: Medea and London. The two cities have contrasting characteristics, including geographical location, demographic, and economic status. It was, therefore, very challenging to compare teachers' perceptions as one sample group belongs to a relatively small and less diverse environment compared to London, which is considered one of the largest cities in the world and known for its multicultural diversity in the population. Czerniawski (2007) stated, 'different geographical locations can radically affect the lifestyles, and therefore the work-based experiences of different sample groups in comparative research' (p. 103). Another factor that I did not think about in my comparison is that I am comparing teachers who are working in one of the most cosmopolitan cities in the world to a relatively small city in Algeria.

One example of how such differences between research contexts have impacted the lives of teachers I have interviewed is the amount of time my Algerian sample spent discussing the poor teaching conditions in their contexts, such as poor infrastructure, overcrowded classes, and low salaries. My English sample, on the contrary, chose to focus on CPD provision and CPD activities in the interview. Even though this point was not something I chose to focus on in my interview schedule, as the questions were mostly related to CPD, it ultimately turned out to be a significant theme in the Algerian context that I could not overlook.

12.2 Challenges of data collection in England

Amongst the milestones of my research was after I finished the pilot study and was in the process of preparing to start data collection in England. Numerous difficulties

made their way into the study, which had a substantial impact on impeding me from approaching MFL teachers in London. I touched upon this when I talked previously about my positionality in this chapter, an element of that positionality had been acknowledging how naïve I was as an overseas researcher coming from a different context to carry out observation sessions at schools in London. There were crucial steps in my research, such as access to schools which I assumed I could methodologically do with relative ease, but I quickly realised that it is not a straightforward process. An ample amount of time had actually been spent attempting to gain the trust of schools and conduct fieldwork. These obstacles were very challenging and hard to overcome alone. Consequently, I had to reach out for help to access schools through my professional network at the University of East London.

12.3 Challenges of data collection in Algeria

The presumptions I had about finding difficulties in London were linked to my identity as an outsider researcher in the context of England. On the opposite side, I was more optimistic about my field trip to Algeria as I presumed that it was a context that I belonged to and, mainly, a context where I had contacts, friends, and former colleagues. Little I knew about the significant challenges waiting for me.

My first trip for data collection in Algeria was in the Spring of 2019. Owing to my former position as a teacher of English at a middle school, I planned to use an opportunistic sampling technique when approaching participants. Nevertheless, aside from a few teachers I know in my professional network in the city of Medea who agreed to participate in the study, I found that other English teachers were not keen to participate in the study. As I came to the conclusion that it would be hard for me to carry out data collection in my city, Medea, I sought help from my personal network and asked them to introduce me to teachers. I also had the privilege to grow up in a family of teachers. Therefore, I also reached out to my family relatives in order to be introduced to more teachers who might be interested in taking part in the research.

Among the challenges I faced during my data collection was the participants' unpunctuality, which sometimes extended to cancelling the meeting without prior notice. Another challenge was the teachers' unwillingness to be recorded, which I found hard to execute considering that my ability to intake everything the participant says is implausible unless I use an audio recorder (This has also been mentioned in the consent form, so I believe that some teachers had signed the form without reading). Moreover, two teachers and one inspector from the jurisdiction of Medea withdrew from the research without providing a reason.

All these challenges made my first fieldwork trip to Algeria a very disagreeable experience as some of the teachers were experienced with a very good reputation, and their withdrawal from the research was very disheartening. As part of the participant information sheet, I could not ask for the reason for their sudden lack of interest in my research, although it may be linked to the prior established issue of power relations (see section 3.2). Nevertheless, in an attempt to understand the reasons behind the challenges I faced during my data collection in Algeria, I related all these obstacles to the lack of a culture of research in Algeria. It is not very common for teachers to participate in research addressing issues at the level of secondary education in Algeria. To my own knowledge and based on my participants' experiences, there was no research carried out as part of a study where teachers have been invited to take part in an interview. Therefore, I came to the conclusion that teachers are not used to being asked to take part in the research, which explains their reluctance or scepticism about the nature of my research when I first contacted them.

This brings me to my next point when I say that I mostly found help from teachers who are experienced and more familiar with research, teachers who give lectures at university while simultaneously teaching at middle school, teachers who own private schools of languages, and also teacher trainers who organise for conferences related to English Language Teaching (ELT). This section has presented the challenges I had faced along the course of this research. The following section presents a summary of this chapter.

13. Summary

The chapter set out to present the overall methodology followed in the study. It started by presenting the research aim and questions, which frame the study. The chapter also provided an overview of the philosophical assumptions that shape the research. The chapter explained the research design and discussed the research paradigm, which informed the use of the research methods employed for data collection. Additionally, the chapter gave a detailed account of the sampling frame deployed to recruit participants for the study and explained the procedures of the pilot study, followed by a comprehensive discussion of the main inquiry and how data was collected in the two research contexts. Moreover, it has explained the approach of analysis that was used to analyse the data generated from interviews. The chapter concluded with a discussion about the ethical considerations, validity, reliability, and trustworthiness of the data along with a final section that addresses the challenges faced by the researcher during her fieldwork. The next chapter presents the findings of the study.

Chapter Five: CPD Awareness, Engagement and Practices

1. Introduction

The previous chapter gave a critical account of the methodology deployed in this thesis. This chapter is the first of two findings chapters that report on the data generated from the semi-structured interviews. The two findings' chapters aim to explore MFL teachers' perceptions of CPD, their engagement with it, and its perceived effectiveness. The decision to present the research findings in this way is grounded in a commitment to give a rich and in-depth account of MFL teachers' perceptions of their formal and informal CPD.

This chapter focuses on the two first themes that emerged from the study. The first theme in the chapter explores MFL teachers' awareness of CPD in both research contexts. The second theme of the chapter addresses the different forms of CPD and is divided into three dominant sub-themes that emerged inductively from data analysis. These sub-themes are: lesson observation; collaborative learning; and self-directed learning. The findings are set out in a way that gives voices to the lived experiences of MFL teachers in Algeria and England which have been, until now absent from the literature. The voices of MFL teachers are present, alongside those of two CPD coordinators from Algeria and one CPD coordinator from England. For each theme, the Algerian data is presented first followed by the English data.

The presentation of the findings of this chapter will also shed light on some of the key challenging aspects related to the comparative nature of the study where a phenomenon is understood differently in light of a variety of different contexts. The contextual sensitivity (Czerniawski and Kidd 2011) has surfaced recurrently in the research with a number of concepts that are used differently between Algeria and England. This chapter acknowledges the linguistic differences and demonstrates how this aspect of the research has been problematic in attempting to address the phenomenon under scrutiny.

2. Teachers' awareness of CPD

This chapter draws on the first theme generated from the findings about participants' awareness of CPD in their own contexts; I am introducing it as the first theme because it paves the way for the other perceptions of MFL teachers about their CPD provision. As explained in the methodology chapter, I made a decision to ask the interview questions in English in both research contexts for the following reasons. In England, the interviews were held in English because the majority of participants from the English sample were either English or non-English nationals and therefore, the English language was found to be the common language spoken between both parties. In Algeria, all participants were Algerian Arabs; however, I had two rationales for choosing to ask the interview questions in English. First, there was a challenge of attempting to find a term that would equal the meaning of CPD in the Arabic language; although CPD appeared from the literature to have common currency across the western publications discussing teacher education (Kitto, Price, Jeong, Campbell, and Reeves 2019; Kennedy 2014; Timperley 2011). There was a need, therefore, to address CPD as it is in the English language because there is a rare appearance of an equivalent to the term CPD in Arabic/Algerian academic publications. The closest term to CPD in the Arabic language is **تدريب مهني مستمر** which translates to 'Continuing Professional Training' and only covers the formal provision of CPD. Therefore, the second rationale of why I chose to ask the interview questions in English is because I was concerned that the meaning of CPD would be eroded had I used a word that does not cover the larger and more comprehensive notion of CPD. For this reason, I introduced the term CPD to the participants prior to starting the interviews. I used my own definition of CPD (see chapter 3, section 2.1) and I found this a crucial step to do at the start of the interviews to enable teachers' engagement in the discussion. In Algeria, although the questions were asked in English for the reason presented above, MFL teachers were given the choice to answer in the language they find themselves most comfortable speaking in, either Arabic, French, or English. The data presented below has been primarily grounded on MFL teachers' perceptions about the existing provision of CPD in Medea and London.

- **Algeria**

In Algeria, responses from the semi-structured interviews demonstrated that CPD appears to be a relatively new concept in the working context of the MFL teachers who took part in the study. Four teachers were unaware of what CPD stands for. For instance, two MFL teachers Tarek and Amine, had both graduated from the *Instituts Technologiques de l'Education* (ITEs) (see chapter 2 for more details), and had both over 20 years of teaching experience; nonetheless, they did not have any knowledge about the concept of CPD. For instance, when asked about CPD in his interview, Amine responded, “no, I have never used it before, CPD, this is the first time I hear about it”. Similarly, to these two MFL teachers, CPD also appeared to be an alien term to two MFL teachers whose teaching qualifications have been awarded by the *Ecole Normale Supérieure* (ENS) (see chapter 2 for more details). Farah and Tayssir, for instance, had graduated from the ENS, with three years of teaching experience, and yet they were unaware of what CPD stands for. Tayssir, in her interview, stated, “no, I haven't (heard of the term CPD), what does it mean?”. The unfamiliarity of MFL teachers who graduated from the *Instituts Technologiques de l'Education* (ITEs) and the *Ecole Normale Supérieure* (ENS) with CPD illustrates how CPD, as a concept, is not used in the context where they are working. This is clearly encapsulated by Tayssir's comment when she said, “I have never used it in my career”. While the data from these four interviews have pointed out to these MFL teachers' unawareness of the concept of CPD, the data has interestingly shown that there was a level of awareness about CPD from MFL teachers who took the graduate route to teaching.

Six of the ten MFL teachers from the Algerian sample graduated from university with an MA degree in English didactics (teaching). A common ground between these MFL teachers' responses was that their knowledge of CPD was superficial and one which they know little of. For instance, Hadjer, an MFL teacher with three years of teaching experience, openly declared that “it is still a strange term to me because we just tackled the theoretical part of it at university, like definitions [...] how I remember it is that two students were selected by the module teacher to present the topic of CPD to

class, and I found it really ineffective because it was too theoretical to understand how to implement this in practice". In her interview, Hadjer explained that the meaning of CPD is still too vague to her because the module addressed the notion of CPD at a superficial level and did not exemplify how CPD would impact on her practice. When prompted further to talk about CPD, MFL teachers attempted to elaborate more on their answers in a way that would give more context to CPD. For instance, Nabila, an MFL teacher from the city of Tipaza commented:

"CPD is like enhancing knowledge skills, especially in teaching, it contains a long-life learning, we learn, we develop, and then we apply in the field of teaching".

Nabila appear to have better understanding about the concept CPD than the other participants, but what stands out in Nabila's response is the link she made between CPD and lifelong learning. Her answer suggests that she perceives CPD as engagement in ongoing learning as a means to professional development and improvement in practice. This link to lifelong learning has been echoed by Amine, another participant who, although never heard of the term before, attempted to define CPD in light of his own teaching experience that extends to over 30 years. Amine stated,

"It (CPD) means everything for a good teacher, it is the teacher to continue your professional development, you don't say that I am an experienced teacher I have good knowledge, but in fact you have to continue developing yourself, you still make mistakes, it is long life learning".

Amine gave an interesting definition to the phenomenon under scrutiny, CPD. His quote highlights his individual disposition to learning and that, similarly to Nabila, he is self-motivated and inclined to ongoing learning and not resistant to change. Interestingly, inspectors of the English subject who were interviewed as part of the study on CPD in Algeria appeared to share the same perception of CPD as these two MFL teachers. Ahmed, an inspector of the English subject from the city of Oran in

Algeria, described the notion of CPD based on his background and experience in inspecting MFL teachers for over 32 years. Ahmed referred to CPD as, “*a lifelong learning journey for teachers and inspectors to learn together about how we can improve our practice*”. Ahmed’s reflections about the nature of CPD as being a lifelong journey where teachers never stop learning and growing shows a similar conceptualisation of CPD to a few MFL teachers. From his responses to the interview questions, Ahmed appeared to be more aware of CPD as opposed to the majority of MFL teachers in the Algerian sample. It is surprising that the knowledge Ahmed has of CPD was not reflected in most of MFL teachers’ responses, but this can be related to the fact that the cities/ contexts where Ahmed and MFL teachers who took part in the study work are different: Medea and Oran. The data has shown that there are common perceptions between teachers and inspectors about CPD being associated with life-long learning. This notion of lifelong learning is comprehensively documented in the literature where teachers are encouraged to adopt an approach to lifelong learning (OECD 2022; Friedman 2011). Mann (2005) maintained that ‘professional development is a continuing process of becoming and can never be finished’ (p. 105). Sachs (2016) contended that teachers need to be committed to ongoing professional learning that is transformative in its intent while recognizing that teachers will need different types of activities throughout the various stages of their careers to improve practice and broaden their skills (p. 423).

This section aimed to showcase the different levels of awareness MFL teachers have of CPD, mainly in comparison to their peers from different teaching routes as well as their inspectors. What is clear from the data is that CPD is still relatively a novel concept in these MFL teachers’ practices. The data has demonstrated that participants’ knowledge of CPD varies differently depending on the route MFL teachers have taken to teaching (whether graduate route, ENS, or ITE). Although university graduates appeared to be more familiar with the term than their peers from the ENS and ITEs, they were still not clear about what CPD encapsulates. The question that rises here is why these teachers have no, if not limited knowledge of the

concept CPD. One possible explanation might be that the formal provision of CPD is not that it is non-existent in the context of MFL teachers who work in state schools, but rather to point out to the novelty of the concept in teachers' working contexts. There is a linguistic factor here where there are different terms used in Algeria which highlights the cultural differences between the two countries under investigation. As it turned out, participants were more conversant with other terms they use in their contexts. This was voiced differently between participants as they referred to other terms that they are more familiar with, such as “*training*”, “*seminars*” and “*study days*”. The use of different terms in the two contexts highlights issues of cultural specificity (see chapter 1, section 5.3) in the research and how certain terms can be referred to differently in different contexts. The next section aims to present the findings related to MFL teachers' awareness of CPD in the English context.

- **England**

In London, MFL teachers' awareness of CPD emerged as a key theme in the interview data across different schools in London. As explained in the methodology chapter, the majority of MFL teachers in the English sample are non-English nationals (9 out of 10 MFL teachers are overseas). It was therefore important to highlight the different level of awareness these MFL teachers have of CPD. Overall, MFL teachers seemed to be familiar with the concept of CPD mostly after they started teaching in London. For instance, two MFL teachers stated,

“I heard about it only here when I arrived to England [...] it is some kind of training and courses for teachers to help them improve in their teaching careers and also in their development in the future” [Gabriella, MFL teacher].

“When I first moved here, they told me CPD sessions were in the library, I had no idea what this (CPD) was, until I had the first session of CPD [...] then, I realized how it worked and how the training focused on different aspects of teaching and learning” [Isabella, MFL teacher].

Both of Gabriella and Isabella's responses show that they had not been familiar with the concept of CPD in their previous working contexts, Spain. This was a common finding between MFL teachers who came to teach in England from overseas. To these MFL teachers, CPD appeared to be an alien term prior to their arrival to England. The majority of MFL teachers were only able to build a better understanding of CPD after they settled and started teaching at their schools in London.

A possible interpretation of the unfamiliarity of MFL teachers in London with the concept of CPD does not necessarily heighten the novelty of the phenomenon of CPD in other contexts as opposed to its presence in England. In my belief, this rather highlights again issues of contextual specificity in the research where CPD as a term is more commonly used in the Anglo-Saxon sphere such as England, USA, and Australia and this has been largely evidenced in the literature (Kennedy, McNamara (UK); Timperley, Hargreaves (USA); Sachs, Ling (Australia)). Whereas, on the other hand, non-English speaking countries where MFL teachers in the study come from such as France, Spain, Germany,. may have other terms in their respective languages that are more or less the equivalent of CPD.

Besides MFL teachers' unfamiliarity with CPD prior to coming to England, another salient point that appears from the two above interview extracts is Gabriella and Isabella's reference to CPD as a form of "*courses*" or "*training*". It appears that MFL teachers' awareness of CPD is not as comprehensive as the literature on CPD suggests. In fact, using the term 'training' interchangeably with CPD has been a common trend in MFL teachers interviews. For instance, Zahra, an Arabic teacher, referred to CPD as "*a training session that happens in the schools where the school provides training for teachers*". Another MFL teacher Soumia, also stated, "*CPD is a training provided for teachers usually in which very practical methodologies are, or practical ideas that are given not only by experts but also by other members of the staff*". It can be seen from the data that MFL teachers' awareness of CPD is a narrow conception in which they equate CPD to a form of training. This correlates with findings from previous research where CPD has often been limited to being present at courses. As an example,, in research conducted by Hustler et al (2003), the findings revealed that although the

concept of CPD varied amongst teachers based on their years of service and the context of the school where they work, teachers dealt with CPD from a traditional perspective in which they addressed CPD as courses, workshops and conferences (p. 27). Such a traditional perception of CPD can be described as too simplistic and reductionist because it has reduced CPD to simply be a form of training where teachers acquire a superficial set of skills rather than addressing the complex nature of the phenomenon of CPD.

While some MFL teachers dealt with CPD from a traditional perspective, there were two instances from one MFL teacher and one CPD coordinator about CPD which showed a more comprehensive level of awareness about the phenomenon of CPD:

“CPD, I believe to be is, not always that 45 minutes context that we have at the school, but it's ongoing where teachers work to improve their teaching skills every day, however that might be in the session or outside the session, or collaboration, or working together, but teachers improving their teaching practice in the classroom and outside the classroom” [Aqsa, CPD coordinator].

“Well as we are teachers, we learn everyday right [...] so as teachers, we are regularly developing, we are focusing on what is working, and what is not working and we try to improve every day, [...] so in terms of continuous professional development, I would say generally speaking (it takes place) inside the school, but of course you have this role to play as a teacher, so you know the community, the culture, I mean you learn even from the outside world” [Jiniya, MFL teacher].

The two interview extracts show a shift in understanding of CPD from a narrow traditional view of CPD to a broader conception of teachers' learning. Both participants endorse the notion of lifelong learning and that CPD takes place continuously along teachers' careers. Moreover, what emerges from the two extracts is the recognition of the broad ways in which CPD can occur. These different CPD forms range along a continuum from formal to informal learning, and it can take place inside the school or off the school premises, collaboratively with a group of teachers or

individually. The next section will attempt to address the different forms of CPD MFL teachers in the study reported to engage in.

The data of the study has revealed that a variety of perspectives were expressed by MFL teachers about what CPD means to them, and this indicated that there is considerable difference in the level of awareness MFL teachers have of CPD. In Algeria, the data has shown that the notion of CPD is still relatively little understood in the teaching context of where the Algerian participants work. This has also been evident from the literature where the term scarcely presents itself in books and journals discussing teacher education (Missoum 2015). Participants were more familiar with terms such as 'in-service teacher training' which is a recurrent theme in academic publications (Boudersa 2016; Haouam 2014). In England, most MFL teachers were unfamiliar with CPD before coming to teach in London. A possible explanation for the disparity in the level of awareness MFL teachers in London have of CPD can be related to the different background and experiences these teachers had in the contexts where they worked before coming to teach in England.

In the two research contexts, the concept of lifelong learning has been associated to CPD and this is significant considering that the field of education has been characterised by rapid changes in recent years (Lichtman 2022; Belle 2019). The emergence of new teaching strategies and new ways of learning has emphasised the importance of lifelong learning for teachers to keep up with the current changes taking place in their profession. The findings of this research agree with that of many other studies that have encouraged and supported the notion of lifelong learning and the need of advocated teachers to stay committed to it (Kitto et al. 2019; Armour, Quennerstedt, Chambers and Makopoulou 2015). This section has presented the findings related to the first theme generated from the study about MFL teachers' awareness of CPD in the two research contexts. The following section will present the findings related to the second theme generated from the findings of this research which is 'forms of CPD'.

3. Forms of CPD

In the previous section, we established that MFL teachers' awareness of CPD varied between participants in the two research contexts. This section aims to give light to MFL teachers' perceptions of the different forms of CPD that they engage with. These forms, as reported by participants, appear to range over a spectrum of practices, "*we have different forms of CPDs in the school*" [Hacen, MFL teacher]; "*CPD happens in so many different forms, the one that is the most regular is in school*" [Aqsaa, MFL teacher]. This feature of CPD has been corroborated by the evidence gathered from the literature which contends that CPD has a multi-faceted nature that manifests in a broad range of forms (Kennedy 2014; Fraser et al. 2007; Mann 2005).

The different forms of CPD can vary from mentoring, journal writing, lesson observation, collaboration with colleagues, workshops, to action research and extends to many other forms (Richards & Farrell 2005). As wide and diverse these forms can be, as challenging it is to attempt to cover all of them in one finding chapter. For this reason and for the purpose of this thesis, a selection had to be made for the most recurrent forms MFL teachers in the study referred to engage in their interviews. The theme 'forms of CPD' is divided into three dominant sub-themes that emerged inductively from data analysis which are: lesson observation, collaborative learning, and self-directed learning. The next section aims to present MFL teachers' perceptions of lesson observation as a form of CPD.

3.1 Lesson observation

One of the most identified activities MFL teachers discussed as part of CPD was lesson observation. The data have shown that lesson observation was regarded as a useful way for sharing and collaborating with other teachers to improve their teaching. Nevertheless, two divergent and often conflicting discourses emerged when teachers discussed this activity with which they engaged both formally and informally. This section will present the findings related to MFL teachers' perceptions of their

experiences with lesson observation as a form of CPD. This will be presented under two headings of formal and informal practices of lesson observation.

3.1.1 Formal lesson observation

When lesson observation was formally conducted, MFL teachers felt that tension arose when lesson observation was conducted as a form of evaluating teachers' performance such as appraisals and inspection. MFL teachers in both contexts expressed concerns when lesson observations were conducted with the aim to monitor and assess their practice. This section aims to present the findings from the Algerian data regarding MFL teachers/ perceptions with formal lesson observation.

- **Algeria**

In Algeria, formal lesson observations were reported by participants to take place most often by the inspector of the English subject when there is an inspection visit carried out. The inspection visits aim to evaluate and assess MFL teachers' performance and whether they are complying with the regulations issued by the Ministry of Education (Khedri 2020). In this study, participants were dissatisfied about the way inspection visits were carried out, mainly in relation to lesson observation that leads to attaining QTS. For instance, one MFL teacher stated:

“I only did it (lesson observation) with my inspector, when she attended my capem², she didn't give me good feedback, I mean she pointed to the problems, but she didn't help me understand better what those problems were, and it wasn't professional at all. When I remember the way, she was speaking to me, it was really with harsh language, she wasn't really professional”
[Mohamed, MFL teacher].

² CAPEM: Certificate of Aptitude for Teaching Middle School (Middle School Teaching Certificate) - Translated from French: CAPEM Certificat D'Aptitude au Professorat de l'Enseignement Moyen (Brevet d'Enseignement Moyen)

From his response, Mohamed appeared to be uncomfortable when he was formally observed by the inspector of the English subject. It is important in unpacking his statement to explain the context of the formal observation Mohamed is referring to. As a trainee teacher in his first-year teaching, Mohamed was in a probationary period where it is a requisite to hold a formal observation session by his inspector to award him a QTS. The formal observation conducted is a common formal practice in the Algerian teaching context where trainee teachers in their first year of probationary period get observed formally before being granted this status (Gherzouli 2019). Feeling under pressure by the inspector, Mohamed's performance could have been consequently affected by the presence of the inspector. According to (Ahmed, Nordin, Shah and Channa 2018), 'due to these pressures, teachers underperform and eventually affect the learning outcomes of the students' (p. 81). Mohamed's statement also shows that there is a communication gap between the inspector and Mohamed accompanied with a perceived lack of professionalism from the inspector. It is likely that the power dynamics between Mohamed and his inspector had a role to play in his perception to be of such. Mohamed had further along described in his interview the tone of discussion the inspector used when addressing his shortcomings as "*condescending*" and he found the feedback of the inspector to be non-constructive and non-conducive to improvement in practice.

Following the same line of thoughts, more Algerian MFL teachers were also critical of formal lesson observations and shared perceptions of feeling nervous and inspectors being judgemental of their teaching. For instance, MFL teachers from Medea stated, "*I remember the first time the inspector came to observe me quite vividly because I was so nervous, I made so many mistakes and I did not have my lesson plans ready for that day*" [Tayssir, MFL teacher]; "*I always have feelings of nervousness when I have to go through inspection*" [Farah, MFL teacher]. There seems to be a common trend about lesson observation when it was formally held. MFL teachers perceived formal lesson observation when it is driven by audit and evaluation to have a threatening, confrontational dimension. The finding correlates with findings from other research

where similar perceptions were expressed by teachers due to the top-down approach followed when conducting such practice (Ahmed et al. 2018). The conclusion that can be drawn from this is that the way formal lesson observation is perceived to be carried out is irrelevant to the notion of continuous professional development and more in line with purposes ‘for accountability, serving as a measure to ensure that teachers carry out their duties properly and efficiently’ (Sanif 2015, p. 4). While this section has presented the findings related to MFL teachers’ perceptions of formal lesson observation in Algeria, the next section will present the findings generated from the English sample.

• **England**

In London, the data showed similar results to that of Algeria in relation to formal lesson observation when it was carried out for evaluative purposes. MFL teachers in London felt that they were put under pressure and repressed more so than supported when formal lesson observations were held for appraisals or during an Ofsted inspection. One MFL teacher stated:

“The school does it, force us to do it (formal lesson observation), it is organized by the school, it is organized by the person who is in charge of teaching and learning, so they tell us that there is observation, so they come and observe you, and fill a report about you. So, we have to do observation and we have to also submit a report or often give feedback about our targets” [Zineb, MFL teacher].

From Zineb’s response, it is evident that the issue of power is involved in organising formal lesson observation for an appraisal at her school. Zineb’s statement suggests that she feels the practice of formal lesson observation (appraisals) is imposed on her by her school to evaluate her performance. Therefore, she feels pressurised to conduct this practice. This perception has been echoed by other MFL teachers who similarly voiced their feelings about being formally observed during inspections by Ofsted

through making references to words such as “*nervous*” and “*stressed*”. For example, one MFL teacher claimed , “*well of course if it (lesson observation) is done as a learning exchange, I would happily take part in it, but if it is for evaluation, something to do with administration, I would be very nervous to prepare for it*” [Randa MFL teacher]. Randa’s response shows that she would voluntarily participate in peer observation if it is conducted for developmental purposes where she would learn and discuss new things from her colleagues. However, she expressed feelings of nervousness if the lesson observation is arranged by the school for evaluation. A possible explanation to teachers refraining from taking part in formal lesson observation might be due to their attitudes of not welcoming criticism as they believe teaching is a matter of ‘behind closed doors’ business (Muijs and Reynolds 2005). This was also linked to individual dispositions for learning when working but also to the schools’ culture and their role in creating a safe environment where teachers feel open to share their practice without fearing to be judged or criticised. Having presented the findings related to MFL teachers’ perceptions of formal lesson observation, the following section will present the findings related to MFL teachers’ perceptions of informal lesson observations.

3.1.2 Informal lesson observation

- **Algeria**

In opposition to MFL teachers’ perceptions of formal observation, MFL teachers in both research contexts gave a value to lesson observation when it took place informally. Responses reported that an informal setting for lesson observation allowed teachers to discuss, learn and reflect on their practice in a non-threatening environment. For instance, two MFL teachers in Algeria stated:

“Observing other teachers, especially experienced teachers can be powerful, you learn a lot from it, it helped me to learn from other colleagues and reflect on my teaching and identify areas where I can improve” [Radjaa, MFL teacher].

“Sometimes you think you are doing well, you are doing things in the right way, but in fact you are not, that is why you need to get other teachers to observe you, it’s very useful because when you do peer-observation, you are getting new ideas and reflect them in your classes” [Amine, MFL teacher].

Both Radjaa and Amine’s statements show that they advocate the use of lesson observation as a means of reflection and improvement in practice. Using adjectives such as “*powerful*” and “*useful*” in their responses, suggests that Radjaa and Amine’s experiences with informal lesson observations were rewarding and fulfilling as it encouraged them to engage in a critical conversation with other colleagues. These findings are in accordance with results revealed from previous studies (Rose and Reynolds 2007; Hustler et al. 2003; Edmonds and Lee 2002) where it was revealed that teachers held positive perceptions of lesson observation for their CPD because it allowed them to exchange practical and relevant ideas for their practice. Furthermore, what stands out from the data in Algeria is that MFL teachers reported to be using lesson observation as a learning approach to compensate for the lack of training in their working context. For instance, Hadjer stated,

“Teachers are not very happy with the (state’s provision of) training, we rarely see our inspector, so we do what we do to help each other improve like peer-observation”.

The statement of Hadjer shows that she is discontented about the current provision of formal CPD in her working context accompanied with a scarcity of support she receives from her inspector. It would seem that in light of the limited available access to formal CPD opportunities, MFL teachers were encouraged or in other words found themselves in need to find new effective ways for learning. Hadjer for instance, is approaching lesson observation as a developmental approach to learning with other colleagues. Nevertheless, there were instances where although teachers were willing to engage in collegial professional learning such as lesson observation as a form of CPD,

they were restricted by their schools. For instance, Huda, an MFL teacher from Algiers declared:

“The headmaster of the school did not accept for us to conduct peer-observation because in order for teachers to attend, some will have to dismiss their classes and for this reason, the headmaster prevented us from doing peer-observation saying that the education of the learners is a priority. So, it was really hard for us to find a time that is convenient to all of us” [Huda, MFL teacher].

Despite the great benefits associated with lesson observation, Huda’s response shows that the culture at her school does not seem to encourage for such practice to be carried out between teachers. *The lack of support* from schools and headteachers was an attribute experienced by many MFL teachers in the Algerian sample; the education of pupils comes as a priority resulting in the marginalisation of opportunities for collegial learning between teachers. From what the data suggests, the school culture where Huda works does not prioritise teacher’s learning and this has confined them to be less involved in planning informal opportunities of CPD, such as lesson observation. Equally important, although Hadjer emphasised the importance of this practice for teachers in the context where she works, she proclaimed that not all teachers share the same perspective, *“I think teachers need to focus more on it (lesson observation), but I don’t think that all teachers are doing it”* [Huda, MFL teacher]. This seems to demonstrate that not all teachers are inclined to take the same line of action for their learning as Huda. The perception of teachers’ unwillingness to engage in informal learning is linked to individual dispositions for learning when working with other teachers and this can have a solid impact on either expanding or restricting their CPD experiences. This section has focused on MFL teachers’ experiences with informal lesson observation in Algeria. The following section will present the findings related to informal lesson observation from the English sample.

- **England**

In London, MFL teachers shared positive perceptions about informal lesson observation as they considered it to be an effective tool that would support their professional development. Evidence emerged from the data to portray teachers' experiences with informal lesson observation as a more valuable practice compared to being formally observed. For instance, teachers stated, "*CPD can also be observing in informal settings with colleagues, I think that helps you a lot to get feedback from other teachers*" [Johanna, MFL teacher]; "*I really think it (lesson observation) is a very good learning method, providing that teachers would go with an open mind and not being critically judgmental, you know like, it is not your performance management, it does not come down to if teachers are good enough or not*" [Jiniya, MFL teacher]. Unlike in formal observations where teachers are subjected to scrutiny, teachers viewed informal lesson observation as a strategic approach to exchange feedback and considered it to be an opportunity for insight and reflection to improve the quality of their practice. Interestingly, a salient finding from the English data was a policy adopted at the level of all schools who took part in the study. The policy makes it admissible for all teachers to pay informal, ad hoc reciprocal visits into each other's classes without informing the observed teacher beforehand. Isabella, an MFL teacher elaborated on her experience with this policy:

"The thing that we are doing in the school as well, well it is not CPD but I consider it as CPD, and we didn't do it in Spain or in Canada, but apparently in England, it is very normal to go and visit other teachers from other subjects when they are teaching, they call it 'open door policy', we do that all the time, peer observation, and it is very good [...] every time you go see a teacher and you write down what you found really useful and you liked the most, and what they could improve [...] I mean you give a copy of that writing slip to the teacher and another copy is put on the mailbox and we post them on the walls, so we know what our goals are, so this is a kind of CPD as well".

It was eminent from Isabella's response that lesson observation proved to be valuable when it is carried out informally in a supportive environment where teachers welcome their colleagues to attend their classes. The open-door policy allowed teachers to feel more at ease knowing that the 'other' presence aims to create a space for open conversations and reflection for improvement in practice. Moreover, Isabella's statement shows a surprisingly significant positive correlation between MFLs and different subjects when conducting lesson observation. Further along in her interview, Isabella talked in-depth about her experience in attending lessons of teachers with more years of experience and who teach other subjects.:

"I remember I attended a math class and that was very useful because the teacher was basically very good with classroom management, and he gave a different kind of, not just giving an activity and kids doing it, but different kind of approach, more of a collaborative learning, and yes I could not take the idea and implement in MFL, I would be crazy, but you can always take ideas and I found it useful".

Isabella's perception of lesson observation across different subjects was positive and one that was useful. Although the subject is not directly relevant to MFL, Isabella still found the techniques used in the lesson beneficial for her own practice. MacBeath (2008) gave prominence to the culture of learning in peer observation across subject boundaries and asserted that it 'is the mechanism by which the dialogue around learning is fostered' (p, 145). The findings tie well with previous studies wherein 'a blame-free environment that encourages and facilitates professional dialogue and provides opportunities to extend and experiment with new practice can further the benefits of peer collaboration and support' (Eraut 2002, cited in Rose and Reynolds2007).

This section has presented the findings from MFL teachers' interviews about their experiences with lesson observation. Responses have indicated unfavourable views from MFL teachers about institutional measures to conduct formal lesson observation

to evaluate teachers' performance. Responses also indicated the extent to which the schools and CPD coordinators' role impacted negatively on teachers' perceptions of formal lesson observation. Conversely, the data have shown agreeable perceptions from MFL teachers when lesson observation took place in an informal setting. The process of informal lesson observation was viewed as non-threatening and MFL teachers found that it helped them improve the quality of their teaching as well as promoted healthy collegial relationships across subjects. This demonstrates that MFL teachers in the two research contexts found informal experiences of lesson observation more meaningful and valuable for their professional learning. The examples also illustrated the significance of institutional learning environments in either impeding or reinforcing a culture for teachers to engage in such a practice. An expansive learning environment (Hodkinson and Hodkinson 2005) would not only ensure that formal lesson observation is carried out in a supportive working place, but also pave the way for teachers to create informal opportunities between each other to support their practice. This is in contrast to a restrictive learning environment (Hodkinson and Hodkinson 2005) where teachers feel that they are working in isolation with no attention paid to their learning from the school. When lesson observation is approached as a developmental practice for teacher learning, it would shift schools' priority from aiming at performance targets onto more constructive ways of successfully supporting teacher's learning. This section has presented the findings revealed from Algeria and England about teachers' perceptions of lesson observation. The next section aims to present the findings related to MFL teachers' perceptions of collaborative learning.

3.2 Collaborative learning

The value of collaborative learning emerged as a significant form of CPD from MFL teachers' interviews. Collaborative learning is defined here to reflect activities that promote learning between teachers and their colleagues for the purpose of professional learning and improvement in practice. The influence of institutional settings to cultivate a culture where this activity is nurtured both formally and informally was

evident in the data. The role of CPD coordinators was also significant in facilitating opportunities for such a learning to take place. Besides the collaborative activities that MFL teachers engaged with at the schools where they work, initiatives for collaborative learning from MFL teachers also surfaced in the interviews. It was interesting for me to explore this theme as participants shared some of their original and genuine ideas of how they engage with their learning collaboratively. This section aims to address MFL teachers' perceptions of collaborative learning as a form of CPD.

- **Algeria**

In Algeria, responses appeared to indicate that there was a significant positive correlation between collaborative learning and MFL teachers' experiences with CPD. A common view amongst participants was that the activities that were most memorable and powerful for their learning were in most cases collaborative activities. For example, one MFL teacher stated, "*I always find it better when we work in groups, better than just sitting and listening*" [Tayssir, MFL teacher]. Tayssir's statement indicates that collaborative learning appeared to be a more popular method of learning for her than a delivery approach that follows a transmissive model of CPD (Kennedy, 2005). MFL teachers also stated that they favoured activities in which they worked together to achieve a task. Examples included, "*it's more interesting when the inspector asks us to sit in groups and exchange ideas of how to prepare a writing lesson*" [Hadjer, MFL teacher]; "*there were different brains working which meant more creativity from different perspectives*" [Huda MFL teacher]. From the data, it appeared that collaborative learning seems to be beneficial in developing teachers' knowledge by encouraging teachers to share best practices and teaching strategies. Another instance where collaboration amongst teachers blossomed positive outcomes was in collegial discussions where MFL teachers "*meet once a month to coordinate how we are going to teach the unit and I find it really good because it helps you find out about different things and get ideas to try out new methods of teaching*" [Amine, MFL teacher]. These collegial discussions were reported to be a formal form of CPD called 'coordination meetings' and it is a common practice in all the schools where MFL teachers from the Algerian sample work. While some teachers overlooked the

benefits of coordination meetings, most MFL teachers appreciated the support they gained from these meetings and considered them to be effective for their professional learning. The examples indicate a range of benefits from collaborative learning; however, it is important to note that individual dispositions for learning are crucial when discussing collaborative learning as not all teachers were inclined to take such an approach to learn. For instance, two MFL teachers stated, “*teachers don’t want to work with other teachers that much*” [Huda, MFL teacher]; “*sometimes you feel like teachers who are older and have more experience don’t really help those who are younger and novice*” [Mohamed, MFL teacher]; “*some (teachers) who are more experienced don’t like to share their worksheets and lesson plans*” [Farah, MFL teacher]. It is worth considering, in light of these participants’ responses that teachers’ willingness to interact, team-up, and work with other colleagues is key for collaborative learning to have a positive impact on teachers’ professional learning. It is also significant the extent to which the schools where MFL teachers work actually promote a culture where collaborative learning is encouraged along with ensuring that there are sufficient opportunities available for such learning to occur.

From the perspective of CPD coordinators, Ahmed, the inspector of the English subject discussed the crucial need to provide alternative source for professional learning for MFL teachers due to the lack of access MFL teachers have to formal CPD opportunities. In his district, Ahmed initiated a project entitled ‘Teacher Project Pedagogy’ (TPP) which highlighted the positive impact of collaboration amongst teachers,

“I named it teacher project pedagogy, something that is done by the teachers for the teachers, I call it TPP, but this is also CPD. It means teachers are responsible for their training, so what I do is that I encourage teachers of the same school to start preparing a whole day training for their colleagues from the same city. I give them the freedom to choose the topic, but the topic has to be practical and related to teaching, and I give them time about 2 or 3 months to prepare for this, and I have to see them whenever they need me, and we have a meeting together and see the progression of their work [...] Sometimes I

organize for this workshop in rural places where teachers need more help, like in villages”.

Ahmed talked in depth about his initiative and emphasised that his project is a means of building teacher ownership and giving them an opportunity to select their own focus and ensuring that the CPD is built upon their professional needs. More importantly, Ahmed asserted that his project, TPP, targets schools in rural areas where it is most often difficult for MFL teachers to access opportunities for CPD in remote places. While none of the MFL teachers in the city of Medea took part in this project, it was found worthy to be presented in this section due to its significant recognition of collaborative learning between teachers as well as teachers’ agency for their own professional development. Conversely, in Medea, Nacera, the inspector of English reported several administrative challenges with the directorate of education in the city of Medea as problematic, in terms of “*organising additional group training sessions for MFL teachers in Medea*”. This shows that even with teachers’ willingness to engage in CPD opportunities for collaborative learning, such initiatives cannot be sustained without the organisational support for such learning to take place. None of the MFL teachers mentioned any new initiatives from their side as they highlighted the challenges they face daily in their teaching, mainly the working conditions at their schools (more details in the next chapter, section 6.4.3). Therefore, MFL teachers focused more on creating a supportive learning environment for their pupils with the limited resources they could obtain on their own. The next section aims to present MFL teachers’ perceptions of collaborative learning as a form of CPD in the English context.

- **England**

In London, when questioned about the type of the activities which they appreciated the most in their formal CPD, MFL teachers’ responses showed that activities where teachers worked collaboratively to achieve a task had a positive impact on their perceptions with CPD. For instance, two MFL teachers stated:

“it was very interesting way of instructing session (formal CPD) by making us sit together in groups, like discussing different activities [...] so it was interesting because we were completely engaged” [Gabriella, MFL teacher].

“I found really interesting the one where we asked the teachers to build something together, so what I asked my colleagues to build was to decide across curricular projects between two or more subjects with the teachers from those subjects [...] and I heard things like history and geography, if you are learning about the civil War in America, they join together to see how they can make one project that would bring the two subjects together” [Isabella, MFL teacher].

The responses of the two MFL teachers show an increased interest and propensity for professional learning through collaborative working. The noticeable point is that collaborative learning as a learning approach in formal CPD sessions was favoured because MFL teachers found it more engaging and interactive. The positive perception MFL teachers have of this learning method could be due to the impact it has, not only on improving teachers' practice but also on promoting collegial learning across different subjects. Similarly, from the point of view of CPD coordinators, Aqsaa, a CPD coordinator at a private school in London spoke highly of an initiative she started experimenting at her school. The practice is referred to as 'Lesson Study' which Aqsaa attempted to trial with her colleagues from different subjects,

“it was one of the most amazing forms of personal development as a teacher, you have three teachers who come together from different subjects, they plan a lesson together and then one teacher delivers it and you question the students how did you find it? how can you improve it? and we take the whole feedback, and we plan another one. The process of that was so empowering [...] you've got students' feedback, we got our feedback as teachers ourselves, but how often we get that feedback from students, and those three people use their brains again to improve the same lesson and then we deliver it [...] that for me and for staff who did it with me was the most exhilarating and most amazing feedback you can have in your professional development”.

Lesson Study is a collaborative professional development programme that originated in Japan. It is a CPD approach that has become more popular in England in recent years and which ‘involves teachers working in small groups to plan lessons that address a shared learning goal for pupils’ (Lesson Study, 2017). From Aqsa’s statement, it is evident that the activity helps fostering teachers’ critical thinking skills and cultivates collaboration between teachers from different subjects. Although Aqsa is the CPD coordinator at her school, as well as the head of department for her subject, it is interesting to see that the practice of Lesson Study was carried out within a supportive context as a means of helping teachers test the implication of new strategies for their own teaching. This was also linked to the significance of the school culture in influencing positive experiences of collaborative learning. The findings align with the findings of study carried out by Win (2022) who explored the use of lesson study as a tool for continuous professional development in Myanmar. The findings revealed that teachers who used lesson study considered the method an effective way of learning and improving their teaching practice. The study concluded that integrating lesson study in teachers’ education can be used to enhance learning and development of teachers in their profession (Win 2022).

MFL teachers and CPD coordinators also discussed another form of collaboration that exist between schools. As Aqsa, the CPD coordinator, elaborated, “*our school is part of the teaching school alliance where we are grouped up with other schools so if they run trainings, we send our staff to them*” [Aqsa, CPD coordinator]. It is possible that the point of Aqsa’s school to partner with other schools aims primarily to provide additional CPD opportunities for teachers. In agreement with this statement, Adagiri (2014) suggests:

‘School partnerships can facilitate sharing of innovative practice and provision of professional support within a self-sustaining system, which would lead to development of more strategic approaches to professional development planning and opportunities’ (p. 80).

Indeed, the schools’ engagement in collaborative alliances with other schools is mainly conducted for the purpose to provide extra school to school support and

additional learning opportunities for teachers that goes beyond existing provision of CPD.

From the data, it appears that MFL teachers placed a great value on collaborative learning when they shared their most positive experiences with CPD. Nonetheless, it is important to highlight that teachers' responses equally indicated the extent to which a positive school culture was significant in putting in place not only formal opportunities for collaborative learning, but also for underpinning informal opportunities for learning. Four of the ten MFL teachers interviewed in London discussed a collaborative initiative that teachers started as part of a professionally supportive group with other colleagues from other schools. The teacher support groups were brought up in an interview with Emma, Johanna, Soumia and Jiniya who indicated that there is a widespread sense of collaboration amongst teachers which in turn brings the discussion to 'communities of practice' (Lave and Wenger 1991). The initiative involved planning meetings with MFL teachers from different schools in the same borough to share experiences and resources of how to teach MFLs, discuss issues related to teaching the subject as well as introduce solutions to such challenges. It is important to note that this initiative was supported by the schools where these MFL teachers work. The findings are in an agreement with that of a review carried out by Bolitho (2003), who examined the role of institutions in forming local support groups which helped create a bottom-up process that contributed to identifying the development priorities for the organisation rather than having them imposed by those in power (Mann 2005, p. 112). Notwithstanding the role of the institution, it is equally important to mention that such initiatives are as well reinforced by teachers' individual dispositions for learning to be willing to work with colleagues and engage in such initiative. These findings are in line with previous findings of Atwal (2016) whose study highlighted the role of learning environment within schools in influencing teacher engagement in learning, but equally underlining the importance of individual dispositions in engaging in the learning opportunities available at schools.

This section has presented MFL teachers' perceptions of collaborative learning. Evidence showed that the range of responses MFL teachers gave highlighted the great

value they placed on collaboration in their learning. Several new initiatives from both teachers and CPD coordinators were introduced that centred on the element of collaboration amongst teachers to improve practice, secure a healthy environment for professional learning, and bring about innovations to CPD provision. Looking at the responses of MFL teachers from London and Medea, there seems to be a great preference from MFL teachers to learn through collaboration. However, there was a huge disparity in terms of the initiatives introduced by teachers in the two research contexts to create informal collaborative learning opportunities. This is plausible considering that the rationale, needs and priorities of teachers to initiate such informal learning practice are underpinned by different layers such as the working conditions where teachers work (see the next chapter, section 6.3.4) as well as the support they get from their schools. Hayes (2019) acknowledged that conditions of teachers' work are often inimical to the development of learning communities resulting in less time for teachers to collaborate with each other. This is not to forget as well that the two countries are different in their economic and ICT status, which results in participants having different needs/ priorities in the two contexts. Although the emergence of these initiatives in the data was not anticipated, I believe that they were worth presenting in this section due to the contribution they can play in establishing an effective framework of CPD in both countries. While this section has presented the findings related to MFL teachers' perceptions of collaborative learning as a form of CPD, the next section aims to present the data on MFL teachers' perceptions of self-directed learning as a form of CPD.

3.3 Self-directed learning

The previous section has looked at MFL teachers' perceptions of collaborative learning. The nuanced differences between the variety of forms that CPD can take extends to instances where it is planned by teachers, driven by their professional interests, priorities, and aspirations to broaden their knowledge and improve their practice. In this regard, Hayes (2014) states :

CPD attests, a multi-faceted, lifelong experience, which can take place inside or outside the workplace and which often moves beyond the professional and into the realm of a teacher's personal life too (p. 5).

Self-directed learning has been selected as the third sub-theme for the overarching theme of 'forms of CPD' due to its essential role in teachers' CPD. For that reason, this section aims to present MFL teachers' perceptions of their learning that is pursued by themselves rather than the one that is structured by the system/institution in which they work. Self-directed learning is defined here as the independent pursuit to learning that the individual teacher takes beyond any institutional requirement. This form of learning can be quite broad in terms of the activities it covers which can range between formal activities such as subscribing into a formal teaching course to informal activities such as reading books and engaging in informal discussions with colleagues. This section aims to present the findings from Algeria and England on MFL teachers' perceptions of self-directed learning as a form of CPD.

- **Algeria**

In analysing MFL teachers' accounts in Algeria of the experiences surrounding their CPD, the data revealed showed that participants have shown willingness to engage in self-directed learning besides the state's provision of formal CPD. All participants were unanimous in the view that self-directed learning was imperative for their professional growth at their discretion without their institutional support. A number of reasons were advanced by participants on the significance to adopt this approach in their context, and this will be highlighted in this section. But at the outset, I found it relevant to begin this section by identifying some of the sources reported by MFL teachers in the study for self-directed learning. For instance, Huda and Mohamed stated,

“My CPD is all me searching or studying by myself, by reading books, by asking colleagues, family members [...] and I keep learning from online resources” [Huda, MFL teacher].

“I am involved in online trainings which I have discovered on my own and in those trainings, I have had all kinds of CPD classes for free by ‘world learning’ [...] I try whenever I find opportunities, when I can develop my skills of teaching, I do that, and mainly by myself, by my own willingness. I think the internet is now very easy and free. You can find plenty of information and online platforms where you can develop your skills without the need of your inspector” [Mohamed, MFL teacher].

Both Huda and Mohamed’s statements show that they recognize the benefits of self-directed learning for their professional learning. The process of self-directed learning can be described as a personal journey to the teacher due to the variety of ways it can manifest but remains unique to each individual. The two examples provide ample of ways/ sources that are central to self-directed learning. To illustrate, self-study, reading, discussing with colleagues, and making research on the internet are examples of self-directed learning that Huda and Mohamed sought to improve their pedagogical practices. What is striking in both responses is the great emphasis Huda and Mohamed have put in discussing how self-directed learning is driven by themselves. The emphasis on using “*me*”; “*myself*”; and “*on my own*” shows the significance of teachers’ individual dispositions for this form of learning to occur. As it happens, MFL teachers pointed out to some of their colleagues’ abstaining from engaging in such form of learning. Mohamed, for instance stated, “*sometimes those older teachers also they don't have a motivation to look for new ways to improve their teaching skills*”, and this statement echoes what has already been indicated in the literature about teachers’ resistance to engage in professional development activities. Barnard (2004) and Richards (2002) reported several reasons to this phenomenon and explained that teachers ‘do not see the importance of staff development in their profession and simply don’t see the reason of why they should grow professionally (Ravhuhali et al. 2015, p. 1). Although none of the participants from the Algerian sample displayed such attitude to self-directed learning, I found this reference in the data worthy to be highlighted due to its significant link to teachers’ individual dispositions to learning.

On the contrary, MFL teachers in the study showed strong willingness to engage in self-directed learning, and this stemmed from their perceived poor experiences with the state's formal provision of CPD. The responses indicated that MFL teachers from the Algerian sample developed a good potential to take the initiative in pursuing their own professional learning due to the paucity of support and training they receive from the state. For instance, one MFL teacher stated,

“The quality of the training we have with our inspector is (shrugging shoulders) we don't have professional trainers, you are in Algeria right, not in England [...] CPD is what we get from the internet and what we get from colleagues, my private school helped me to develop myself, also by reading books and specially the internet” [Tarek, MFL teacher].

Tarek's statement evidently shows that he is discontent with his experience with the state's provision of formal CPD. The comparison he made between Algeria and England highlights his prejudice towards the quality of formal CPD in Algeria compared to England. Based on his dissatisfactory experience with the state's provision of formal CPD, it would appear that Tarek has resorted to seeking self-directed learning from a number of sources such as the private language school that he owns, reading books, accompanied with learning opportunities that are available on the internet.

Furthermore, MFL teachers went on to discuss how self-directed learning was more rewarding than the institutionalised provision of CPD. From Mohamed's own words, *“I found that there is a big difference, online is much better because you can learn much more by yourself”*; *“It (self-directed learning) works better for me because I know where I am lacking and what I need, so I make research about that area specifically”* [Tayssir, MFL teacher]. It appears that self-directed learning has presented MFL teachers with far more valuable opportunities for learning than the formal CPD offered by the state. With regards to formal opportunities for self-directed learning, the data revealed from the interviews indicated that MFL teachers perceived that there is a scarcity of opportunities for self-directed learning in their contexts. For instance, MFL teachers stated,

“I like to look for other opportunities of CPD like conferences, but unfortunately, we don't have this in Algeria, the Ministry of Education do not organise for things like this, I would like to go but there are none, I heard only once of one (conference) at uni (university), I was invited by my supervisor (PhD supervisor) but I couldn't go” [Nabila, MFL teacher].

“Why not (attend conferences), of course I find it very interesting to attend these kinds of things, this is fruitful because there are pro (professional) people working on this [...] I want to learn about them and to have experiences in teaching a foreign language, but in Algeria there is nothing, the government, they do nothing for us” [Amine, MFL teacher].

Nabila has been an MFL teacher for 3 years while simultaneously pursuing doctoral research in Education. I believe that her background as a PhD student was a driver for her interest in research. She was very keen to engage and seek learning opportunities but was confronted with a shortage of these in her context. Amine on the other hand, with his 30 years of experience had shown a great motivation to attend conferences that are delivered by expert people in the field of Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL). Nevertheless, his statement also indicates that he perceives there is inadequacy of such opportunities for teacher learning in Algeria. From the data, it appears that MFL teachers linked the responsibility for the provision of opportunities for self-directed learning to the Ministry of Education and they perceived that policymakers do not foster for the development of opportunities for teacher learning. This shows that teachers' perceptions about their learning are, to a great extent, influenced by their government's role in promoting them.

The data yielded provides convincing evidence that the formal provision of CPD in the Algerian context does not suffice to address MFL teachers' professional needs. An approach to self-directed learning has been adopted by MFL teachers to redeem this deficiency in meeting their expectations and fulfilling their needs. The most striking finding in this section was the high value MFL teachers placed on directing their own learning. The data have reported overwhelmingly positive comments about self-directed learning. The data indicated that MFL teachers in Algeria favoured self-

directed learning because it was a way for them to exert their own voice and autonomy. A closer look at the data also indicated MFL teachers' frustration with the state. An aspect that was highlighted in a previous study by Bellalem (2008) which concluded that there is a lack of trust and dialogue between foreign language teachers and the Ministry of Education, and this can explain teachers' indifference to the formal CPD provided by the state. It would be reasonable at this stage to question the effectiveness of the one-day training and the formal type of CPD MFL teachers receive compared to their powerful experience with self-directed learning that they engage with outside the premises of their schools. While this section has looked at MFL teachers' perceptions of self-directed learning in Algeria, the next section will present MFL teachers' perceptions from the English sample.

- **England**

In London, when attempting to carry out a more profound investigation into MFL teachers' experiences with CPD, responses from MFL teachers indicated that their CPD experiences expanded to include learning instances that were unplanned and intuitive. MFL teachers' answers stretched out over the scope of formal CPD to embrace self-directed learning which they engaged with inside and outside their workplace. For instance, Johanna, a German MFL teacher teaching Spanish and German stated,

“CPD can also be in informal conversations with colleagues, I think that help you a lot, when I talk to other languages teachers about certain things for example, how can we make translation more interesting, that's quite important part of CPD [...] I think what I do quite a lot, I actually read a lot about language teachers' blogs where they post their own ideas because a lot of them share resources and ideas on there and I find that really helps because it gives you fresh ideas of activities that you can try on your own lesson, I found that very useful”.

Johanna's experience with self-directed learning showcases the informal type that this learning can take which is rooted in engaging in reflexive discussions with colleagues.

Johanna's response also elaborates on other instances that this form of learning can embody such as reading blogs. Blogs as an online resource have proved to be a considerably fruitful platform to share best strategies for teaching. Nevertheless, the most common source for self-directed learning reported by the English sample was reading books. For instance, Emma said:

"I have like books I read related to teaching, so I have just downloaded one last night, on my Kindle, so yesterday I was appointed to be the head of languages, so I have downloaded this book called 'How to be a Middle Leader' so little things like that".

As a form of self-directed learning, Emma reported reading books not only to enrich her repertoire of how to teach MFLs, but also to broaden her knowledge of different roles the teacher can take in the teaching profession. In contrast to MFL teachers in Algeria, none of the MFL teachers in London sought informal CPD to compensate for the scarcity of external teacher learning opportunities. On the contrary, the data has shown that there are ample of opportunities for self-directed learning to MFL teachers in London. These opportunities were presented to MFL teachers through numerous ways and participants voiced this differently by saying, *"it was advertised"*, *"through the school"*, *"my colleagues"* *"my agency"*, as well as receiving *"free flyer that came with the list of sessions coming up"* which are sent through the unions teachers are part of. The responses suggest that the formal opportunities for self-directed learning which exist out of the boundaries of the working place of MFL teachers have been advertised through a variety of means, which made them more accessible to teachers.

Although self-directed learning is a form of learning that starts from the teacher, the workplace where teachers work can have great implications on influencing teachers' dispositions for learning. The institution's impact can either be expansive or restrictive; while the first inspires teachers to continue learning without the dependence on their institution, the latter can deter teachers from seeking further

opportunities for learning. Aqsaa, a CPD coordinator, explained the significance a school culture can have in influencing teachers' disposition to learn:

“I think it's about creating a culture of learning in your school where everybody wants to improve. So, we have teachers that have been teaching for 6 years, 7 years, 8 years, they are a bit certain in their ways, but when you create a culture of improving in your school of learning and teaching and improving the skills then, I believe that everybody wants to change, so it's a culture that you have to create, not like oh, you better do this in your lesson, or you have to do this in your lesson, because they are not going to follow otherwise, they are not students”.

Aqsaa's statement shows the significance of a positive school environment in promoting a culture where self-directed learning is encouraged and nurtured between teachers. Mann (2005) claimed that independent learning is a bottom-up process which constitutes the efforts that are instigated by individuals and groups but contended that this bottom-up approach often functions more successfully with the support and recognition of the organization (p. 105). Day (1999) maintained that this kind of professional development can be institutionally facilitated; while Webster-Wright (2009) added and emphasised the centrality of workplace learning to successful continuing professional learning.

This section has presented MFL teachers' perceptions of their experiences with self-directed learning. The findings revealed from the semi-structured interviews have shown that MFL teachers are involved in many forms of self-directed learning, including experiences that stem from their working places to experiences that take place from the comfort of their home. In Algeria, the data have shown that MFL teachers use self-directed learning to compensate for the poor quality of the institutionalised provision of formal CPD. The data revealed from London showed that MFL teachers were conscious of a variety of resources and opportunities for self-directed learning that exist beyond the provision of their institution and the state. The

study revealed that many participants in both research contexts had high preferences for self-directed learning over institutional provisions as it was directed by themselves and one where they could exert their autonomy in planning it. The role of the institution has been highlighted in facilitating self-directed learning by creating a safe environment where teachers feel motivated to seek other ways of learning that would in turn promote a culture for self-directed learning.

4. Summary

This chapter has presented the findings about MFL teachers' perceptions about their CPD awareness and different forms of CPD in their contexts thematically. Perceptions about CPD awareness was the first theme of the study. Findings revealed in relation to this theme indicated a lack of understanding of this term at the level of the Algerian cohort and this is plausible considering that the term CPD is hardly used in MFL teachers' careers as well as studies carried out in Algeria (Missoum 2015). MFL teachers in London equally showed limited awareness of CPD before coming to work in England but were able to develop a more in-depth understanding of CPD practices after started teaching at schools in London. In both research contexts, participants from both samples associated CPD to 'lifelong learning', a claim that has already been argued for in the literature about the nature of CPD (OECD 2022; Friedman 2011).

There are limitless variations of CPD prospects, however, and for the purpose of this thesis, the second theme of this chapter focused on three different forms of CPD that participants in the study reported to engage in. These are: lesson observation, collaborative learning, and self-directed learning. What has emerged from this theme is that most MFL teaches found CPD most powerful when it takes place in an informal setting, is initiated by teachers, and includes element of peer and group work. MFL teachers' perceptions of CPD forms showed that their experiences blossomed where they worked together collaboratively to achieve a task and this collaboration extended to even creating informal learning communities. The findings have also shown that besides the state's provision of CPD in the two

research contexts, teachers continue to strive to develop professionally through self-directed learning.

The findings of the study reaffirm that there is an array of flexibility of CPD options for teachers. The phenomenon of teacher learning can take place in many ways, both formally and informally while each form can integrate and intertwine into the other and this highlights the complexity nature of CPD. The conceptual framework used in the thesis showed that there are different layers involved in the provision of CPD. The data has indicated that CPD is influenced by not just the workplace of where teachers work, but also the government as well as teachers' own dispositions to learning. The chapter concludes that CPD as a phenomenon is complex, multi-faceted, lifelong, and fluid which confirms the already established argument in the literature about CPD contestation (Mann 2005; Edmonds and Lee 2002; Evans2002).

This chapter aimed to voice MFL teachers' perceptions of CPD to help raise institutional awareness of areas for improvement in current CPD provision in Algeria and England and encourage MFL teachers to engage with their CPD more profitably. The chapter also aimed to help gain a better idea of the forms of CPD that MFL teachers value the most, which could enlighten policymakers about the decisions that can be taken to better support teachers' learning. While this chapter has presented the first two themes generated from the data which are: teachers' awareness of CPD and forms of CPD, the next chapter will present the findings related to the remaining three themes that emerged from the data. These are content of formal CPD, effective CPD, and CPD barriers.

Chapter Six: Content, Effectiveness and Barriers of CPD

1. Introduction

This is the second chapter of two findings chapters in the thesis. I had stated in the previous chapter of findings that there are limitless forms that CPD can take both formally and informally. The chapter focused on three dominant forms of CPD which emerged when coding the data: lesson observation; collaborative CPD; and self-directed learning. The findings from the previous chapter showed that CPD is constructed not only by key policies and discourses that are introduced by the governments and institutions in which teachers work (Hargreaves 1992; Day 1999), but also by teachers' own willingness to engage in opportunities for their professional learning (Atwal 2016). I concluded that there were three factors that might shape and influence MFL teachers' experiences with CPD in this study. These are: the government, the schools where MFL teachers work, as well as teachers' own dispositions to learning. In focusing on these three different dimensions to CPD, this chapter builds on the first chapter by drawing attention to some of the mechanisms of CPD and how these are deployed differently in each of the countries under examination. The chapter is arranged around three dominant themes which emerged from coding the data. These are: content of formal CPD, effective CPD, and CPD barriers. I look first at the Algerian data followed by the English context.

The first theme of the chapter will explore some of the ways in which the content of teachers' CPD is constructed in different national contexts and institutional settings while also exploring the power dynamic played by the governments and the schools over the content of CPD. It was clear when analysing and coding the data that the content of teachers' CPD varies in different settings in terms of whether or not the themes dealt with (and taught) are for developmental purposes to the professional learning of teachers; or serving more managerial/ performativity purposes which focus specifically on training teachers to develop certain prescribed skills.

In this chapter we also find out MFL teachers' views in this study about effective CPD. In so doing the chapter explores what similarities and differences in perceptions about effective CPD within the two national settings with a particular focus on what the participants value as central to their professional learning. The chapter demonstrates that most teachers found two aspects paramount to CPD effectiveness - namely 'practical CPD over theoretical CPD' and 'teachers' agency in CPD'. For this reason, the second section aims to present the findings related to the fourth theme of the study which is 'effective CPD'. The theme seeks to explore MFL teachers' perceptions of effective CPD and further examines their perceptions of how their CPD can become more effective.

When I talked to the teachers in this study it was clear in the two national settings, that the different barriers to CPD influence the experiences of MFL teachers interviewed. Therefore, the third and last section aims to present the fifth theme of the study which is 'CPD barriers'. This theme aims to provide an overview of the barriers that MFL teachers perceive to hinder them from engaging with CPD more profitably. Each theme is concluded with a summary of the key findings and identification of the emerging issues which will be discussed in the next chapter.

2. Content of formal CPD

The content of CPD emerged as a key theme in both research contexts through participants' responses to questions discussing their formal CPD. Evidence emerged across the interview responses to reflect the impact that content of CPD has on teachers' professional learning. The data has shown that MFL teachers were very critical about the content of CPD in relation to their engagement and addressing their professional needs. This section aims to address MFL teachers' perceptions about the content of CPD in their formal CPD sessions.

- **Algeria**

In Algeria, formal CPD sessions are tailored towards teachers teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) subject only, as this was observed during data collection, and confirmed by participants who took part in the study. This approach of CPD delivery indicates that the formal CPD sessions offered for MFL teachers in Medea are subject specific and suggests that the content of CPD deals with subject matter ‘TEFL’. For example, the responses of MFL teachers about the content of CPD demonstrated that their formal CPD sessions address most often pedagogy-related topics of TEFL including “*How to prepare lesson plans*” [Hiba, MFL teacher]; “*lesson management where we divide the lesson into the three Ps: presentation, practice, production and we learn what we need to do in each part*” [Nabila, MFL teacher]; “*we learn how to plan form-based activities, that deal with grammar and communicative activities that deal with the speaking and writing, the productive skills*” [Hadjer, MFL teacher]. The responses indicate that the content of formal CPD for MFL teachers in the above examples narrowly focuses on equipping MFL teachers with general pedagogical skills and this aims mainly to “*help them to be competent to teach their subject*” [Ahmed, EFL inspector].

The evidence collected from different teachers’ responses in the study indicates that MFL teachers’ CPD has been reduced to learning a set of skills that teachers need to acquire. This finding raises issues regarding the emphasis of the formal learning of teachers on training teachers to acquire prescribed classroom competencies rather than approaching their education in a way that they can reflect and actively engage in meaningful learning to improve practice. The difference between the two experiences of learning links well to the contestation that is found in the literature between the two concepts of ‘teacher training’ and ‘teacher education’. For example, a training course can refer to:

‘the development of what we might call “closed skills” [and may include] activities related to preparation of standardised

lessons, classroom management strategies, marking learners' work, [on the other hand], education specialists find "teacher education" more consistent with the idea of developing versatile, reflective practitioners with a wealth of professional competencies' (Mulenga 2020, p. 109).

The epistemic difference in the conceptualisation of the two concepts have been raised by many scholars in the field (see Banja and Mulenga 2019; Muzata and Ndonyo 2019; Darling-Hammond and Lieberman 2012). It may seem, based on the conceptual difference between the two concepts, that the content of CPD for MFL teachers in the study leans more towards the training approach. It could be therefore said that the phenomenon of teacher learning, as complex as it is, is dealt with very simplistically in the context of MFL teachers who took part in the study, relating it to a number of skills and competences which can limit MFL teachers from accessing more effective CPD. So far, this section has focused on some of the themes and activities that MFL teachers in the study reported to have in their formal CPD sessions. The following section will present how MFL teachers perceive the content of CPD.

When questioned about their perceptions about the topics dealt with in the formal CPD, seven of the ten participants across schools in Medea spoke specifically about the poor quality of CPD activities and the reiteration of CPD content in formal CPD sessions. For instance, MFL teachers stated,

"I have learned nothing except the same things discussed over and over" [Hiba, MFL teacher].

"it is quite repetitive, we always deal with the same things, the same topics, we don't really go beyond that, it's pretty much like a vicious circle and we are introduced to the same things over and over, and I think that is why, most of us, teachers, think that it's dull and boring" [Hadjer, MFL teacher].

"like you know, most of the time, the inspector keeps lecturing us stuffs that we all know" [Tayssir, MFL teacher].

The response of Hiba, Hadjer, and Tayssir about CPD's content being repetitive and poorly perceived has been largely evidenced in the literature. For instance, Timperley (2011) contended that 'much professional development has little or no meaning for teachers' (p. 2). In fact, although CPD is vital for maintaining knowledge and skills, professionals have shown concerns about CPD programmes repeatedly introducing the same content which would lessen the benefits of learning (CIEEM 2019). This correlates with previous research that showed that continuous professional development programmes are often not effective (Patzner 2022). The GSS Careers Team argued that the most essential factor for CPD content is that it does not merely reiterate a previously acquired knowledge or skills, but rather refresh existing information and provide new insights, competencies, or learning (p. 5).

There were also reflections in the teachers' responses of the irrelevance of the content of CPD to teachers' working context. For instance, when asked to share their perceptions about the impact of CPD on their practice, two MFL teachers stated,

“some techniques we learn don't go well at all with our classes, when you for example have mix abilities classes, and also when you have overcrowded classes with 40, 45 pupils, you get confused, how you can implement this with your pupils” [Tarek, MFL teacher].

“I found it irrelevant and couldn't use it, it was too demanding because it is always hard to implement such activities [...] learners do not have that level yet, so if you give them an activity that is too difficult, they will just be like, I'm not going to do it” [Hadjer, MFL teacher].

The two examples from the interviews show that MFL teachers found their formal CPD irrelevant because it was most often very challenging for them to implement their learning in practice. In a report on the professional development of English language teachers by the British Council, Borg (2015) contended that CPD is frequently dismissed by teachers as irrelevant to their needs, impractical and unfeasible which have minimal impact on what subsequently happens in the classroom. (p. 5). A common concern in the field of teacher education is that CPD is not tailored to the

needs of individual teachers who experience a variety of challenges depending on their working context (Wyatt, and Ončevska Ager 2017). It is critical in this case that the professional development reflects the challenges teachers face at their working place and help them solve problems instead of a CPD programme that may provide little benefit (Bartleton 2018). From the Algerian data, it was clear that tensions arose from MFL teachers with regards to the dissonance between the content of formal CPD that and the reality of their school settings. It is worth considering, in light of these negative responses, to understand how and who designs the content of CPD. Responses, related to the content of CPD, demonstrated that inspectors display authority of deciding the content of formal CPD sessions for MFL teachers. For instance, Ahmed, the inspector of English in the city of Oran declared, “*it is up to the inspector to choose the focus of CPD, we are free*”. Nacera, the inspector of English in the city of Medea affirmed this claim by stating that “*I take charge of choosing the topic of the sessions (formal CPD)*”. What appears from the data is that the content of CPD is externally driven and selected within a top-down approach. While this mode of teacher learning tends to limit the contributions teachers can make to both CPD content and process, it has proved to have a poor impact on MFL teachers’ professional learning. As one teacher stated, “*I remember we had some practical games, some of them were designed by the inspector herself, but it was very theoretical and without any objectives, I didn't really enjoy it and I never learned anything from that*” [Mohamed, MFL teacher]. The examples from the data indicate that the climate where the content of formal CPD is pre-decided by the inspectors is not conducive to professional learning but has rather resulted in CPD having a poor impact on teachers’ practice. What appears from the data is that teachers are treated as ‘consumers of knowledge’ rather than ‘generators of knowledge’ (Borg 2015) and which limits their contribution and make their institutional learning environment more of a ‘restrictive environment’ than an ‘expansive environment’ (Fuller et al 2005). This finding is commensurate with previous research that has shown growing dissatisfaction with this approach to CPD (Muijs et al. 2014). Personal preferences for the content of CPD were also discussed. Examples included a preference to “*have a role in deciding the CPD*” [Mohamed, MFL teacher]; “*get the teachers to help you*

with setting the objectives of CPD and then design activities of how you can reach them” [Tayssir, MFL teacher].

There was also evidence from responses from participants of the impact of governmental policy upon the content of formal CPD. When asked to share their positive and negative experiences of formal CPD, MFL teachers’ responses indicated the influence of government policy was apparent in relation to the topics addressed in the CPD. It appeared that there was recently a new EFL curriculum reform introduced in 2016 known as the Second-Generation Program (SGP). This change resulted in designing new textbooks (Selama 2018) which influenced teachers’ perceptions of their learning as well as teaching. One MFL teacher talked specifically about “*being burdened*” [Nabila, MFL teacher] with having to always learn about new reforms that touches the curriculum of the English textbook. From the point of view of a CPD coordinator, Ahmed, the inspector of the English subject explained that CPD needs to align with governmental reforms and shared his perception that the external policies introduced by the Ministry of Education become, therefore, the focus of formal CPD,

“when there is a new reform, for example the new curriculum³ (referring to SGP) then I’ll plan a CPD session to teachers about the new approach and about textbook adaptation. Sometimes, we are also sent an official request from the ministry that says that we need to focus on designing exams based on competency-based approach⁴ (CBA) because it is also something new, we also have to train teachers as well when we receive examiners’ guide from the Ministry (of Education) because it has to be explained practically to teachers in a training session”.

³ The Algerian Ministry of National Education launched a new educational program in 2016 known as the Second-Generation Program (SGP) aiming at bringing improvements upon the First-Generation Program (FGP) which was launched in 2003. (The Algerian Press Services).

⁴ CBA: A teaching method that promotes a learner-centred approach to learning rather than teacher-centred. The main objective of the SGP reform is to have a competency-based curriculum through implementing CBA.

The response of the inspector Ahmed about the CPD agenda was interesting because it reveals the degree of the government's intervention in the content of CPD. MFL teachers elaborated on their answers where they discussed the incessant introduction of ministerial reforms. One MFL teacher stated that there were '*too many reforms introduced*' [Nabila, MFL teacher] which made the content of teachers' CPD focus on the reforms rather than on "*more important topics that can actually make a difference*" [Farah, MFL teacher]. The findings echo the results from another study (Boudouaia 2021) that looked at Algerian MFL teachers' perspectives about the Second-Generation Program (SGP) reform. The findings from the study of Boudouaia revealed that 'teachers found themselves obliged to follow the curriculum contents and having little freedom and autonomy to adjust to the content' (p. 1201). Besides the level of the government's intervention in affecting the content of CPD, Ahmed's response also addresses the nature of the reform introduced and which aims primarily to implement Competency Based Approach (CBA) to language teaching (Richards and Rodgers 2001). The approach centres around teaching a definite set of competences and performance skills throughout the teaching span (Mansour 2022) and then adopt appropriate measures for assessing students' progress. (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). The introduction of this reform reflects the rise of a performativity discourse in education and how governments focus their policies on measuring students' performance and progress due to the competitive nature of the economic market and its impact on education (Ball 1998). While performativity can be linked to neoliberal global conditions, it can cause serious damage to teacher professionalism through a dominated culture of performativity which reduces teaching to a series of limited, externally imposed, measures (Appel 2019).

This section has presented the findings from the Algerian data on the content of CPD. All in all, the findings of the study have revealed that the content of CPD is designed by the inspectors through the lens of governmental reforms. Responses from MFL inspectors have shown that there is no contribution from MFL teachers who, in turn, showed dissatisfaction about the irrelevance of CPD content to their practice. The unsuitability of CPD content is linked to teachers' working contexts and teaching

conditions such as an inability to involve learners in the learning process due to some challenging aspects of the curriculum. While this section has presented the data revealed from the Algerian context, the next section aims to present the data revealed from the English sample.

- **England**

The data generated from the English sample showed that formal CPD in schools in London often takes the form of one-off whole-school sessions for teachers teaching different subjects. Examples of activities in formal CPD included “*an overview of the exam, the body, the criteria, what needs to be taught, how the structure of the exam could be, how assessment could be*” [Aqsaa, CPD coordinator]; “*questioning to get you to think about better questions that you can ask to get better answers*” [Soumia, MFL teacher], “*how to plan differentiation tasks for those fast learners*” [Isabella, MFL teacher]. MFL teachers’ responses indicate that the content of formal CPD focuses mainly on “*generic pedagogy*” [Zineb, MFL teacher].

Four of the ten MFL teachers interviewed across different schools in London made specific reference to the generic nature of the content of formal CPD and its lack of relevance to their subject MFLs. One teacher claimed that generic CPD sessions “*are not being so useful because they are more like not applicable to MFL [...] teaching languages is something completely different*” [Emaa, MFL teacher]; whilst another discussed how she perceived “*general CPD, in the whole school, I think that all we do is chat with all teachers from different subjects [...] for MFLs it’s difficult to see how that would work in my subject per se*” [Johanna, MFL teacher]. Another teacher explained that the content of formal CPD is “*directed to humanities and I find it very difficult to apply it to MFL*” [Isabella, MFL teacher].

The data shows that MFL teachers’ responses emphasised the lack of relevance of the content of generic CPD to their specific subject MFLs. There was a general disagreement to whole school CPD because the ideas shared were found to be “*vague*

and generic” [Soumia, MFL teacher] as well as “*irrelevant*” [Johanna, MFL teacher] to MFLs subject. The data suggests that whole school CPD offered at the working context of MFL teachers follows the ‘one size fits all’ approach in which all teachers from different subjects receive the same information and learning in their formal CPD. There was a general disagreement amongst participants regarding the generic content of CPD accompanied with a growing recognition of the importance of evidence-based content and teachers’ subject knowledge.

Amongst MFL teachers’ responses in London, there was one participant who showed a preference about the content of CPD addressing evidenced-based pedagogy. In its merit, the concept of evidence-based pedagogy is complex and has been the subject of considerable debate (Peters, and Tesar 2016; Cartney 2015). The principle of evidence-based pedagogy is that education practices should be based on the evidence available from the latest empirical research rather than from personal judgement or other external influences (Emplit 2020). Such evidence gathered from research would then help illuminate which strategies would most likely improve the quality of teaching and positively increase students’ learning outcomes. Soumia an MFL teacher discussed her preference to have the content of CPD informed by findings from previous research that has already been conducted. She stated:

“one (content of CPD) that would be introduced to us with very specific purpose and is evidence based [...] I believe CPD is most effective when there is evidence given to teachers, just to sort of say this is really important and say this is what’s happening in other schools, then everybody is aware that when you actually take this approach, you got some research just to sort of back it up, just to make everybody see the relevance of it”.

Soumia’s response shows her perception of the value of research-informed CPD that gives the chance to teachers to find out about new methods in learning and teaching which are working well in other schools. This comes with the purpose to improve the quality of education at the institutional level. The aim of applying this approach to CPD content is to mainly support the strategies shared in formal CPD with evidence as

well as provide a window for teachers to reflect on them for their own practice. Nevertheless, there are certain caveats to this approach due to the high contestation of evidence-based pedagogy. For instance, Brügelmann (2015), offers the following argument:

‘the teaching methods and pedagogical concepts that are successful in one context may not work in another situation with a particular group of students [...] a teacher’s lessons are bound to differ from class to class [...] teachers understand didactic concepts differently and therefore may employ pedagogical methods in different ways’ (p. 1).

Due to the different caveats associated to this approach, the applicability of the evidence-based pedagogy has been debated and clouded by many controversies that question the claim of the evidence generated from previous research being unproblematically applicable to all teachers in different contexts.

Individual dispositions to learning also appeared to indicate that MFL teachers in the study favoured CPD content that “*has more to do with my subject generally or have something that I can apply to modern foreign languages definitely*” [Johanna, MFL teacher] and one which offer “*techniques of how you can teach languages*” [Isabella, MFL teacher]. This was achieved when the content of CPD addressed subject-specific pedagogy of MFLs. Veritably, the content of subject specific CPD proved to be more fruitful with MFL teachers as it offered them with “*practical strategies that link to their day-to-day practice*” [Jiniya, MFL teachers]. Such content was reported to be available when CPD was led by a specialist or expert on the subject of MFLs. In one instance where three participants in the study who work at the same school found CPD to be powerful was when funding was requested by the head of MFL department from the school to get an MFL consultant to deliver subject-specific CPD for MFL teachers. Johanna, Soumia and Jiniya all gave positive responses about such an experience. For instance, Soumia stated,

“the consultant of MFLs came to observe our lessons and then did a training course to sort of help us [...] she gave us helpful pointers and tips and suggested out things that we could do [...] and I think for this one, I found it more useful than the other CPD we usually have at the school”.

Soumia’s response provides valuable insights about the extent to which subject-specific CPD is relevant and effective in connecting teacher’s learning to their practice. It also shows the great value she puts on the external support she received from the expert accompanied with constructive feedback about her practice. According to the ‘Standard for Teachers’ Professional Development’ that was published by the Department for Education (DfE) in 2016, one of the criteria for effective CPD is the collaboration with experts to provide CPD (Lifford 2019). The Institute for Education UCL told us that, ‘evidence suggests the best CPD is long-term, interspersed with episodes of practice, individually tailored and informed and challenged by external expertise’ (Carmichael 2017, p. 21). Rose and Reynolds (2007) supplement this view by arguing that ‘small schools in particular can benefit from bringing in outside expertise, to widen their pool of knowledge that they can draw on’ (p. 221). The arrangement that Soumia’s school has made to provide funding for opportunities to access expertise knowledge on their subject shows a commitment towards delivering high-quality CPD and meeting MFL teachers’ specific professional needs. This demonstrates the influence of a positive learning environment for MFL teachers which ultimately leads to building an expansive learning environment as well as an empowering school culture where they receive professional learning.

Similarl to the data revealed from the Algerian context, there was also evidence from MFL teachers’ responses in England about the level of influence their schools and the government have over the content of CPD. The data have shown that CPD’s agenda is decided predominantly by the schools where MFL teachers work. This was voiced in an interview with Soumia, when discussing the content of CPD at her school, *“the focus (of CPD) would be decided by the teaching and learning team who sort of identify points that as a whole school these are areas that everybody needs to focus*

on”. Soumia’s perception about the content of CPD following a top-down approach at her school was similar to that of Aqsaa, a CPD coordinator, who stated:

“CPD is down to each school [...] there's nothing that governs my decisions [...] myself and Mrs X, the senior manager, or the head teacher, Mrs Y design the subject [...] I choose what I see the things that go well in one time, if they go well, then I continue the next time”.

The responses of teachers and CPD coordinators show that schools display authority of deciding the focus of CPD which results in MFL teachers’ lack of choice over the content of CPD. It hence becomes evident that ‘the mechanism of power’ (Murray et al. 2019) is exercised in MFL teachers’ CPD. The data has equally indicated that there is influence from the government, and in particular the OFSTED on the content of CPD. Aqsaa, a CPD coordinator contended that as a school, *“they must adhere to the latest reforms introduced by the OFSTED such as OFSTED framework⁵”*. Moreover, Jiniya, an MFL teacher reflected on the influence of OFSTED on the content of CPD when she stated, *“nowadays they (schools) are focusing more on what OFSTED needs are [...] for example, a lot of CPD is on assessment because OFSTED are focusing more on assessment”*. The findings suggest that schools can find themselves under pressure from the OFSTED which can result in a tendency to plan the content of CPD that would align with OFSTED’s requirement and overlooking the professional needs of teachers. Several studies have yielded similar results to governments’ control over CPD. For instance, MacBeath’s (2008) study pointed to the success of governmental policies in ‘leaving a depth of imprint’ on schools’ practice and discourse (p, 144). The data also supports previous findings yielded by Ridley (2010) and which conforms to earlier arguments advanced by Bottery and Wright (2000), and Dadds (1995, 2001) that the imposed external demands were consumed by schools to such an extent that they became their own (p. 89). Furlong et al. (2000) contended that the numerous changes introduced to the field of teacher education have been exacerbated

⁵ The School Inspection Handbook, Ofsted, (2016/17).

by numerous policy initiatives implemented at schools by demanding inspection regimes.

Deciding the content of CPD without the involvement of teachers' input resulted in CPD having little impact on MFL teachers. This was evident when participants provided responses that appear to indicate negative perceptions about their formal CPD, *"the school are doing the same one year after year, you get bored"* [Emma, MFL teacher]; *"many times, you do feel that some things are being told which you already practiced and many times"* [Jiniya, MFL teacher]; *"some CPD to be honest they are a waste of time, they are just the same things that we know [...] you find yourself repeating the same things over and over"* [Zineb, MFL teacher]. The majority of MFL teachers interviewed specifically reported reiteration in CPD's content and this resulted in a less valued professional learning experience for MFL teachers.

Personal preferences related to the content of CPD included, *"getting the teachers' feedback on CPD"* [Zineb, MFL teacher]; *"making sure teachers find it relevant and think it's useful"* [Zahra, MFL teacher]; *"asking teachers what do you think it's missing, what would you like to see more of, instead of just deciding"* [Soumia, MFL teacher]. This approach of planning CPD's content was reported to be implemented at one private school in London where MFL teachers' voices were acknowledged through questionnaires that were sent to teachers for feedback. Aqsaa, a CPD coordinator explained,

"I plan it based on feedback of staff, so we send out questionnaires to my staff and ask them of their opinion, what went well, what would you like more of, and then they let me know, so I use that feedback from staff to design the subject".

It would seem that CPD's content in the private school where Aqsaa works functions in a much more diplomatic way than in the other state schools where participants in the study work. Aqsaa's statement shows that in contrast to other MFL teachers in the study who work at state schools, MFL teachers' opinions at her private school are

considered when planning the content of formal CPD sessions. Her statement also shows the influence of CPD coordinators' own individual dispositions to learning on promoting a school culture that facilitates a positive formal learning environment. These factors have proved to be of great value to teachers' perceptions of their CPD. Policy settlement at the level of the schools and schools' different interpretation to governmental policies and reforms have largely contributed at explaining the variety of different forms and shapes that formal CPD embodies across the different types of schools where MFL teachers in the study work.

3. CPD effectiveness

The Effectiveness of CPD has emerged as a key theme from the data. In two open ended questions, MFL teachers were asked about how they perceive effective CPD, and what needs to change for their CPD to become more effective. It would be noteworthy to mention that CPD effectiveness is not a quantifiable variable and is open to many interpretations. The term 'effective CPD' is used here to define the extent to which MFL teachers perceived the different types of CPD activities they engaged with as powerful and met their individual learning needs.

3.1 Practical CPD

From the findings of this research, the term 'practical' has been identified as the most widespread word paired with CPD effectiveness by MFL teachers in both research contexts. MFL teachers' showed a preference for practical knowledge that can translate into the workplace and tended to reject or not engage with the theoretical aspect of the themes introduced in the formal CPD. The sub-theme 'practical CPD' reflects the theory-practice divide that has been a key debate in the field of teacher education where teachers have been found to give value to practice over theoretical insight of knowledge (see Mavhunga and van der Merwe2020, Holland, Evans, and Hawksley 2011; Bainbridge 2011). This section aims to present MFL teachers'

responses on how they linked CPD effectiveness to practical CPD which seemed to have more impact on their practice.

- **Algeria**

MFL teachers showed a strong preference towards learning practical skills which they can enact in class over acquiring knowledge that is based on theoretical aspects of teaching. The preference of practice over theory might be related to the inherited belief that teaching is different on the real terrain than to the theoretical knowledge offered at universities. MFL teachers gave a value to activities that introduced practical strategies which can be immediately incorporated in their work practices. For instance, MFL teachers said:

“As I told you, they [formal CPD sessions] focus more on theory than on practice, but the thing is, if I need the theory, I can just go to the internet and do the research myself. What we need the most is the way of how to do things, we need something that would help us develop our practice” [Hadjer, MFL teacher].

“For me effective CPD is where we have practical strategies that we can implement and integrate in classes, I mean theory is important but without practice, it is not really helpful, it doesn't help teachers [...] they are theoretical, and you can't apply the ideas you are taught” [Mohamed, MFL teacher].

Both Hadjer and Mohamed questioned the benefits and the rationale of the CPD that is theoretical in terms of supporting their practice and showed more preference to CPD that is practical. It is worth noting that both of the teachers, along with those who have shown a similar tendency for the importance of practical knowledge over theoretical insight have between two to four years of teaching experience and therefore, they are more inclined to learning by practice. According to Webster-Wright (2009), Darling-Hammond (2000), Kagan (1992), and Fuller and Brown (1975), ‘it can take up to three

to five years before there is a desire to consider theoretical aspects' (Bainbridge 2011, p. 25). Kagan (1992) added that in their early practical experiences, student teachers place more value on learning skills rather than theory because they are more focused on classroom control and their own teaching performance (Bainbridge 2011, p. 25).

The responses of Hadjer and Mohamed were echoed by other MFL teachers who were in great favour of formal CPD that provides activities which can help bridge the gap between theory and practice. One example of such CPD activities was mentioned in an interview with Huda, an MFL teacher at the city of Algiers who recollected a practical CPD activity that she had experienced with her colleagues,

“I believe that the only memorable activity I had is one seminar where the inspector asked us to work in groups and each group had to make lesson plans for a whole unit [...] different teachers had to sit together and write a lesson plan on the same lesson [...], it was very practical because we were going to use that lesson plan for the next week”.

Huda's recollection of this activity as one that is memorable shows how much of value, she places on activities that introduce practical knowledge which she can implement right into her practice. The exemplar activity mentioned in her answer encapsulates elements of practicality, interactive as well as collaborative attributes which made her CPD effective. The activity was perceived as powerful because it focused on specific areas of need that helped improve skills such as designing lesson plans, which she then used it in her own practice. The majority of MFL teachers considered CPD to be effective when it is relevant to the needs of the teachers and the practical impact it will have on their practice. According to Brown et al. (2001), effective CPD must be relevant to classroom practice (Adagiri 2014, p. 160). This section has presented MFL teachers' perceptions of practical CPD in Algeria. MFL teachers perceived effective CPD as one where their learning is not centred around theoretical aspects but is rather informed by a solid understanding of theory and

introduces practical skills that can be incorporated into the real world of teaching (Mpofu 2019).

- **England**

In England, the data has equally shown that responses from MFL teachers in London also indicated that their perceptions of an effective CPD mainly related to the relevance of CPD to their teaching. The majority of them used words such as “*practical*” and “*implement in practice*” to describe how they want their CPD to be. For example:

“I think having practical ideas in CPD a lot of the time it's actually more useful, so having practical ideas of how people can adapt that in their lessons rather than having theory on a subject, if that makes sense” [Johanna, MFL teacher].

“Practical, something that is practical [...], both in the session because I am more of kinaesthetic learner, so I can't sit down and listen [...] so not just learning as informative but actually doing [...] but also for my practice, I would say okay good but what can I do with this? whereas if it is practical, something that we build it up together, the part when you go home and try to think how would I implement it in my practice” [Isabella, MFL teacher].

Most MFL teachers shared an emphasis on the importance of having CPD sessions that are practice oriented. The findings have shown that MFL teachers felt that their CPD would be more advantageous if the ideas shared, and the activities learned helped them implement the knowledge they gain in the CPD into their practice. Moreover, MFL teachers’ perceptions of practical CPD went beyond solely putting their learning into their practice to also encapsulates the extent to which they have an active role in the CPD session. This was evident in Isabella’s response who felt that her CPD is effective if it practical, not just in terms of the practicality of the ideas shared, but also in relation to the role she plays in the session and the extent to which she is involved. This will be presented in the next sub-theme ‘teachers’ agency in CPD’.

A general consensus amongst MFL teachers in both contexts was the value they gave to CPD that had an impact on their practice and helped them improve their teaching skills. The data confirms the rich discussion that is profusely found in the literature about the practice-theory divide (McNamara, Murray and Phillips 2017; Brown, Rowley and Smith 2015; Maguire 2014). Nevertheless, while academics and scholars have emphasised on the significance of theory in building teachers' professional knowledge, the majority of MFL teachers in the two research contexts valued practice orientated professional development far more than theory-based CPD.

3.2 Teachers' agency in CPD

Responses from MFL teachers on what they considered to be effective CPD showed strong correlation to their agency being recognised and accrediting them a role in the CPD. The findings suggest that this can be either through teacher-led CPD or through interactive CPD sessions where teachers enjoy an active role in the CPD. Most perceptions of effective CPD centred on the role MFL teachers can play in the CPD more than that of the inspectors/CPD coordinators or the schools where they work.

- **Algeria**

In Algeria, there was a widespread propensity from MFL teachers to be engaged in formal CPD sessions. When asked about how they perceive effective CPD, MFL teachers' perceptions of an effective CPD focused mostly on the importance of their role in planning formal CPD sessions. Moreover, when asked about the changes that could make their CPD become more effective, many teachers referred to their desire in being engaged more in the CPD and having their voices heard. This is clearly illustrated in the response of one MFL teacher from Medea,

“I think teachers should have a role in deciding the objectives of the CPD [...] and then you involve the teachers to help you with reaching such objectives, then we can have reflection and invite teachers to re-visit each other's classes [...] Teachers find it more useful when they act as participants in these

classes more than just listeners to it” [Mohamed, MFL teacher].

Whilst Mohamed’s statement shows that he endorses the views of teachers having a contributory role in setting the objectives of the CPD, he drew the attention that following this approach to CPD triggers MFL teachers’ reflection allowing them to think about how they can improve their teaching practice. Reflection seemed to be stimulated particularly by self and peer observation which gives teachers the opportunity to discuss teaching and learning and give constructive feedback to one another. His view has been echoed by another participant who was also asked about how CPD can become more effective,

“By making teachers take part in designing the session [...] I would appreciate if the inspector would allow us to plan a session on our own and ask teachers to come and attend and we can just, we can for example introduce the theme and turn the session into a discussion about it and see whether teachers can share their experiences about the topic” [Huda, MFL teacher].

The response mirrors a tendency reported amongst MFL teachers about the degree of agency they can have in their CPD. This suggests that, if given the chance, teachers can play a significant role in their CPD which can help meet their individual needs. This role can extend from setting the objectives of the CPD to having an interactive role during the CPD session itself. The recognition of teachers’ role to the CPD has also been addressed by inspectors who took part in the study. Ahmed, an inspector of the English subject in the city of Oran, declared that for an effective CPD to be achieved, there is a need to acknowledge the role everyone plays in the CPD delivery. He stated,

“I think first to be done is not to neglect the contribution that anyone can make in the field, whether novice teachers or experienced teachers, teacher trainers, or inspectors, we all have something to share and offer and we can all learn from each other’s experiences and practices”.

Ahmed's view about effective CPD is cumulative of all the input brought from all parties involved with CPD. It also gives explicit acknowledgement to the role played by novice teachers as well as experienced teachers in CPD. The importance of teachers taking ownership has been reiterated throughout the CPD literature. Rose and Reynolds (2007) for instance, argued that the act of teachers choosing their own CPD focus, or activities can have an positive impact on motivation, excitement, and willingness to take on any of the new ideas suggested. Borg (2015) asserted that instead of more CPD practices in which teachers are conceived as 'consumers of knowledge', we are in need of CPD opportunities which consider teachers as 'knowledge generators' and help them develop themselves as such (p. 5). It is worth noting that this approach is more successful when there is recognition and support provided by the schools for teachers (Mann 2005). Therefore, powerful learning opportunities for teachers ought to be offered to teachers within a school culture that supports teacher-led professional development.

- **England**

In England, MFL teachers' individual agency surfaced in the interviews where teachers argued that if given the chance, they can take ownership of their learning and ultimately exert their influence on the way CPD is currently exercised. For instance, when asked about what changes she would introduce to make CPD more effective, given the opportunity, one of the MFL teachers in London said:

"I probably take more their ideas more than telling them what to do or teaching them and showing them what they think we should do, you know the involvement of other people more, it shouldn't be just one person" [Zineb, MFL teacher].

Zineb's answer shows that she believes CPD would be more effective if it is driven by the teachers themselves. This would help to avoid the issue of poorly planned sessions as teachers themselves will design activities which they believe are effective for them and ones which address their needs. Interestingly, there was significant corroboration

of this view of CPD from a CPD coordinator who works in a private school in London. Aqsa stated:

“I think the best CPD is teacher driven, when it comes from teachers [...] a lot of them (formal CPD sessions) are teacher led, so I’m the CPD coordinator, but I don’t lead them all, we wanted to build a culture in the school where everyone can see the benefit of learning, so we ask staff to lead them so, for example, if I’ve been to Ms X’s lesson and she has done something that’s really good, then I’ll ask her to share that with the rest of the staff in the next CPD [...] the most effective CPD comes from staff”.

This statement from a private school CPD coordinator indicates a recognition to the significance of teacher-led CPD in which putting teachers in charge of their own professional development is at the heart of ensuring the effectiveness of CPD. The role of teachers in planning and delivering the CPD in this private school was more prominent than in state schools that are regulated by the English government.

Another characteristic that made MFL teachers perceive CPD as effective was reported in relation to their engagement in the CPD sessions. In their interviews, MFL teachers addressed the changes needed to be made for their CPD to become more effective. Amongst these changes was to have more engagement in the CPD sessions. For instance, Zahra, an MFL teacher said,

“I want to be engaged more in activities during the CPD, I don’t want it to be just lecture-style sessions, I want to take part in the session, I don’t want to sit there and do nothing”.

Zahra’s response indicates that instead of being a passive recipient, she wants to have a bigger role and take part in the CPD session. Many MFL teachers in London gave similar answers where they reported that they want to be more engaged in the CPD. For example, one teacher stated, *“I want to go to sessions that are interactive, not just the ones where you go just to sit and being talked to”* [Soumia, MFL teacher].

Generally, most participants in London believed that their role should be one of contributing to the formal CPD and their learning. They all spoke of how the CPD aims at “*changing the way they do things*” [Emma, MFL teacher] but do not necessarily include their input. Teachers felt “*left out*” [Soumia, MFL teacher] from the process of organising and designing CPD that would help develop their practice. There was an overwhelming feeling, in all state schools where MFL teachers in the study work, that the formal CPD sessions are delivered by means of top-down approach. The result is an increase in teachers’ marginalisation to take ownership of their own learning and lack of space to exercise their autonomy. This can be a real threat to teachers’ professionalism as language teachers. The findings conform with those of previous studies who reported a similar pattern in teachers’ CPD where teachers’ agency in their learning has been diminished by the top-down and exclusionary policy carried out by their educational authority (Alshaikhi 2018). The result could be considerable frustration and demoralisation and ultimately loss of motivation and empowerment from teachers to pursue opportunities for learning. However, a shift in teachers’ CPD from a top-down approach to a more bottom-up approach has been reported in more recent studies on the subject where schools have shown willingness to move away from the former, giving space to teachers to exert ownership of their learning and empower their agency in the CPD (Leonardi 2022).

MFL teachers held similar views between the two research contexts about effective CPD activities and their responses were very similar across the different schools where they work. Amongst the most recurrent answers that MFL teachers referred to in relation to CPD effectiveness is for CPD to be practical and one where they were actively involved and able to choose the focus of the CPD. Some of participants’ responses of effective CPD also focused on CPD activities not to be vague or generic but rather has a clear focus, relevant, applicable to their specific subject MFLs as well as their school settings. This section has presented MFL teachers’ perceptions of effective CPD. The responses of participants in London were similar to those in Medea. In their interviews, most of MFL teachers found CPD that is practical and one

where they were actively involved and able to decide the focus of the CPD more effective than other forms of CPD.

4. CPD barriers

CPD barriers emerged as an important theme for participants across both contexts in the study when teachers were asked to discuss the barriers they face when engaging with CPD. The first barrier discussed by participants was the lack of time teachers have, to engage with CPD, and their perceptions about time were also linked, in most of the responses, to work overload. The data generated from the two contexts in relation to the two sub-themes of time and workload have been presented jointly due to their commonality between the two research contexts. Another barrier to CPD that emerged from the Algerian and the English data was financial barriers. The data related to the sub-theme ‘financial barriers’ is drastically distinct between the two contexts under examination. Therefore, the sub-theme ‘financial barriers’ will be presented following the same format of the whole chapter: the Algerian data presented first, followed by the English data. The last barrier revealed from the study has generated mainly from the Algerian data which is working conditions. Although this sub-theme of ‘working conditions’ has emerged solely from one of the two research contexts, Algeria, it has been selected as one of the CPD barriers due to its significance on MFL teachers’ experiences with CPD in Algeria.

4.1 Barriers of time and work overload

When asked the question ‘what are the barriers of CPD?’, a widespread response was the limited time MFL teachers have, to access CPD opportunities. MFL teachers’ concerns regarding the lack of time was pervasive across interviews in both research contexts. The responses of MFL teachers showed tendency of being willing to engage in learning but were confined by lack of time and workload in the teaching profession. Examples included:

“I just never seemed to have the time to engage in any [external CPD opportunities] because of time and work throughout the year” [Farah, MFL teacher, Medea].

“Mainly because of work overload and we don't have time and when you go out from work you become exhausted [...] we have to prepare for our lessons” [Hadjer, MFL teacher, Medea].

“I wish I can do that, I used to do that a lot more in the past, but the workload in this country is crazy [...] I would say that it is because of work overload that I cannot engage in any (CPD opportunities) at the present time” [Isabella MFL teacher, London].

“Mainly work overload and time management, because you have your family life, your work life, and you know balancing the both is just work overload” [Zahra, MFL teacher, London].

The responses of teachers in both research contexts suggest that the main barriers for them not to engage in CPD opportunities are lack of time and work overload. It may also seem that the impact of workload has swept into teachers personal life making it challenging for them to make balance between work life and personal life. The responses provide worrying concerns about the overwhelming workload that MFL teachers in both contexts are currently facing. Emma, an MFL teacher from London talked expressively about the pressure caused by workload in her career. She stated:

“Probably work overload, I feel I am very much like the kind of person who once you get to a certain point in the day, you say enough is enough and as a teacher you have to, otherwise you will get burnout [...] teachers that I have trained with [...] now, they no longer teach, they left the profession because there is too much work, they could not cope because this career was too much” [Emma, MFL teacher].

The response of Emma mirrors that of many teachers in the study who believed that they are overburdened with too much work in their profession leading this to have a harmful impact on their wellbeing. Jiniya, an MFL teacher reaffirmed this by saying, *“unfortunately a lot of teachers are leaving the teaching profession in England*

because of the work life balance. It is becoming so stressful; teachers do not enjoy teaching anymore". The NEU survey conducted in 2017 reported that the continued increase in teacher workload is a serious problem that remains a key issue in schools and its excessive impact 'is continuing to drive far too many teachers out of the profession' (p. 1).

Although the impact of time inadequacy and work overload on teachers' engagement with CPD was a common point between the two research contexts, the elements that caused work overload to have impact on teachers' experiences with CPD differed saliently between Algeria and England. While in Algeria, the data revealed indicated that workload is a pertinent factor that overwhelms MFL teachers' experiences with CPD, the data revealed from England pointed out to a peculiar characteristic about the MFLs subject in England. MFL teachers in London who are multi-linguals reported that their work overload is caused by their teaching position that involves teaching two subjects of MFLs. Isabella, a Spanish teacher who holds a Masters' degree in translation and interpretation from Spain stated:

"They gave it (French subject) to me, they told me that you are going to teach French, but I was like (facial expression of surprise) in my mind, because in my program, I thought I was going only to teach Spanish because I am Spanish speaker [...] I have to prepare two lesson plans instead of one, so it is like double the work".

Isabella discussed her substantial workload teaching two subjects of MFLs. In her interview, she explained that when she applied through a teaching agency for a teaching position in the UK, her expectation was to teach Spanish only. Her perception was that teaching a second subject was imposed on her by the school where she is working. This correlated with Johanna, Hacen, and Zineb's experiences who were also asked to teach a second language that they did not choose to teach. Another workload-related factor was identified by two MFL teachers in London in relation to their administrative roles as senior teachers at their schools. The two participants discussed the impact of time spent on administrative tasks in terms of it being unnecessarily taken away from more important matters. Hacen stated:

“I would say work overload, I love teaching, I love developing and finding new techniques, in France I used to, but here I’m one of the most senior teachers, so that means, meeting, meeting, meeting waste of time, most of the time sorry, to be honest”.

Hacen provides additional insight into teachers’ perceptions of their workload. Not only does he reiterate earlier realisation that MFL teachers are keen on learning and developing themselves but are faced with workload challenges; he recognises how this is different than his earlier experience in France, his home country. Isabella extends this line of thinking to recognising how different it is in England, in terms of teaching workload, compared to other countries she worked in such as Spain, and Canada, especially for teachers coming from abroad. She illustrated this when she discussed the English curriculum:

“sometimes I get very stressed [...] everything is based on the curriculum in this country, so for me it is very hard and very difficult, whereas in Canada I was more open to plan my own thing [...] you see some of us are foreign teachers here, I think I would have needed more training about planning and learning British curriculum, but I don't know if this is a part of the CPD [...] I think they could help us more in terms of understanding how everything works over here, because it's too much work trying to understand how things work here [...] assessment for example, it is completely different from the assessments done in Canada, it is a lot of work here, and I didn't know that [...] I spend most of my time in the school teaching or preparing so I think I need more time”.

What emerges from Isabella’s response is that her background as a non-English national has created several challenges in the process of trying to familiarise herself with the English system and this is why, in her perspective, it is considered as workload. The response of Isabella shows that she had to spend additional time studying the English system because the content of CPD did not cover this element for foreign teachers. Moreover, the connection made by Isabella between Canada and

England about having more openness with teaching the curriculum shows how much freedom Isabella enjoyed in Canada compared to England where she was prescribed to follow certain guidelines. As it turned out, Isabella also notes that the assessment process in England is a fundamental one in relation to workload not just in terms of how much time and work it takes to do it, but also how much focus it occupies in the English education system. To all intents and purposes, it is fitting to acknowledge here that the focus on assessment and pupils' performances in England has created a culture of accountability and performativity in schools, causing teachers to feel extreme pressure and schools turning into 'exam factories' to compete in league tables (Hutchings 2015). The league tables report pupils' achievement and have been used as a vehicle for educational reforms. Schools became increasingly competitive to improve results at all levels which had a marked effect on the curriculum as well as the nature of teaching making it 'teaching to the test' (Goldstein 2004). The dominant discourses of competition between schools reflects the marketisation of school systems in England and shows the impact of neoliberal discourses on education policy (Alexiadou et al. 2016; Junemann and Ball 2013). A study conducted by Hutchings (2015) revealed the extent to which England's accountability agenda has radically altered the nature of education in several negative ways which undermined pupils' entitlement to a well-balanced and fulfilling curriculum (p. 2). Isabella felt she was put under a lot of stress due to the way assessment was carried out at her school leading her to perceive it as workload and a task that restrains her from engaging in professional development activities. The rise of the marketisation system and competition between schools through performance targets led to opportunities for informal collaborative learning at the workplace to become minimised (Atwal 2013). Adagiri (2014) argued that the marketization and competition amongst schools makes it challenging to develop school networks as it limits collaborative activities with other teachers from other schools (p. 200).

Besides the lack of time reported by participants to engage in professional development opportunities, evidence from the interview data across both research

contexts also appears to suggest that the time formal CPD is carried out in was not perceived well as teachers believed that they time was not enough in the CPD to engage and learn more about the topics that they dealt with. In London, two of the ten MFL teachers interviewed specifically referred to the value of time when CPD is held in relation to their ability to focus. Positive responses were reported by MFL teachers who had formal CPD sessions in the morning such as: *“it’s always useful when CPD is in the morning”*; *“definitely better to have it in the morning because you want to have more energy to sit with members of staff and share ideas about all sorts of topics”*. This was in opposition to those who had their formal CPD sessions planned after school time. Examples of responses included, *“after school, I’m too tired”* [Hacen, MFL teacher]; *“we’re like a whole group sitting in the room after school tired, so time definitely is key, I mean if CPD is after school, how can you have the capacity to deliver to many people and engaging people with interesting ideas and all, let’s put it that way”* [Jiniya, MFL teacher]. The data revealed that the aspect of time was given a high value by the participants. However, time emerged as an even more influential trend when teachers were asked to discuss the disadvantages of CPD, with two MFL teachers in London and two MFL teachers from Medea discussing the short duration of their formal CPD. For instance, teachers said,

“the teachers who are form tutors and they didn’t think that it’s enough to cover these topics for 10 minutes so that’s why they complained [...] it’s not enough time to have CPD on all these important stuffs, like you know group work, management, peer marking all these important stuffs, these themes, these topics, it’s not enough to cover them in like 10 minutes in the morning” [Gabriella, MFL teacher, London].

“yeah, because you know you don’t have so much time to discuss, it’s only like 15 minutes [...] the ones I have attended, I’d like to have more time for the audience, the teachers to get more involved, and for me to present” [Isabella, MFL teacher, London].

The impressions of the MFL teachers interviewed in this sample were that the time for CPD was not enough, and for them it was *‘the big disadvantage that [...] you can’t*

share or discuss anything because there is not enough time” [Jiniya, MFL teacher]. It was felt that teaching responsibilities impinged upon them to have longer CPD sessions where they can exchange ideas or give their own input. As Isabella further commented, *“I wanted to do it, the one on global education because I worked in different countries, but I can't do it, so I wish we had more time”* [Isabella, MFL teacher, London]. These findings are commensurate with Philip’s (2014) argument that teachers are only introduced to professional development initiatives that last for a short time for something that needs to be learnt in three to five years (cited in Ravhuhali et al. 2015, p. 5). Borg (2015) argued that at the management level, there is often the assumption that the quantitative knowledge that ‘X’ teachers spend on ‘Y’ hours to attend ‘Z’ CPD seminars will provide satisfaction. However, the reality is that CPD is frequently a waste of time in such situations (p. 5). The recommendation is that a specific CPD programme should be long enough for teachers to confidently put what they have learned into practise (Cordingley et al 2015).

In Algeria two MFL teachers also discussed the short duration of formal CPD sessions when asked to discuss the setting of their formal CPD. MFL teachers complained about the short time allocated to have formal CPD. Their comments were linked to the disadvantageous conditions of the setting of formal CPD. One teacher, Hiba, discussed how *“insignificant”* her experience with formal CPD was when she had to take *“30-40km journey with no trains to get there [...] but it [formal CPD] was only for 2 or 3 hours”*. Her frustration with how short formal CPD sessions are, was associated with the *“difficulty”* she had to endure to commute to the school where formal CPD sessions were held. This perception was also linked to the lack of time allocated to plan formal CPD sessions for MFL teachers. The findings from the study revealed that formal CPD sessions for MFL teachers were reported to be infrequent by participants. For instance, Tayssir stated:

“I told you (formal CPD sessions are held) once or twice per semester only [...] This year for example, we had only 4 sessions from September until now (April)”.

The responses of MFL teachers working across different schools in Medea appeared to show a scarcity of time allotted to plan formal CPD sessions for MFL teachers. The paucity of formal CPD opportunities for MFL teachers impacted on their experiences leading them to perceive it very poorly. On the other hand, CPD coordinators appeared to give a similar view about the perception of time scarcity for formal CPD, but their responses appeared to indicate the influence of government policy on CPD provision. For example, Ahmed, a CPD coordinator stated,

“As inspectors, we have to adhere to the Ministry of Education and, there are things to follow and things to respect, EFL teachers must have at least 6 days of training throughout the year, this is up to us as inspectors to divide these days in a whole year [...] Sometimes, we see teachers once a year in one (formal CPD) session only! This is because, well if you work with 150 teachers, how can you manage time to meet all of them?”.

Ahmed’s response shows that the governmental guidelines for the time allocated for formal CPD sessions is very limited. His answer also shows that formal CPD sessions for MFL teachers are scattered across the academic year unsystematically. In his interview, Ahmed expressed his concerns about the inadequate time dedicated to plan formal CPD sessions due the great number of MFL teachers he has to supervise/monitor which can reach up to 150 teachers. Nacera, an inspector of the English subject in the city of Medea, also reiterated the inadequacy of time given by the Ministry of Education to formal CPD sessions for MFL teachers. As an inspector of English, Nacera declared that she supervises *“around 376 teachers in the city of Medea”* which made it *“challenging to provide formal learning opportunities to all of them”*. In her interview, Nacera also expressed her frustration with the management of the directorate of Education in the city of Medea from whom she received a warning for assigning teachers to lead formal CPD sessions for their colleagues without her necessarily being present.

There are two issues to raise here from the Algerian data. The first issue relates to the lack of staff (inspectors/ CPD coordinators) available to train teachers along with a lack of organisation of how and when to plan CPD sessions for MFL teachers. The second issue relates to the impact that the governmental body of the Algerian Ministry of education has upon the time made available for teachers' formal learning which has been reduced to merely 6 sessions per year. These sessions have been reported by participants to be "*cancelled or in most of the time postponed*" [Tayssir, MFL teacher] which led MFL teachers to experience discontinuity in their formal learning. The data also points out to the external pressure placed on CPD coordinators in managing the delivery of CPD.

Teachers' accounts in two research contexts indicate that they are faced with several barriers that affect their engagement with CPD. This section has looked at the first sub-theme of 'CPD barriers' which is 'time and work overload'. The findings from the two research contexts indicate that lack of time and increasing workload were some of the main barriers for teachers and this had a serious impact on their motivation and engagement with CPD. It was clear from the findings that participants are overworked and placed under a great amount of pressure from their institutions. Furthermore, although teachers showed willingness to improve themselves and their practice, they were restricted by the increasing demands put on them by performativity agendas that monitor their practice, restrict their freedom, and forces them to comply with external agendas (see Day & Gu 2007; Evans 2011). The findings also showed a reflection of the market mechanisms deployed at schools. These market forces have been informed by neoliberal policies and which had a serious negative impact on teachers' practices. This section has looked at MFL teachers' perceptions of time and work overload as CPD barriers. The next section aims to present the findings related to MFL teachers' perceptions of financial barriers to their CPD.

4.2 Financial barriers

Financial barriers were a common limitation to CPD in both countries which impacted negatively on MFL teachers' engagement with CPD. The data related to financial barriers are sharply different between the two research contexts. This is plausible considering the gap between the status of economy in Algeria and England. For this section, I have attempted to present the data obtained from Algeria and England under the same heading of financial barriers due to their rapport with budgetary factors.

- **Algeria**

In Algeria, all MFL teachers who took part in the study work in state schools, and they all claimed that there is no financial support provided for them to engage in CPD. The majority of participants were not aware of any budget allocation for CPD at the level of their schools. As one teacher stated, *"I have never heard that there is budget or funding for teachers' training"* [Amine, MFL teacher]. In contrast to the data obtained from London, financial support offered for MFL teachers in Medea to engage in CPD opportunities appear to be non-existent. Nevertheless, MFL teachers' responses about budget were tackled in relation to the highly debatable issue of teachers' low salary in Algeria. Participants declared that their low salary is below the standards, and it has been one of the obstacles limiting them from engaging in CPD opportunities. For instance, Huda, an MFL teacher from the city of Algiers, explained how her low income had negatively affected her and her colleagues in the profession:

"most teachers here in the beginning of their careers feel like they can make an impact and so they start looking for ways to learn and develop, but after 3 to 4 years, CPD starts meaning nothing to them and I think that amongst the reasons behind it is [...] the extremely low salary that if spent on materials, they will have nothing left for themselves and their learning".

Huda's statement suggests that teachers' perceptions about their learning varied considerably between their early years in teaching and a few years into the profession.

Teachers' enthusiasm and motivation to learn decrease due to certain social factors including the low salary of teachers which was reported to be "32000 Algerian Dinar", an equivalent to £150 a month. The findings from the study revealed that the low salary of teachers emerged as a major barrier to their CPD. For instance, Amine said:

"I had to open this private school because money wasn't enough, also lack of time, but shortage of money is the most because being an experienced teacher, this job leaves you to be poor, frankly speaking we are looking for money now because our salary is not enough [...] when you check your priorities as a teacher and a family member, CPD becomes less important than earning more money to support your family".

Amine's response shows that his low salary as a teacher has largely affected his priorities. Seeking external learning opportunities beyond the provision of the state becomes of secondary importance compared to meeting his family's daily expenses. It can be said that this barrier has diminished teachers' spirit in attempting to improve themselves as professionals. Although teachers have, for years, initiated strikes about their rights to increase their salaries through their unions, their voices were unheard (El Khabar, 09/10/06) (Bellalem 2008, p. 69)

The findings in Algeria indicate that MFL teachers perceive that the Algerian government is not providing teachers with good salaries that would enable them to invest in professional development opportunities. The issue of teachers' salaries has been reported by several authors in the field. Button (2012), for instance, contended that teachers' salaries and pension funds can affect teachers on a deep level, causing them to feel that society does not appreciate the difficulty of their job (Ravhuhali et al. 2015, p. 1). This section has presented Algerian MFL teachers' perceptions of the financial barriers that face them in their context when engaging with CPD. The next section aims to address the findings related to financial barriers to CPD from the English context.

- **England**

In England, the English government maintains and funds state schools while private schools are independently funded. This difference in funding between the two types of schools does not affect staff development as both schools allocate budgets to fund teachers' CPD activities. The data revealed from the study have shown that schools in England have been faced with issues related to funding which impacted on teachers' access to certain CPD activities. As stated by one participant,

“obviously money is always a bit of an issue, and I think that the budget, I think based on what was talked about last year, I think it has been reduced a bit, so I think that before this year, people were allowed to go to external CPD three times a year. I think that now it's not possible due to funding constraints”
[Johanna, MFL teacher].

It appears from Johanna's statement that she perceives the reduction in funding from schools as barrier that had impacted on her access to external CPD. This was echoed in many interviews with MFL teachers. Emma for instance, stated, *“we are not necessarily entitled (to external CPD), you can ask the school but not necessarily the school will fund it for you, if it is something like, that costs money, they (school management) can say no”*. Emma believed that funding at her school directly affected her CPD experiences by limiting her access to more CPD opportunities beyond the provision of her school. There were also other perceptions along the line from MFL teachers about the reduction in funding which touched the location and the delivery model of formal CPD sessions. Extracts from interviews are:

“now that the funding has gone down, it became more like school based, so now it's just whole school CPD [...] many sessions are offered by private bodies on individual areas like,

differentiation, behaviour management, external CPD, but now it is more school based” [Jiniya, MFL teacher].

“all the schools in England are indebted all of them, there is no more money. So, when I first started teaching 17 years ago, I used to go to CPD (referring to external CPD) [...] now all finished, they have no more money. So, all training we call it in-house training, in the school” [Hacen, MFL teacher].

What emerges from Jiniya and Hacen’s responses is their perception about the considerable reduction in schools’ funding which impacted on teachers’ formal provision of CPD, making it school-based and a substitute to external CPD opportunities that require more funding. MFL teachers also perceived the approach of CPD delivery that requires staff to deliver CPD a result of the low funding in schools as it is more affordable. For instance, Emma stated:

“In this school, they are very big in here about using staff members to run the CPD, and I think lots of the reasons have to do with a money thing [...] which you don't have.”

The data has shown that funding was an issue that minimised MFL teachers’ exposure to a variety of opportunities for their professional learning. Emma tackled the issue of financial barriers from the perspective that it is the reason why whole school CPD in London is mostly run and delivered by staff. The findings in England suggest that participants’ engagement with external CPD opportunities is dependent on the funding their schools receive from the state.

As reported earlier in the findings of this chapter, section 6.2, the data showed that whole school CPD in London deals more often with generic teaching content rather than MFL teachers’ subject knowledge. MFL teachers have reported that subject-specific CPD are useful in terms of addressing their subject knowledge but are most often constrained with low funding to have access to them. For instance, Emma explained,

“a lot of those things (subject-specific activities) can't be addressed by internal people, you have to get external people, which is going to cost money, which you don't have”.

In her interview Emma explained that subject-specific CPD for MFLs is most of the time not available in whole-school CPD. The data has also indicated that the decision-making process to pay for external CPD operates mainly with a top-down approach where the school has to decide on the usefulness of the external CPD for teachers' practice. For example, Johanna stated, *“when you do want to go, and do an external CPD course, you ask for permission, but they do seem to allow you to go to if they find it very useful”*. It seems that schools can, if they choose, support staff to go on external CPD if the session serves the overall aim of the school's development plan. This approach, driven by the schools' agenda raises issues regarding the emphasis on training rather than the development of teachers' subject knowledge. With opportunities for free MFL subject specific CPD being scarce in London, and the decision to fund external CPD resting predominately on schools, it is fair to claim that limited funding seems to hinder MFL teachers from engaging in professional learning that can have a positive impact on their practice.

The data revealed from the two research contexts has shown that financial barriers to CPD are common to both countries. Nevertheless, the way these budgetary challenges are embodied in MFL teachers' contexts is different between the two countries. Clearly, a number of challenges prove to be obstacles for many MFL teachers- time, workload and financial barriers being just a few. The next section aims to present the last barrier revealed from the data which is working conditions in Algeria.

4.3 Working conditions in Algeria

The above-mentioned barriers to CPD have been commonly reported by participants in both research contexts but with plausible differences of how they affected MFL teachers' experiences with CPD. Besides these barriers, MFL teachers in Algeria

referred to other significant barriers that affect their engagement with CPD, and which can all be classified under one banner of working conditions. The decision to address this sub-theme in the findings of this research, although it reflects only the sample from one of the research settings, is due to its significant impact on MFL teachers' experiences with CPD in Algeria. None of the participants in London mentioned this as a barrier to their CPD which suggests that the infrastructure and working conditions are much better in England.

The working conditions have been identified as one of the key problems affecting the majority of MFL teachers in the Algerian context. The poor infrastructure was reported by participants who work in state schools, and which made it challenging for them to work in such conditions. For instance, MFL teachers stated, "*there are no copy machines at school, so I have to print copies for them [pupils] from my own money*" [Farah, MFL teacher]; "*we don't have plugs in our classrooms, they are all broken*" [Tayssir, MFL teacher]. MFL teachers also addressed the lack of resources in their working contexts where they mentioned that they are often encouraged to use ICT materials such as videos and projectors in their practice but are often challenged with the absence of these resources in their schools. For instance, Huda stated, "*we only have one projector at the school, and it's always taken by the physics or the science department [...] we do not have the materials to teach*". Another one added, "*in remote schools, we don't have the basic needs of ICT, when I talk about using ICT in my school, I mean that we have only two laptops for all teachers and two data shows if one teacher is using it, the other one can't use it*" [Hadjer, MFL teacher]. The poor infrastructure and lack of resources have been evidenced from previous reports that reported on the conditions of schools in Algeria. For instance, in an article written by the newspaper El Khabar (21/12/06), it was reported that thousands of classrooms did not have heating in winter which made the conditions for teaching and learning very hard. Despite numerous complaints by parents and teachers along with the Minister's promises to deal with this problem, the newspaper stressed that this problem remains persistent in the Algerian context (Bellalem 2008, p. 68).

Other barriers MFL teachers reported were poor conditions of their ITE and CPD in which they had to take long distances to attend such sessions. Farah commented on her experience with ITE:

“The training was held at a school located in the centre of Medea, but teachers who came to the training came from all parts of Medea, 70 and 100 km away, no trains. The training lasted for 15 days, yet no accommodation was provided, no lunch, no coffee or tea in between breaks... nothing! We had to travel every single day for 4 hours on the road [...] most of us complained but nothing changed”.

The findings seem to provide evidence that there are several challenges MFL teachers are confronted with in their working contexts, and this affected their experiences with CPD. This mirrors what has already been mentioned in the literature about administrators creating professional development programs that teachers find limited or no applicability to in their real work (Elmore 2002). Regarding the issue in hand, teachers’ engagement with CPD beyond the formal provision of the state have become less of a priority. Veritably, the data revealed from the interviews showed that MFL teachers were more concerned with the government addressing their working conditions than those related to CPD, and this shows the negative impact these contextual barriers had on the everyday practice of MFL teachers.

The responses of teachers in this study have demonstrated that they valued engaging in CPD opportunities; however, they were left frustrated by a perceived number of barriers identified in this research. These barriers included lack of time along with intensive workload, financial barriers, poor infrastructure and working conditions. The findings in this study appear to reflect that teachers felt that such barriers have hindered them from engaging in meaningful professional learning. The findings also seem to suggest that teachers would have benefited more from the learning experiences had they had more time and less workload in their careers along with more budgetary flexibility and better working conditions. Overlooking CPD barriers

can result in poor consequences for teachers' education. It is therefore crucially important to introduce new strategies that would address CPD barriers and allow teachers to engage more profitably with their learning.

5. Summary

This chapter is the second chapter of two findings chapters where data generated from the interviews were analysed. What emerged as particularly important was the extent to which MFL teachers' perceptions of their CPD are influenced by: government policy, such as the Ministry of Education in Algeria and Ofsted in England; the institutional learning environments in which teachers work; and teachers' own individual dispositions to learning and those of their CPD coordinators. The interrelatedness between these levels of influence was evident across the responses of MFL teachers and CPD coordinators.

The first section in the chapter looked at the third theme generated from the study which is 'Content of CPD'. What has emerged from the findings of this study is that teachers perceived CPD to have little impact on their professional learning for a number of reasons. MFL teachers viewed the content of CPD to be policed and following a top-down approach leading them to feel lacking voice in the process of planning CPD. Both the English and Algerian government failed to recognise the vital role that teachers can have in making decisions about the content of their CPD. There is also a need for schools to create more focused CPD content in relation to MFL teachers' subject and this can be achieved by getting access to specialist knowledge on how to teach MFLs.

'Effective CPD' was the fourth theme generated from the study. Although it is difficult to measure CPD effectiveness or be precise of how to define effective CPD, the findings of this study, particularly focused on the perceptions of MFL teachers amid all the different interpretations that exist by different bodies in the field. The findings have indicated that teachers' perceptions of effective CPD included: designing CPD content that is relevant to teachers' individual learning needs; CPD

that moves away from the ‘one size fits all’ approach to CPD that is more subject-specific; practical CPD over generic theoretical knowledge of pedagogy; a space where teachers can exert their agency, and this involves teacher-led CPD. These elements of effective CPD were given a great value by participants, and it is crucial for governments, leaders, CPD coordinators, and teachers to consider them when planning professional learning opportunities that aim to empower teachers’ practice.

‘CPD barriers’ was the fifth theme generated from the data of this research. The chapter addressed MFL teachers’ perceptions about CPD barriers which they perceived hindered them from accessing professional development opportunities. CPD barriers included, time and workload, financial barriers and working conditions for Algerian teachers. The chapter aimed to voice MFL teachers’ perceptions about their CPD to help raise institutional awareness of areas for improvement in current CPD provision in Algeria and England so as MFL teachers could engage with their CPD more profitably. These research findings and their implications for teachers in schools will be discussed and critically analysed in the next chapter with reference to the literature in light of the conceptual framework of the thesis.

Chapter Seven: Discussion Chapter

1. Introduction

This study is a cross-cultural comparative study between two research contexts, Algeria and England, exploring MFL teachers' perceptions of CPD. The perceptions voiced by MFL teachers about their CPD experiences in the two-research settings have prompted additional critical discussion about teachers' learning. This chapter discusses the findings revealed from the study and examines whether they correlate with/differ from findings of previous research in the literature investigating teachers' CPD. The development of the discussion chapter is premised on the conceptual framework explained in chapter three with an attempt to answer the research questions as stated in chapters one and four.

The analysis of MFL teachers' interviews has served to indicate that there are three different levels of influence that impact upon teachers' experiences with CPD. Firstly, at the macro level, this has been identified as 'the government' with regard to the mandated regulations and political reforms introduced which affect teachers' CPD and practice. Secondly, at the meso level, 'the institution' was established as the second relative influence that affects teachers' experiences and access to CPD opportunities. Thirdly, the micro level has been determined to be 'the individual teacher' with individual dispositions to learning as the factor impacting their engagement with CPD. The following section aims to discuss the findings related to the three levels of influence over teachers' CPD.

2. Three levels of influence over teachers' CPD

2.1 The governmental level

Research literature presented in Chapter 3 as part of the conceptual framework of the thesis identified the government as one of the vehicles that directly affect teachers' CPD. The findings revealed from MFL teachers' interviews in the two research contexts of this study helped to identify two primary government structures that

regulate, and influence MFL teachers' CPD. Teachers viewed the Ministry of Education (MoE), in Algeria and Ofsted, in England as the most influential governmental bodies over their CPD and perceived them as central instruments of government policy that influence their learning. The responses of CPD coordinators in both research settings also showed acknowledgement of the influence of the government mediators, such as the MoE in Algeria and Ofsted in England, upon the direction of teacher learning. This finding reflects those of other studies in the field linking the influence of government-led intervention to teachers' CPD (Education policy institute 2021; Burstow and Winch 2014).

MFL teachers' responses in both contexts portrayed dissatisfactory views about the negative influence of their governments' tightly controlled reforms on their CPD. For example, the reform launched by the Ministry of Education in Algeria in 2016 entitled the Second-Generation Program (SGP), aimed at bringing improvements to the quality of education and resulted in designing new syllabi and textbooks in different subjects including MFLs (Gasmi 2020; Selama 2018). Formal CPD in the context of MFL teachers in Algeria who took part in the study was targeted to address this reform. In England, at the time of data collection Ofsted had introduced the new specifications for GCSE, and the government expected schools to respond effectively to the demands of the new grading system (Smith 2015). The logic of the new GCSE specifications and grading system underpins a highly detailed accountability system which made schools subject to target-driven policies, focusing on a narrow view of progress (Smith 2015). Schinske and Tanner (2014) highlighted that a key barrier to teachers aspiring to be more innovative in their teaching was the amount of time and energy spent on giving grades that showed little about students' mastery of knowledge in a subject (p. 162). Therefore, teachers became more focused on assessment rather than pedagogy of learning. The findings show that in both contexts, MFL teachers' CPD has been informed by the mediators of their governments and focused mainly on addressing their demands. In accordance with the present findings, previous studies have demonstrated similar results. For instance, findings from a study by Howell and Sayed (2018) on CPD in Sub-Saharan Africa revealed that political forces largely inform the

underpinnings of CPD initiatives which often became directed to address education reform imperatives, such as new national curriculum (p. 17). Another study by Ridley (2011) showed that 'teachers' CPD was mainly driven by national government initiatives, and where those initiatives became national priorities, there appeared to be little opportunity for an individual, school-based approach to CPD' (p. 3). Another study by Price (2008) found that one of the main roadblocks in CPD programmes is related to the fact that:

it is a common practice for professional development to be planned by the principal, districts, provincial or national government with the sole intention of achieving dramatic improvements in classroom teaching and student performance (Ravhuhali et al. 2015, p. 2).

The influence of the government impacted the learning environment where MFL teachers work in both research contexts. Evidence from the literature demonstrated that institutional learning environments can range between an expansive learning environment that positively promote teacher learning to a restrictive learning environment that limits teachers' learning experiences (Fuller and Unwin 2004). There is a dynamic process that exist between the policies introduced by the government and the nature of the learning environments where teachers work. Governmental policies in both research contexts have negatively influenced MFL teachers' experiences with CPD as they have promoted a learning environment for teachers that is overly restrictive than expansive. In England, MFL teachers expressed that there was insufficient time for them to plan and engage in CPD collaborative activities with colleagues due to the perceived extra workload generated from assessment and marking papers. In a similar vein, findings from Algeria showed that MFL teachers were restricted from planning any learning activities with other teachers due to extra workload stemming from preparing to teach the new curriculum. The findings correlate with findings from previous research of Atwal (2016) who found that when teachers become more focused on addressing governmental requirements to implement them in their practice, it narrows opportunities for informal learning to

develop between them and their colleagues. This eventually limits teachers' chances to experience effective CPD that addresses their professional needs.

Although the sphere of influence in relation to teachers' CPD at the level of the government is different between England and Algeria, there was a similar concern expressed by participants about the conduct of formal lesson observation. In England this has been reported to be in relation to the appraisal and inspection process. In terms of appraisals, schools in England have to follow the appraisal regulations set out by the Department for Education (DfE 2019). However, Murphy (2013) argued that changes in the appraisal regulations in 2012 increased the flexibility enjoyed by academies and other schools over teacher appraisal regulations (p. 4). This came after the DfE (2012) gave schools in England more freedom to develop their own policies and assess teachers in the way that they see fit, by members of the school leadership team (Murphy 2013, p. 6). A number of studies that have looked at the conduct of appraisals showed that educational stakeholders view this practice as a tool to improve quality of teaching and learning outcomes (Ehren et al. 2013), and a precursor to increase feedback acceptance for further improvement (Ehren & Visscher 2008). However, findings from this study showed contrary views towards this practice. Responses of MFL teachers in England indicated that tensions arose when MFL teachers discussed their experiences with appraisals, as they did not see it as a learning experience that would empower their practice. The conduct of appraisals in England aligns itself with the government's focus on targets which has led teachers to experience surmountable levels of pressure in their profession, resulting in several challenges such as teachers perceiving appraisals as an imposed activity which restricts their autonomy; major source for stress (Dunham 1992); and a threat to the wellbeing of collegial professional relationships (Üstünlüoğlu 2009). Crowley (2014) argued that 'internal mechanisms at the schools like appraisals have the potential to change the complexion of CPD, emphasising narrow notions of workplace competence at the expense of broader development' (p. 44). MFL teachers in England also perceived the inspection of Ofsted as a stressful experience. This finding correlate with that of Perryman, Maguire, Braun, and Ball (2018) who found that the influence

of the inspection agenda was clearly apparent on schools' leadership and management as teachers were pressured to conform to Ofsted's expectations and this resulted in schools performing to be 'the good school' just for inspection purposes (p. 145).

In Algeria, the MoE made appraisals compulsory to monitor teachers' performance more effectively. This practice, however, is only carried out as an internal process at the school when teachers are in their first year of NQT (Bellalem 2008). Schools do not have any internal policies for appraisal processes after teachers get their QTS. Nonetheless, negative perceptions towards formal lesson observations appeared in relations to the conduct of inspection. MFL teachers' perceptions of the inspection regime were very poor as it was perceived to only point out to the problems in their teaching and gauge improvement in learners' outcomes, rather than helping them improve their practice. The findings broadly corroborate findings from other studies in this area linking external evaluations (inspections) to negative experiences of teachers (Hopkins et al. 2016). Perryman & Calvert (2020) asserted that the regulation of teachers' work has created a low trust regime of increased accountability in education.

The practice of inspection is so deeply embedded in a culture of accountability and performativity, which might be a reasonable explanation for MFL teachers' negative perceptions about formal lesson observation when they are conducted for such purpose. This has been borne out by studies which showed that teachers are more inclined to accept unfavourable inspection results when inspectors are viewed as professional, collegial, and nonthreatening (McNamara & O'Hara 2006). Moreover, findings from a study that examined the Flemish inspection system yielded favourable views from teachers about appraisals, the authors Quintelier, De Maeyer and Vanhoof (2020) argued that their findings cannot be unproblematically generalised to other contexts due to the Flemish's inspection system being characterised with low-stakes accountability system (OECD 2013); unlike other systems where 'schools and teachers see inspectors as being primarily concerned with accountability rather than development' (Quintelier, De Maeyer and Vanhoof 2020 p. 14). CPD here becomes

utilitarian (Czerniawski 2013) more than developmental in a way that it is reduced to merely evaluating shortcomings.

In an era where economic concerns have dominated the direction of educational policies (Skourdoumbis 2018), MFL teachers' experiences with their CPD have been influenced by such climate in the contexts where they work. The role of education in promoting economic growth of countries led to the rise of competition between governments to compete in improving the quality of their education systems (Kennedy 2015; Loomis, Rodriguez and Tillman 2008). This has been a driver for many governments to put in place different mechanisms to measure performance (Brill, Grayson, Kuhn, and O'Donnell 2018). Appraisals and inspections are instances of such mechanisms which have been employed in both research contexts as a means 'to sharpen up targets and to seek quantifiable outcomes' (Bartlett 1998, p. 489). The current regime in both research contexts has increasingly shifted the teaching profession away from its professional status and moved it towards assessment, tests, progress measurements, and preparation for reviews and inspections (Perryman & Calvert 2020).

Critical analysis of the data suggests that the climate of accountability and performativity is pervasive in MFL teachers' experiences in both research contexts, as it emanated teachers' working contexts leaving them to experience CPD provision as externally imposed and demanding from them conformity and compliance. For instance, in England, MFL teachers reported that the constant changes in government policies, mainly curriculum and assessment (Ball 2021; Braun et al. 2010) created roadblocks for their engagement with CPD outside school time. Although the findings from Algeria have also shown a degree of this performativity/ accountability culture, it has been much more visible in the data generated from England.

Access to CPD opportunities has been much more prominent in England than in Algeria. The majority of MFL teachers in England mentioned a range of CPD forms that is available to them whether inside or outside their working place. For instance, in

London, MFL teachers reported attending the annual language conference for MFLs and engaging in external formal CPD organised by private bodies. This finding corroborates with findings from other studies that have highlighted the diversity of provision of CPD in England, with abundant formal and informal learning opportunities available inside and outside the school (Childs, 2013; Sugrue 2004). In contrast, Algerian MFL teachers reported significant challenges regarding access to formal CPD. The Algerian government entitles MFL teachers to six sessions of formal CPD per year (Ouarzeddine, Gomatos, and Ravanis 2020). However, responses of MFL teachers showed inadequacy of these sessions in their context. In an interview with an MFL teacher from Medea, it was reported that these sessions were reduced to only two per year. The findings correlate with those of Touahar and Hammou (2020) who highlighted several difficulties facing novice MFL teachers in Algeria, including lack of training sessions and the absence of monitoring and guidance of both trainers and inspectors (p. 90). Moreover, findings in Algeria also showed that access to external CPD opportunities in Medea was practically non-existent in their context. The findings are in agreement with those from a study carried out by Kadri and Benmouhoub (2019) who found that the absence of professional development opportunities was the major problem affecting the quality of language teaching in Algeria.

There are several reasons that could explain the huge disparity in accessibility to CPD opportunities for MFL teachers between Algeria and England. In Algeria, the nature of provision of both the education system and teacher education programmes are widely administered by the state and therefore remains public and free (Bellalem 2008). On the contrary, England witnessed throughout the last three decades a development of a marketisation system of teacher education programmes (Childs and Menter 2013; Coldron, Cripps and Shipton 2010; Taylor 2002; Noden 2000). Such a climate eventually made learning institutions that cater for teachers' CPD to become market driven, which in its turn led to the creation of a richer, more varied, learning opportunities for teachers (George and Maguire 2019; Whiting et al. 2018). It is important to recognise the link of the marketisation system with neoliberal policies

which have, to a large extent, reshaped teacher education in England (Ball 2016). The privatisation system of TE led to a surge in the development of teacher education providers (Sorensen 2019), with a competitive culture between numerous private bodies.

Nevertheless, the availability of diverse CPD providers in England did not enable an easy access for MFL teachers to engage in these opportunities. MFL teachers in London reported challenges to access external CPD that relate to funding. However, financial constrains as barrier to CPD has been much more evident in the data from Algeria. Although state schools are maintained by their respective governments in the two research contexts, some of the budget received by state schools in London get allocated to teachers' CPD. However, this is not the case in state schools in Medea. Campbell (2003) contended that the DfES policy for CPD funding shows that governmental funding goes straight into the budget of the school which decides how it should be spent (p. 377). In London, participants were aware of the budget schools receive for CPD which school leaders will then decide on the appropriateness of the CPD when sending staff to attend external CPD. Nevertheless, responses from participants in London referred to the English government withdrawing funding from schools which has affected their access to more CPD opportunities. In Algeria, MFL teachers did not have any knowledge about the budget for CPD at their schools and reported that there was no budgetary allocation from the government towards CPD. A further key barrier to their engagement with CPD was also related the low salary they receive as MFL teachers. The findings reinforce those revealed from another study of Bellalem (2014) on the current economic status of Algeria that forced teachers to take additional jobs, either in the food market, shops, or taxi drivers outside their working hours to meet the demands of their families (p. 69). A more recent study by Rebai and Ferrah (2022) also highlighted that the low salary of Algerian teachers made them feel overwhelmed by the high cost of living and expensive job-related tools and materials and recommended for the Algerian government to encourage teachers' participation in in-service training by increasing funding (p. 26).

Despite the disparity of CPD provision between Algeria and England, MFL teachers shared similar perceptions about barriers to CPD, which indicates that the teaching profession exhibits certain characteristics that are inherent to the teacher's role (Adagiri 2014). Participants in Algeria reported on additional barriers of poor infrastructure and working conditions, and lack of resources at their schools which echo findings from other studies in Algeria (Haouam 2015; Bellaem 2008). Such barriers to CPD were not reported by participants in London which could be related to the difference in the welfare systems between the two countries.

In both research contexts, responses from participants involved in the study highlighted a disconnection between MFL teachers and their respective governments. In Algeria, this appeared through teachers' accounts that there is hardly any communication between them and the MoE as they expressed feelings of frustration with so many reforms being imposed on them following a top-down approach. This has been borne out by studies of many scholars who acknowledged this dissatisfactory situation for teachers. The findings are in correlation with findings from previous research of Bellalem (2014) where it was reported that tensions arose as a result of lack of trust and dialogue inside Algeria's educational system (p. 195). His findings had also indicated that foreign language teachers viewed 'the Algerian school as a site of political power and ideological domination' (p. 187). Findings from more recent research (Gherzouli 2019) also suggested that 'the government and teachers had an imbalanced power relation, with the former controlling and dictating curriculum reforms from the centre and excluding teachers from the entire curriculum development process' (p. IV). In England the disconnection between MFL teachers and the government was visible through the political control which was evident in the delivery of CPD. MFL teachers viewed the agenda of CPD as being pre-decided for them. And although their views centred on their schools being the main responsible for CPD delivery, they understood the direct influence of Ofsted's requirement and its impact on their learning. Reflections on the perceptions of MFL teachers on the delivery of CPD in England showed that it takes place within a managerial system of

management and accountability, and this reaffirmed what has already been discussed in the literature by a number of authors who argued that the priorities of formal CPD are driven by the government (Ridley 2010; Ball 2003; Gewirtz 2002).

Workload was another barrier expressed MFL teachers in Algeria and England that affected their engagement with CPD. Evidence from this study suggests that the increase in the introduction of governmental policies and reforms on schools have placed a lot of pressure on MFL teachers in both contexts. For example, curriculum reforms, in Algeria and the new Ofsted's specifications for GCSE, in England which were introduced around the time of data collection increased teachers' workload. MFL teachers in both contexts found the constant introduction of reforms directly impacting, not only the nature of their learning making it more instrumental to address these reforms, but also resulted in more workload for them which affected their time to engage in individual learning opportunities. The findings agree with Sugrue (2004), whose study findings showed that CPD initiatives placed 'impossible demands at the time on the energy levels of teachers, and this resulted in negative consequences on teachers' motivation and commitment' (p. 78). The surge in the launching of new reforms have been recognised and corroborated by many scholars in the field for years. Levin (1998) claimed that educational reforms are spreading internationally like 'a policy epidemic' (p. 131). Ball (2003) agreed that a turbulent, uneven, and seemingly unstoppable stream of closely related reform ideas have permeated and redirected many education institutions across a variety of social and political contexts with very distinct histories (p. 215). Sugrue (2004) asserted that although the governments' rhetoric calls for promoting a dialogue of 'decentralisation and devolved decision making', there has been a general tendency from policy makers of becoming more impatient with an intensity of introducing new reforms and demands (p.74). The data showed that although MFL teachers in Algeria and England demonstrated disagreeable views about the external influence of the MoE and the Ofsted, respectively, on their CPD, they did not show major reaction to the imposed control on them. This indicates that the level of compliance from teachers in relation to government policy is considerable to a point where teachers understand and recognise

the impact it has on their learning but choose to comply with them. These findings are consistent with a study conducted by Ridley (2010) who argued that teachers may have well accepted the control currently held over their CPD as ‘the normal practice’ (p. 139). The findings corroborate those revealed by a study of Atwal (2016) on teachers’ professional learning which yielded that teachers have overlooked the extent to which government policy have influenced their continuing professional learning in schools, and that due to the way national policies are mediated into schools, teachers have been absorbed into this compliance (p. 144).

Based on the findings from this research, MFL teachers’ perceptions of the influence of government policy have shown that MFL teachers’ CPD is in fact driven by external priorities and those are directly linked to the agenda of their respective governments in the contexts where they work. Findings from the research have also shown that such influence affects MFL teachers’ formal learning at their schools, but it can also underpin certain limitations for MFL teachers to engage in informal learning opportunities with their colleagues or individually due to workload. Further analysis of the findings also indicated that that besides the government, there is another level of influence over teachers’ CPD. This has been identified as the institutional level and will be discussed in the next section of this chapter.

2.2 The institutional level

The previous section demonstrated the influence of the government on MFL teachers’ experiences with CPD. This section aims to discuss the different factors that influence MFL teachers’ experiences with CPD at the institutional level. This will be done through examining whether findings from this study correlate with/ or differ from findings of other studies in the field.

Findings from Algeria and England indicated that MFL teachers acknowledged the role of their governments in determining their learning, but also recognised that the responsibility of their CPD generates more at the institutional level. Different forms of CPD take place at the workplace of MFL teachers in both research contexts. In

England, responses of MFL teachers indicated that the most discernible forms of formal CPD are school-based. These findings correlate with findings from other studies that showed CPD activities in England to be pre-dominantly school-based (Adagiri 2014; Pedder and Opfer 2011). This is different to the situation in Algeria where formal CPD in schools mostly take the form of MFL department meetings whereas the state's provision for formal CPD is held off school premises. The setting of formal CPD in schools in England makes CPD an integral part of MFL teachers' practice as they engage in learning opportunities that are built into their day-to-day work. This is similar to findings from a study of Taddese and Rao (2022) that found school-based CPD an indicative of the Ethiopian government's commitment for teachers to engage in learning opportunities that are embedded in their job within the school settings. In contrast, formal CPD sessions in Algeria are held outside teachers' workplace in a location that is selected by inspectors of MFLs. Such an element of CPD delivery indicates a weakness in the Algerian provision of CPD, as MFL teachers perceived formal CPD to be an isolated practice from their schools' internal processes. The Algerian government's regulations for formal CPD to be held outside the workplace of teachers limit MFL teachers from accessing formal learning as it decreases its occurrence within the school setting. This was substantiated by responses from inspectors of MFLs in Algeria who reported challenging circumstances to plan formal CPD sessions for all MFL teachers in their district. The findings support those of previous research of Rebai and Ferrah (2022) which highlighted the difficult role of MFL inspectors as a direct mediator between the Ministry of Education (MoE) and teachers in attempting to plan formal CPD for all teachers in the jurisdiction they are assigned to. Findings indicated that not all MFL teachers in Medea were able to access formal CPD sessions in their contexts. The responses from the data made reference to a selection process put in place at the institutional level for MFL teachers to attend the formal CPD organised by the MoE and then disseminating knowledge to their colleagues. The findings of the study reinforce findings from previous research in Algeria that have addressed the scarcity of the provision of training for MFL teachers in some districts in the country (Nebbou 2018). The findings from Algeria reflect the cascade model of CPD (Kennedy 2005) where individual teachers attend 'training

events' and then cascade the information to colleagues (p. 240). The challenging circumstances MFL inspectors face in catering for all MFL teachers in their jurisdiction align with Kennedy's (2005) claim that the cascade model is commonly employed in situations 'where resources are limited' (p. 240).

Findings from both research contexts indicated that the role of CPD coordinators is to ensure the efficient enactment of government CPD-related policies by designing CPD that aligns with the government's agenda for teaching and learning. This data revealed from England showed that the decision-making for CPD was perceived to rest predominantly with the CPD coordinators and school headteachers. In an interview with a CPD coordinator in London, it was found that their role entitles them to hold authority to make decisions over the content of CPD and ensuring adherence to the DfE regulation. These findings are consistent with previous studies that indicated schools' autonomy in the decision-making of teacher learning in England (Atwal 2016; Bubb and Earley 2007). In contrast to England, the way CPD is devolved at the institutional level plays out differently in Algeria. Schools in Algeria do not have a designation role for CPD coordination. The planning and coordination of CPD is overseen by inspectors of MFLs who act as a mediator between the Ministry of Education (MoE) and MFL teachers (Rebai and Ferrah 2022). The job of the inspector is to not only observe, guide, assess and qualify teachers, but also stretches to plan and coordinate CPD sessions for MFL teachers (Rebai and Ferrah 2022, p. 15).

The authority and level of autonomy given to CPD coordinators at the institutional level in both contexts explains the disparity of how CPD-related policies settled in the context of MFL teachers who took part in the study. Findings from this study showed that the enactment of governmental policies played out differently, not just between the two research contexts under study, but also between different schools that are located in the same context where MFL teachers work. CPD coordinators in both contexts had different interpretations to governmental policies. The complex process by which government policies settle at the level of schools has been described by critical policy scholars as 'policy enactment' (Singh, Heimans and Glasswell 2014).

Policies are not simply implemented but in fact they are enacted through a creative process of interpretation and translation (Skerritt et al. 2021). Policy enactment is a complex process and is actualized in a mixture of entanglements, not as a single reality, but as a multiplicity of realities that coexist, simultaneously, in the mesh of assemblages that we call ‘school’ (Riveros and Viczko 2014).

In both research contexts, CPD coordinators deployed different approaches of CPD, resulting in a variety of CPD practices at the different schools where participants in the study work. In England, instances of such appeared when state schools and academies used a top-down approach in designing CPD activities as teachers were excluded from the process. This is diametrically opposed to the private school in London, where the CPD coordinator used surveys to involve teachers in the decision making of CPD activities. Other instances related to the time, duration, and nature of CPD activities. In Algeria, the variation in CPD practices appeared when an MFL teacher from the city of Tipaza reported on attending regular sessions of formal CPD with her inspector, as opposed to the struggle MFL teachers in Medea were facing in accessing formal CPD with their inspector. It can be said that actors at the institutional level constructed their own understanding of the value of governmental policies on CPD and teachers’ practice, and their different interpretations, prompted different realities for MFL teachers across a cluster of schools. This understanding of how policy enactment takes place fits within the epistemological stance I am adopting in the research which aligns with the belief that ‘we do not live in a single container universe, but partially participate in multiple realities’ (Law 2015 p. 126). The findings are consistent with previous research that traced how particular policies of teacher learning produced different realities of practice at schools. (Wilkinson and Penney 2020; Gu, Day, Walker and Leithwood 2018; Louis and Robinson 2012). For instance, Ball, Maguire, Braun, and Hoskins (2011) contended, ‘what happens inside a school in terms of how policies are interpreted and enacted will be mediated by institutional factors’ (p. 10). It can be concluded therefore that policy enactment constitutes a context of different interpretations and can create different practical possibilities and frameworks.

The culture of learning at the schools is shaped by CPD coordinators and school headteachers' own interpretation of governmental policies as well as their own dispositions to learning. Ball, Maguire, Braun, and Hoskins (2011) contended that the difference in the implementation of governmental policy at the level of institutions can drastically differ depending on the degree to which particular policies will 'fit' or can be fitted within the existing ethos and culture of the school (p. 10). Findings from this study showed that the leadership role of CPD coordinators and schools' headteachers had a great influence over MFL teachers' experiences with CPD. Unwin (2012) argued that the nature and type of the workplace learning cannot be examined in isolation, but it rather 'sits within the wider organisational context and is the product of the organisational structures and cultures of which it is part' (Kelly 2012). The way actors at the institutional level interpret and enact policy reflects their own dispositions to learning which can promote expansive or restrictive learning environments for MFL teachers (Fuller and Unwin 2003).

In England, restrictive learning environments surfaced in the study when MFL teachers opened up about their schools being more focused on directing teachers' learning to address external demands from their governments in their formal CPD. This is understandable considering the increased levels of pressure of performativity and accountability which schools in England must adhere to (Webster-Wright 2009). However, the overly focus to meet such demands came at the expense of designing CPD that could be more aligned with the professional learning needs of MFL teachers, such as subject-specific CPD. Findings indicated that school-based CPD in England is generic with difficulty expressed by MFL teachers to apply knowledge gained into their subject, MFLs. Cunningham (2019) argued that the role of subject-specific CPD in effective teaching vital. Nevertheless, the nature of whole-school CPD in England limits MFL teachers' from accessing subject knowledge that can address their professional needs. Participants also reported challenges at the management level to engage in external CPD opportunities which sometimes related to issues in funding. Opfer and Pedder (2011) asserted that school leaders see school-based CPD as

providing more value for money and benefit than CPD taking place outside schools (p. 419).

Examples from the data in Algeria that mirrored a restrictive learning environment included organisational difficulties that hindered MFL teachers from conducting informal peer-observation between colleagues. School leaders were perceived to be too focused on putting pupils' learning as a priority over the learning of teachers. This has impacted on the nature of the learning environment where MFL teachers in the study work, making it more restrictive than expansive. More instances of restrictive elements in the context of MFL teachers in Algeria included incompetence of CPD program leaders (Dagnew Kelkay 2018); lack of support (Bellaem 2008), poor leadership and management of CPD (Geldenhuis and Oosthuizen 2015), and poor infrastructure and lack of resources (Abraham 2019). Common to both research contexts on restrictive learning environments were examples of work overload (Tye & O'Brien 2002); time and short duration of CPD (Harris, Cale and Musson 2012) with reference to the delivery of formal CPD sessions occasionally following a transmissive model (Kennedy 2005) rather than having a participatory role in the creation of new knowledge (Mansour, Albalawi and Macleod 2014). All these elements of a restrictive learning environment resulted in MFL teachers perceiving their CPD provision to be neither effective nor particularly powerful for their practice, and this confirms existing literature of teachers' dissatisfaction with their teacher education programs (Darling-Hammond 2005; Katz and Rath 1992).

While it is important to explore the elements that MFL teachers perceived to have made their workplace restrictive, this does not mean however that their learning has no expansive elements. On the contrary, the complexity of teachers' learning makes it problematic to place their workplace learning into a restrictive/ expansive workplace dichotomy. Unwin (2012) contended that 'the learning environment is creative and dynamic and constantly evolving' (Kelly 2012, online). It is therefore equally important to highlight instances from MFL teachers' responses that portrayed elements of an expansive learning environment.

Illustrations of expansive learning environments in MFL teachers' experiences with CPD have been more evident in England than in Algeria. MFL teachers' responses in London showed that school headteachers at two out of the four schools that took part in the study facilitated for MFL teachers to go on outside-school learning opportunities by providing funding and arranging for cover whilst the teachers are absent. MFL teachers in London also discussed how their schools support their engagement in collaborative CPD activities such as Lesson Study and initiate informal communities of practice (CoP) for MFLs beyond the provision of school-based CPD. The findings align with findings from previous research which indicated that professional development practices for teachers cannot be effective without the supports of school leaders in creating conducive conditions of learning (Clarke et al. 2020). The exposure of MFL teachers in London to multiple learning opportunities and communities of practice empowered their experiences with CPD and expanded their vision for learning beyond the provision of school-based CPD. Such a culture at the workplace of MFL teachers afforded them with opportunities for subject-specific CPD that was not available in whole-school CPD.

In Algeria, elements of expansive learning environments appeared when MFL teachers engaged in informal learning activities such as collaborative CPD activities. Participants' responses indicated that they paid a great value to learning informally with their colleagues and emphasised on the forms of CPD that were mostly focused on their subject rather than those connected to the latest government reforms. Collaborative CPD emerged as one of the activities that characterises CPD effectiveness for MFL teachers in Algeria. Instances from the data was when MFL teachers were encouraged by their CPD coordinator to take ownership of their CPD by giving them an opportunity to plan, design and lead CPD that addresses MFL teachers' specific professional needs. Kennedy (2011) contended that 'a lot of the value of collaborative CPD is to be found in the informal element of working with other people [...] even harder to capture in competence-based descriptions of teaching standards (p. 25). Murray, McNamara, and Jones (2014) asserted that teachers' learning does not have to focus merely on provision of formal learning but instead should promote and

support the informal learning of teachers which exists between and within individual teachers.

Engagement in collaborative CPD activities embody elements of a wider expansive school learning environment based on Fuller and Unwin (2004)'s argument that expansive features include opportunities for practitioners to take part in many different communities of practice. One essential aspect of Communities of Practice is that learning is perceived as an integral dimension of social practice which inevitably involves learning (Lave & Wenger 1991). There is an explicit focus in CoP on Situated Learning Theory (SLT), where learning is an ongoing process which can take place in all sorts of situations (Attard Tonna and Shanks 2017). This stance has profound implications for the conceptualisation of professional learning. The action of participating in social practice is a way of belonging to a community which allows participation, and thus learning, to take place (Fuller et al. 2005, p. 51). Evidence from the data showed that MFL teachers in both research contexts engaged in informal learning within communities of practice at their schools as well as, engaged simultaneously in communities of practice with colleagues from other schools to share best practices on how to teach MFLs. Lieberman and Pointer Mace (2010) argued that professional learning is rooted in the need to belong, to contribute to a community, and to understand that experience and knowledge are part of community property (Attard Tonna and Shanks 2017).

In terms of the conceptual framework of this thesis, the understanding of teacher learning that has been adopted in this study is that it is situated. Such conceptualisation is particularly important because MFL teachers' experiences with CPD are embedded in the context where they work and live. Attard Tonna and Shanks (2017) stated, 'very often teaching experiences, as embedded within contexts [...] are varied and unique and so is the learning which occurs within these experiences' (p. 95). Borko (2004) affirmed that in order to understand teacher professional learning, the phenomenon must be studied 'within these multiple contexts, taking into account both the individual teacher-learners and the social systems in which they are participants (p.6).

Fundamental to this is to learn at work and away from work and to be recognized as a learner (Fuller & Unwin, 2004). Evidence from the literature appears to be in line with the data revealed from the study as MFL teachers' perceptions in both contexts indicated the variety of situations teachers engaged in and learned from in their contexts. As Borko (2004) maintained, teacher learning can occur 'in many different aspects of practice, including their classrooms, their school communities, and professional development courses or workshops' (p. 6).

The responses from MFL teachers indicated preference to get more support from their schools and CPD coordinators to engage in informal learning opportunities more frequently and more effectively. Many of the comments of MFL teachers in Algeria reflected a tension between the great value they gave to this form of learning whilst being frustrated at times with some restrictions from the institutional level to engage in such learning opportunities. In both contexts, MFL teachers' perceptions indicated that they felt it is the responsibility of their CPD coordinators to facilitate their engagement in professional learning activities which would help them develop positive dispositions towards learning. Different types of work environments for teachers will create different experiences of learning and give rise to different dispositions to learning. Teachers, therefore, need learning environments that would get them access to opportunities that would help them develop positive dispositions to learning. While these examples from MFL teachers' experiences demonstrate the powerful impact of informal learning on their professional learning, they also highlight the significance of support at the institutional level. The school leaders and CPD coordinators' own dispositions to learning in promoting an expansive environment that motivates teachers to learn collaboratively are also put under the spotlight. In this study, school headteachers and CPD coordinators had authority to make decisions on both the formal learning opportunities made available for MFL teachers but also the mechanisms put in place to support the nurture of informal learning opportunities between MFL teachers.

The findings align with findings from earlier research in the field that explored teachers' satisfaction. For instance, a study conducted by Quaglia, Marion, and McIntire (1991) with 477 teachers from 20 rural Maine communities found that satisfied teachers experienced significantly more empowerment within their schools than dissatisfied teachers. Findings from another study conducted by Moore (2012) revealed that amongst the reasons that increased teachers' levels of satisfaction was a positive school environment which relied heavily on school leadership and administrative decisions. Moreover, findings from a comparative study of Adagiri (2014) on primary teachers' professional development in England and Nigeria highlighted the significance of CPD coordinators in developing an ethos of learning in the school that encourages teachers' engagement in a variety of learning activities. The finding broadly supports the work of other studies in this area (Atwal 2016; Ball, Maguire, Braun, and Hoskins 2011; Bishop and Denleg 2006; Day and Sachs 2004) which indicated that teachers' workplace has a great influence over their professional development.

The success of CPD programmes is unlikely to have a lasting effect without organisational support (Muijs et al. 2004). While there is a great need to acknowledge and recognise the great benefit of building an expansive learning environment for teachers where they can experience powerful professional learning, this cannot be maintained or prosper without efforts initiated from the bottom-up i.e., the teacher. The findings of this study have indicated that the government and the institution are not the sole levels of influence over teachers' experiences with CPD, but there is another level of influence that impacts on MFL teachers' engagement with CPD. This level of influence is situated at the individual level, and it will be discussed in the following section of this chapter.

2.3 The individual level

The findings of this research have so far indicated two levels of influence over MFL teachers' experiences with CPD, which are the government and the institution. The

role of school leaders and CPD coordinators in influencing MFL teachers' experiences with CPD is significant. Nevertheless, the conceptual lens used in the thesis has identified another level of influence that merits recognition and which impacts upon teachers' engagement with CPD, that is the individual teacher. Individual dispositions have been defined by Shanks, Robson, & Gray (2012) as 'teachers' learning biography, attitude towards and engagement with learning opportunities and how they react to environmental factors' (p. 184). Individual dispositions are linked to teacher agency which surfaced mainly when MFL teachers discussed how they reacted to governmental and institutional variables and when they engaged in self-directed learning. Imants & Van der Wal (2020) defined teacher agency as the capacity for social actors, interacting in their context, to act, react and make decisions in order to reach a goal (cited in Howard, 2021 p. 10). This section aims to discuss the findings related to the influence of MFL teachers' agency and individual dispositions to learning on their experiences and engagement with CPD.

Findings from the study showed that MFL teachers perceived policymakers to have expectations from teachers to unproblematically implement policies in their practice without interrogating them, therefore overlooking their agency. However, data analysis brought to light clear instances of MFL teachers exercising agency from the way they engaged with governmental policies. This means that teachers are not passive recipients to policy as they do not obey authority without question, but rather react to and use policies in a manner which fits their own interests (Barlett 1998). In England, this appeared when MFL teachers challenged the provision of whole-school CPD which is generic in nature and started Communities of Practice between colleagues from the MFL department at their school with MFL teachers from other schools. Shanks (2012) argued that the 'one size fits all' approach to CPD does not take into account the differences between teacher learners and how they learn, as teachers differ in their needs and the way they approach learning. Launching this initiative created a good platform for MFL teachers to access subject-specific CPD. Evans et al. (2006) asserted that individuals do have their individual agency and

through exercising this agency, they can elect the extent to which they choose to engage in the activities available to them (Atwal 2016, p. 25).

In Algeria, MFL teachers' agency manifested when they navigated governmental reforms to implement them in their practice. According to participants in Algeria, the reforms introduced by the MoE had high expectations from them along with little understanding of the difficult conditions they are facing in their schools, such as overcrowded classes. Putting policies into practice is a creative, sophisticated, and complex process (Ball et al. 2011). MFL teachers responded to governmental reforms in the best way they saw appropriate. Timperley, Wilson, Barrar, and Fung (2008) argued that teachers are likely to dismiss or reject new strategies that conflict with their existing understandings because they find them as unrealistic, irrelevant and/ or inappropriate for their particular practice contexts (p. 17). These findings reinforce findings from a recent study by Lennert da Silva and Mølstad (2020) which showed that teachers navigated policies in a variety of forms to fit their needs and beliefs and those of their students. Another instance of how agency surfaced in the study was when inspectors of MFLs in two different jurisdictions in Algeria challenged the inadequacy of formal CPD provision for MFL teachers by the state (only 6 formal CPD sessions per year) and started two different CPD initiatives in their contexts. The initiatives were carried out differently but shared the same principle of organising CPD sessions where MFL teachers oversee the leading and designing the content of CPD for their colleagues. In this regard, Hoyle (1986) pointed out:

‘heads and deputies have themselves risen from the main body of the teaching profession; they will still in many cases retain their initial teaching ideologies and professional allegiances to colleagues in spite of pressures to behave in a more managerial manner’ (Bartlett 1998, p. 489).

In encouraging and supporting MFL teachers to exert their agency in the planning of CPD, MFL teachers' experiences and engagement with CPD were significantly empowered. Evidence from this study suggests that engagement in activities that are

based on collaboration and where there is a potential to develop a community of learners that share the same purpose reflect an expansive learning environment and would positively impact individual dispositions to learning. Such findings have been borne out by research that linked teachers' positive dispositions to learning to expansiveness of learning environments (Shanks, Robson, and Gray 2012; Hodkinson and Hodkinson 2005). Another study by Adagiri (2014) showed constant encouragement about CPD helped in changing teachers' attitudes towards their CPD, making them more motivated and enthusiastic to learn. Learning dispositions cannot be enforced on teachers as they remain subjective to the individuals who have different positions and attitudes towards learning. However, the nature of the workplace is significant in shaping their dispositions to learning (Hodkinson and Hodkinson 2005). Findings from this study indicated that MFL teachers' experiences with CPD take place in a variety of learning environments, but it also demonstrated that individual learning dispositions can be influenced by the type of the environment where teachers work. The findings of the current study are in correlation with findings from previous research that have shown the impact of the workplace in developing positive or negative dispositions to learning (Atwal 2016; Pedder and Opfer 2011). Nevertheless, it is noteworthy to say that although the implementation of one of these initiatives in Algeria (more details in chapter 5, section 3.2) received great popularity in the city of Oran, the second initiative introduced by the inspector of MFL in the city of Medea received an adverse reaction at the level of the directorate of education, leading to its termination. This further highlights the significance of positive learning dispositions at the management and organisational level and how such variables can either support or suppress initiatives for professional learning.

Findings from a study of Ball, Maguire, Braun, and Hoskins (2011) that explored how schools enact government policy highlighted the need for schools to afford teachers with greater access to opportunities where they can exert their agency in their learning in order to articulate their learning needs. Nevertheless, data revealed from the two research contexts indicated that teachers' agency is often being limited by 'the formalised rules and codes of standards and policy specifics' (Skourdumbis 2018, p.

8). Priestley (2015) stated, ‘schools are complex social organisations set within even more complex social systems, can seriously limit teacher agency’ [online]. While MFL teachers perceived certain contextual factors as barriers that impeded them from engaging with their learning, they were used by others as an incentive to seek alternative ways to engage with CPD more profitably. This form of learning has been identified in the study as self-directed learning. Findings revealed from the study showed that participants in both contexts gave a great value to the learning generated at the bottom i.e., from individuals, often referred to as self-directed learning. MFL teachers perceived self-directed learning to be more fulfilling than institutional provisions of CPD, which support findings from recent studies in the field that highlighted its importance in teachers’ learning (Alshaikhi 2020). Teachers’ preference towards engaging in this form of learning over that of the state may be related to teachers being able to exert their own agency in directing their learning towards addressing their specific areas of needs.

The scholarly literature in the field indicates that self-directed learning can strengthen teacher agency in taking charge of their own learning and teaching (Pei and Yang 2019, p. 625). When self-directed learning becomes integrated into normal practice at the workplace, it can lead to the most empowering impact on teachers’ practice. Kelly (2017) contended that CPD provider organisations need to create more expansive learning environments for their teachers with a supportive culture that all teachers are expected to engage in such form of learning. In self-directed learning, the role of the teacher is seen as vital with an emphasis given to lifelong learning. Oates (2019) contended that teacher education programs need to change to reflect the notion of lifelong learning at the heart of the courses offered. Nevertheless, evidence from the data identified a clear policy paradox in the context of teachers’ CPD. While policy discourse, such as the rhetoric of lifelong learning, calls for teachers to engage in self-directed learning, the realities of MFL teachers’ work life in both research contexts do not seem to accommodate for such form of learning to flourish. The findings of the study align with findings from previous research

conducted by O'Connell (2010) which showed that teachers' engagement in CPD in an-out of school context was reduced to the realm of possibility due to increased workload and teachers' feelings of being overburdened (p. 135).

The evidence in this study indicated that MFL teachers in both research contexts in Algeria and England do have agency that allows them to make individual interpretations of governmental policies and make decisions that would eventually affect their practice and the way they engage with CPD. The individual dispositions of MFL teachers were found to be a significant factor impacting their engagement with CPD along with other factors at the governmental and institutional level. This section has discussed the influence of teachers' agency and individual dispositions over their engagement with CPD. There are several factors involved in shaping MFL teachers' individual dispositions to learning. The data highlighted that teachers' dispositions to learning can influence their engagement with CPD not just at the schools where they work, but also outside the school, mainly with regards to their engagement in self-directed learning.

3. Summary

This chapter has discussed the findings revealed from this study in relation to relevant literature and the conceptual framework presented in chapter 3 of the thesis. The data discussed in this chapter appears to indicate three levels of influence that played a key role in influencing MFL teachers' experiences with their CPD and shaping their perceptions of CPD practices. These are: government policy, the institutional learning environment, and teachers' individual dispositions to learning.

The interrelationship between the three levels of influence is presented as a complex process. However, in this thesis, I would argue that schools are put in a strategic position to bridge the gap between instruments from the governments and individual teachers. Based on the findings of this research, teachers perceived the way CPD was carried out as being influenced by the government, but they also perceived the

institution to have a significant role on supporting or limiting their engagement with CPD. The view that schools constitute a site that directly and unproblematically implement government policy has been challenged in the last decade with many scholars arguing that the process is much more complex (Viennet and Pont 2017; Honig 2006). The chapter discussed this complex cycle by highlighting the multitude of possibilities and layers policies go through before they are enacted by actors. Spillane (2004, p. 8) explains that:

‘the story is morphed as it moves from player to player [...] this happens not because the players are intentionally trying to change the story; it happens because that is the nature of human sense-making’ (cited in Ball et al. 2011, p. 4).

Head teachers and CPD coordinators played a key role in mediating government policy. The findings demonstrated that there was a difference in CPD practices at the level of the schools which took part in the study which relates to CPD coordinators’ different interpretations of government policies. These different interpretations and dispositions at the institutional level then influenced the type of the learning environment teachers had at their workplace and which learning opportunities they received.

The data yielded has also demonstrated that MFL teachers had agency in how they implemented government policies and interpreted their efficacy on their practice. Their agency and autonomy manifested into how they react to policy and apply it in their practice, and this allowed them to decide whether to accept change. There is a great need for critically engaged teachers who can exert their agency in constructive ways leading to better practice. This can be achieved through creating an expansive institutional learning environments for teachers that acknowledge their agency and their different dispositions to learning.

The next chapter will examine the conclusions that can be drawn from the research and outline the limitations of the research. The conclusion chapter will also present the

implications of this research and recommendations that can be made for national policy on CPD provision for MFL teachers and the factors that can help headteachers and CPD coordinators in taking informed decisions that would expand MFL teacher' learning opportunities in their contexts.

Chapter Eight: Conclusion Chapter

1. Introduction

This study is small-scale exploratory comparative research that focused on a sample of twenty MFL teachers from Algeria and England. The study looked at the phenomenon of teachers' continuing professional development which has been closely scrutinised from policymakers and education authorities for years (Hayes 2019; Kennedy 2015; Webster-Wright 2009; Darling Hammond 2005; Day 1999). This chapter summarises the major findings revealed from the research and offers key conclusions that we can draw from the study. The chapter highlights the contribution this research makes to the field of knowledge in relation to the area of teacher CPD. The next section in the chapter presents the recommendations that the study offers, not only for MFL teachers, but holistically across governmental and institutional levels in relation to teacher CPD. Research recommendations are followed by implications of how these can be implemented by the relevant stakeholders involved in CPD provision such as policymakers, school leaders, CPD coordinators and MFL teachers. After that, I will discuss suggestions for future research on the topic and conclude with the limitations of the study.

2. Key findings of the study

This study explored the similarities and the differences between MFL teachers' perceptions of CPD in their contexts in Algeria and England and the perceived factors that support and/ or hinder MFL teachers from engaging with CPD. A qualitative methodological approach was adopted to elicit the participants' responses through semi-structured interviews. The analysis of the qualitative data generated key findings which answered the three research questions:

- 4- What are the similarities and/or differences between MFL teachers' perceptions of CPD in their context in Algeria and England?

- 5- What are the perceived factors that support/ hinder MFL teachers in their contexts in Algeria and England from engaging with CPD?
- 6- What can be learnt about the provision of CPD for MFL teachers in Algeria and England?

There are four key main findings from this study:

1. There is an array of flexibility in CPD forms for MFL teachers in the two research contexts of this study. This research showed that the phenomenon of teacher learning can take place in a variety of settings in both research contexts. There were three main forms of CPD that MFL teachers in Algeria and England reported to engage in, both formally and informally. These are lesson observation, collaborative learning, and self-directed learning. These forms can integrate and intertwine, highlighting the complex nature of CPD. For example, MFL teachers in both research settings spoke about the value they place on formal CPD sessions at their schools and informal discussions with their colleagues. In both settings, most MFL teachers found CPD most powerful when it took place in an informal setting such as carrying out informal peer-observation; or when it was initiated by teachers and included elements of peer and group work such as Lesson Study. MFL teachers' perceptions of CPD blossomed where they worked together collaboratively to achieve a task such as designing lesson plans and this collaboration extended to even creating informal learning communities such as communities of practice for MFL subjects. The findings have also shown that besides the provision of CPD in the two contexts where MFL teachers worked, teachers continue to strive to develop professionally through self-directed learning such as reading books, attending conferences and making research on how to teach MFLs.
2. The findings have offered insight into the different levels of influence that impact on MFL teachers' experiences with CPD. These three levels have been identified from the thesis as: the instruments of the governments such as the Ministry of Education in

Algeria and OFSTED in England and the policies they introduce; the nature of the institutional learning environment where MFL teachers work such as restrictive learning environments and an expansive learning environments; the agency of teachers and their individual dispositions to learning. This research showcased the dynamics that exist between these three different levels in the two contexts explored in Algeria and England. The findings revealed from the study contend that the phenomenon of teachers' CPD and its efficacy is dependent upon the dynamic interrelationship that exists between these three levels of influence.

3. The findings highlight many hurdles towards experiencing effective CPD. Central to these are: the power domination in terms of CPD delivery where MFL teachers in both contexts reported on having limited autonomy in determining their learning and the restrictiveness of the learning environment where MFL teachers work. More key barriers that have been identified from the study which impacted on MFL teachers' engagement with CPD are: time, workload, and financial barriers. In Algeria, financial barriers have been identified as the low salary MFL teachers receive from the state, in contrast to MFL teachers in England, who referred financial barriers to low funding. Other barriers to CPD were more prominent in Algeria than in England. These were identified in relation to lack of resources and disadvantageous working conditions which fostered a culture of suspicion and even apathy to CPD.
4. Teachers are key agents for the efficiency and efficacy of any education system and their CPD is vital for ensuring good quality education (Adagiri 2014). Yet, despite the proven benefits of CPD in improving the quality of teaching and equipping teachers with the necessary skills they need (Darling-Hammond 2005), the findings of this study revealed that access to effective CPD in Algeria that would impact positively on MFL teachers' practice and pupils' academic achievements has yet not been achieved for this sample. MFL teachers work in a system that makes them increasingly targets of accountability reforms such as the Second-Generation Program (SGP) introduced in 2016. In England, the findings revealed that teachers' CPD became driven by a performativity culture that made MFL teachers subject to policy reforms that often

narrowly define ‘teacher quality’ around performative terms (Smith and Holloway 2020). The performativity culture in English schools became pervasive with an increase in government control and accountability systems such as OFSTED’s new specifications for GCSE and this has limited teacher learning experiences and engagement with CPD. Although such a climate was much more prominent in England than it was found to be in Algeria, the situation of MFL teachers in Algeria did show some resemblance to the trend in England where CPD has become instrumental, reduced to learning a set of skills, and directed to meet governmental demands.

3. Contribution of this research

This study provides an important contribution to the body of knowledge on the subject of teacher CPD. While the phenomenon of CPD has been subject to abundant study in the field of teacher education, the two research contexts explored in the study have not been examined together in previous empirical comparative studies on CPD. The literature review in this thesis exposes a paucity of research on CPD in the context of Algeria; where the perspective of the individual teacher, essentially the agent who is going to implement such policies in practice, has been overlooked. This study therefore addresses gaps in the literature by exploring the perceptions of two samples of MFL teachers from Algeria and England and offers an in-depth understanding of the different factors that influence MFL teachers’ learning experiences. Giving a voice to MFL teachers to express their perceptions about CPD can help raise institutional awareness of areas for improvement in current CPD provision in Algeria and England. I will disseminate the findings of this study with MFL teachers and use my understanding and knowledge gained from this research to help them in starting informal learning communities and engage more in self-directed learning.

The major contributions of this thesis include the CPD model presented in the next section of this chapter (see section 4. research recommendations and implications). I have designed the CPD model based on the findings revealed from the study which highlighted the need to move away from a model of CPD that is transmissive,

delivered within a top-down approach, and one where teachers are placed in a passive role as recipients of knowledge. On the contrary, teachers develop (actively) in an environment where they are involved in decisions concerning their learning (Day 2017). With that said, a shift is needed towards a model of CPD that recognises teacher agency and the centrality of their involvement in planning CPD activities. The model of CPD presents suggestions for policymakers, CPD coordinators, school leaders and MFL teachers within secondary schools. The CPD model has the potential to meet the needs of MFL teachers and improve the quality of CPD provision. It is significant because the suggestions it offers can be used to create learning environments for MFL teachers that are expansive where they have access to effective opportunities of formal CPD and create an impetus for teachers to create informal opportunities for learning between colleagues.

As an MFL teacher myself, at the time when I was teaching EFL in Algeria (2015-16), the formal provision of CPD from the state could be best described as ad hoc and inconsistent. Before embarking on my PhD studies, I discussed with other MFL teachers the obstacles they faced in their practice. I found out about the numerous challenges MFL teachers face daily in their career with little support they receive from the state and their inspectors/ CPD coordinators. I am mostly contributing in my personal capacity as I have been an MFL teacher in both countries. I wanted to play a role in inspiring for changes to the current CPD provision for MFL teachers. This thesis is seminal in illuminating the present situation of CPD for MFL teachers in two research contexts in Algeria and England. The findings from this study can therefore be of value in informing future practice in teacher education programmes.

4. Research recommendations and implications

MFL teachers' experiences with CPD in this study have been found to be influenced in the two contexts by different factors at the governmental level, the institutional level, as well as the individual level. The research recommendations of this study focus on

presenting a model for CPD that details crucial elements that ought to be considered when planning CPD activities for MFL teachers. The aim of this model is to not only promote effective formal CPD opportunities for MFL teachers but also to develop a culture of an expansive learning environment where informal CPD is encouraged, facilitated, and supported. It is intended that this study would be beneficial for policy makers and CPD coordinators in terms of informing and improving the future delivery of CPD for MFL teachers.

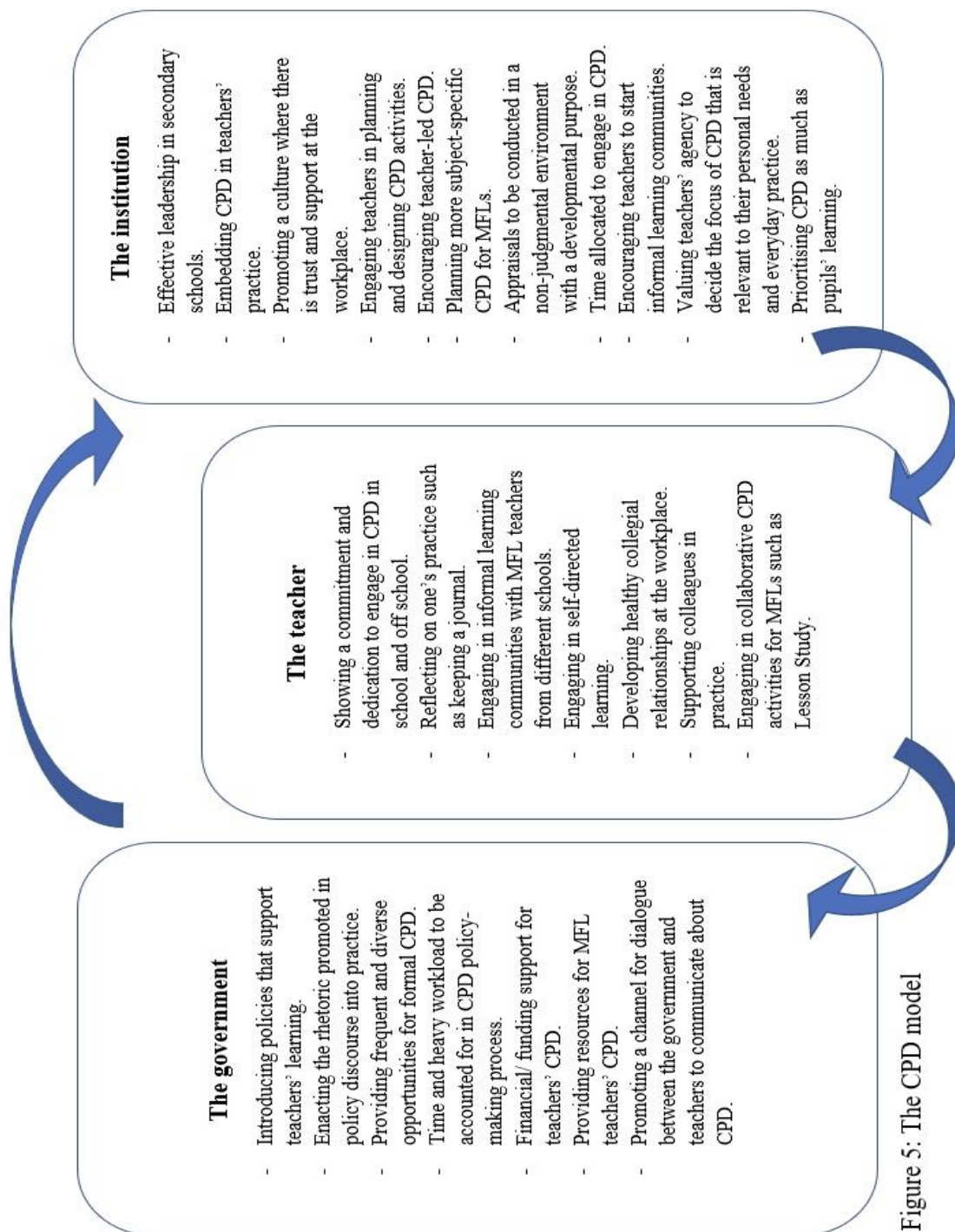


Figure 5: The CPD model

The diagram represents the CPD model suggested in this thesis and illustrates the three levels of influence that have, for the sample of this study, an impact over MFL teachers' experiences with CPD. There are key elements that I suggest in this model

which can support MFL teachers' CPD. The three boxes in the diagram refers to the government, the institution, and the teacher. The arrows reflect the dynamic process of the complex relationship that exists between them in relation to CPD. For instance, the policies introduced at the governmental level influence MFL teachers' experiences with CPD at the institutional level. And while governmental policies have an influence over the institutions where MFL teachers work, actors at this level such as school leaders and CPD coordinators have individual agency over how they interpret and mediate these policies into their schools. School leadership also influences the nature of the institutional learning environments. However, MFL teachers exert their agency over how they interact with these policies in practice, and their individual dispositions to learning can affect how they engage in CPD opportunities that are available to them.

The CPD model presented in this chapter includes some important messages to policy makers, school leaders, and MFL teachers that can inspire for positive changes - hopefully a move from rhetoric to lived experience. What follows is a detailed account on how these recommendations can be applied in practice by actors at the three levels of influence with examples from the findings revealed from the study.

4.1 At the governmental level

From the literature review, Algeria and England have shown a propensity to introduce several political reforms that aimed to improve the quality of education (Gherzouli 2019; GOV.UK 2014). Nevertheless, while in Algerian policy documents, there is a repetitive reference to high quality of teacher education programmes, the findings revealed from the study showed that not much of this rhetoric has been perceived to be seen in practice. For example, the Official Gazette of the Republic of Algeria (2015) discusses '...an effective and constructive design of training program has been prepared for a smooth running of the program and to guarantee its success' (p. 42). Still, MFL teachers in the study perceived their training poorly, reflecting the

ineffectiveness of this training programme design. In England, the findings pointed out that the new GCSE specifications and grading system introduced by OFSTED underpins a highly detailed accountability system that has made teachers become more focused on assessment rather than pedagogy of learning, rendering the profession of teaching to focus on a narrow view of progress (Smith 2015). The CPD model proposed in this study recommends:

- Adjustments to take place in the current policy direction of CPD in the two research contexts, so that more emphasis is put on MFL teachers' CPD. There is a need for actors at the governmental level to assess the usefulness of policies that govern teachers' CPD as there is so much focus paid to increasing pupils' academic achievements rather than mastery of the MFLs taught.
- The need to expand on the current provision of formal CPD opportunities for MFL teachers in both research contexts, by arranging periodical CPD events with MFLs' subject experts to help MFL teachers acquire the latest skills and techniques needed to teach foreign languages.
- The need for financial assistance to support MFL teachers' engagement in CPD outside the provision of the state such as opportunities for self-directed learning. For instance, in Algeria, a budget can be allocated at schools where teachers work so that they can use it in case there is an opportunity for CPD outside their schools.
- Encouraging the development of more communication channels between actors at the governmental level (policymakers) and teachers where teachers' views and voices about their CPD are recognized and heard. For example, one of the ways this can be achieved is by getting MFL teachers involved as active participants in the formulation of educational policies so that effective changes can take place. This practice will create a safe space between the teaching workforce and policymakers to balance any conflict of interests that exist between them and fulfil the needs of both actors (Wan 2011). Achieving this would give recognition to the significance of teacher agency in the decision-making process of CPD content.

It is hoped that applying the above-mentioned suggestions of the CPD model at the governmental level would enable a common ground of understanding between actors at the governmental level and teachers as teachers would feel trusted, creative, and not restricted to follow prescribed reforms or regulations.

4.2 At the institutional level

The findings of the study indicate that the delivery of CPD in the two contexts under scrutiny is often directed to address the needs of the institution instead of those of MFL teachers. For instance, the findings from England showed that the schools that took part in the study showed a tendency to plan the content of CPD that aligns with the school's developmental plan, overlooking the professional needs of MFL teachers. Another example that was evident in both contexts relates to the conduct of appraisals where participants raised concerns that such practice was characterised to be judgemental and resulted in MFL teachers having limited and negative learning experiences. The CPD model proposed in this study recommends:

- Schools to review their CPD policy about their appraisal systems, mainly how to change the practice, which is currently geared towards accountability and performativity. One of the ways to achieve this has been implemented at the private school in the sample of England. The school uses surveys to review and seek feedback from teachers on how they can improve their institutional practice. This would give teachers a voice to share their feedback and encourage schools to make ongoing improvement in their practice. Giving space to teachers to give feedback on their school's practice may shift the practice of appraisals, for example, towards encouraging MFL teachers to engage in collegial learning and use it to enhance their teaching and practice.
- Schools to promote leadership that has positive influence in building an expansive learning environment for MFL teachers where CPD is not only practiced formally, but

also encouraged to be pursued in informal learning opportunities with colleagues or individually.

- Schools to encourage and nurture the development of informal learning communities between teachers. For instance, in England, MFL teachers started informal learning communities with their colleagues of MFLs from other schools which brought positive experiences of sharing best practices of teaching MFLs.
- Schools to assess the extent to which they are providing expansive learning environments for their teachers and encourage their staff to engage in collaborative learning initiatives that support teacher learning and potentially impact on developing positive dispositions to learning. For example, in Algeria, the inspector of English who took part in the study reported on a positive experience of grouping MFL teachers from one school to engage in an informal collaborative initiative to organize and plan MFL CPD sessions for other colleagues in rural areas who do not have regular access to CPD.
- Time and heavy workload to be considered when planning CPD. The model of CPD recommends allocating time for MFL teachers to engage in learning activities which they value, such as collaborative CPD activities. For example, MFL teachers' responses in the study from both contexts highlighted the great importance teachers gave towards reducing workload and allotting time to CPD so that they can engage in more learning opportunities. There is, therefore, a need for careful arrangement for teachers' CPD in teachers' timetables where opportunities for CPD are balanced with teachers' teaching workload. In that way, teachers would feel that their needs are being addressed and that they are supported within their schools.
- Attention to be paid to the profile of school leaders who are involved in CPD. For instance, the findings from the four schools in London highlighted the impact of school leaders and CPD coordinators' learning dispositions in impacting on the perceived quality of CPD provision MFL teachers received at the schools where they

work. The CPD model calls for a need for school leaders and CPD coordinators to be facilitators who genuinely show commitment to teachers' CPD.

- School leaders and CPD coordinators to acknowledge the significant role of teachers in the design of CPD and recognize their agency as an essential element for CPD effectiveness. For instance, giving a chance for teachers to articulate their specific learning needs and access support systems and relevant knowledge (McNamara, Murray, and Jones 2014). The focus of the CPD session also needs to be aligned with them being actively engaged in designing the content of CPD such as the inspector or the CPD coordinator actively selecting MFL teachers that would work collaboratively on a suitable topic for a formal CPD session at the school, and then contributing to the delivery of the session through a teacher-led approach. Therefore, in order to create an expansive learning environment, school leaders must create a climate that promotes the importance of teachers being engaged in more active forms of learning with a clear link to teachers' subject and classroom practice.
- Content of formal CPD to include activities that are contextualized and relevant to teachers' subject MFLs, and also day-to-day practice. For example, in the Algerian context, MFL teachers reported on the necessity for CPD to have a connection to their daily struggles in teaching, given the harsh conditions where they find themselves teaching, such as overcrowded classes that can reach up to 45 pupils.
- The promotion of healthy relationships at the workplace in order to facilitate positive and open collegial professional learning amongst teachers. For instance, the head of MFL departments can motivate MFL teachers to engage in different forms of CPD such as peer observation between experienced and novice teachers or creating informal learning opportunities with MFL colleagues from other schools in the borough. School leaders can also motivate teachers from different departments to coordinate, plan, and engage in CPD activities which would promote learning with teachers teaching different subjects as this would foster an expansive learning environment at the

schools where they work. For instance, encouraging teachers to engage in the practice of Lesson Study with other teachers to create a space to exchange learning across a variety of subjects.

4.3 At the individual level

There are significant factors at the individual level that further influence teachers' engagement with their learning such as teacher agency and individual dispositions to learning (Atwal 2013). The argument I am putting forward in relation to the CPD model of the thesis is that positive changes in CPD practices are unlikely to occur if suggestions in the model are implemented by actors like school leaders and CPD coordinators, but teachers themselves show no willingness and commitment to engage in CPD. With that said, the CPD model calls for:

- The need for MFL teachers to take the opportunities they have on offer and use the resources they have available to create more CPD opportunities inside and outside the workplace. For instance, MFL teachers from the Algerian sample did not have access to regular CPD opportunities. Therefore, most participants attempted to go about the different challenges they face in their contexts to create alternative ways to support their professional development, such as introducing new initiatives for learning between colleagues at the schools where they work.
- The need to develop healthy collegial relationships with colleagues as the lack of support from leadership often experienced at the workplace can make teachers feel isolated resulting in their alienation from the rest of the staff. The CPD model calls teachers to create informal learning communities that would provide support to colleagues at the schools where they work and across different schools in the area.
- To engage in collaborative activities such as Lesson study are highly recommended in the model where MFL teachers work together to address a specific area for development.

5. Directions for future research

The study has contributed to current discourses around CPD with a model that can help create expansive learning environments for MFL teachers at the schools where they work and facilitate greater opportunities for informal learning between teachers. The implementation of the CPD model can lead to the building of trust, support, and constructive feedback between colleagues to reflect on teaching MFLs and help improve practice. The next section aims to demonstrate how I intend to disseminate the findings of my research and suggest new areas for future research.

5.1 Dissemination of my findings

I intend to disseminate the findings of my research and the recommendations in terms of the CPD model to the Ministry of Education officers in Algeria who, during each annual renewal meeting of my doctoral scholarship, very often discussed the implications of my research in the Algerian context. The findings may help create an incentive for policymakers at the Ministry of Education to reflect on the provision of CPD for MFL teachers and how it can be improved. Additionally, I intend to look into opportunities for research publications to showcase my findings through relevant journals such as *Research in Teacher Education (RiTE)* and *Professional Development in Education*. Moreover, I intend to take part in conferences in Algeria and hopefully worldwide to communicate my findings and suggestions. Finally, I will also send MFL teachers and CPD coordinators who took part in the study a report summarising the main findings of my research in return for their time and valuable participation in the study.

5.2 Directions for future research

While this is the first comparative study to be carried out between Algeria and England about MFL teachers' CPD, the study has only focused on gaining an in-depth understanding of CPD experiences from the lenses of MFL teachers. A follow-up

study could allow a further exploration of the inter-relationship that exist between the three levels of influence by carrying out a qualitative research study with policymakers, school leaders, and MFL teachers. The research methods which could be used for this research are semi-structured interviews and focus groups with all these actors. While the in-depth interviews would help provide a wider understanding of CPD provision from the perspectives of all three levels of influence over CPD, focus groups could be used to address the gap in communication that exist between policymakers at the macro level, school leaders at the meso-level and MFL teachers at the micro level. There is also an opportunity in the future to reflect on the findings of this study and conduct research that examines the effectiveness of the CPD model presented in section 4 of this chapter. Such a study would attempt to implement the recommendations presented in the CPD model across a cluster of schools in action research. This is however dependent on the extent to which school leaders would be receptive to the suggestions the CPD model presents and would be willing to take part in an action research project.

6. Limitations of the study

Upon completion of the research and in the last stages of writing the thesis, it is possible to evaluate the process of the study and the limitations that inevitably took place. This section aims to give an overview of the limitations that were inherent to the study and how I addressed them for the conduct of this research.

The study has methodological limitations due to its small-scale approach which limits its generalisability to the wider teaching workforce. Nevertheless, it provides localised insights into the experiences of MFL teachers with CPD in Algeria and England. The recruitment of participants was also another limitation of the study. I was hoping for headteachers to also take part in the study. However, the management of schools in both countries requires a lot of time and effort from headteachers throughout the day. This made it difficult for me to approach headteachers to carry out interviews. Therefore, only MFL teachers and CPD coordinators participated in this study.

Moreover, other research methods could have been more helpful in providing in-depth evidence about MFL teachers' perceptions of CPD. For instance, focus groups would have allowed the gathering of richer data about MFL teachers' engagement with CPD as they provide the participants with a platform to discuss and share their experiences of CPD from diverse perspectives on the topic. Nevertheless, despite my initial plan to use focus group discussions as a means of collecting data, it was not feasible due to the reluctance of the participants to speak in front of their colleagues in a group setting. Therefore, an alternative data collection method had to be considered.

Distance, time and funding constraints were also limiting factors especially as I was, for the period of my studies, based in London and required to travel back to Algeria for research. The governmental funding for this research covers only one trip per year, making it difficult to plan additional visits for data collection purposes. The busy timetable of MFL teachers in both countries and my full-time schedule as a PhD student at the University of East London placed challenges to have prolonged engagement with the participants in the two research settings.

Another limitation that I experienced in this study relates to the dynamic area of CPD which is constantly evolving, making it challenging to paint a full image of the phenomenon with all the contestation and critiques surrounding CPD. The nature and complexity of comparative research was overwhelming, mainly when writing about the English education system, a context that I am now relatively familiar with. The tensions that exist between the macro- meso-micro levels and how they interweave in ways that construct teachers' perceptions of their CPD is a complex amalgam of layers. Therefore, constant revision to the literature was particularly necessary as well as being selective on what to include and exclude to make all the chapters come together and align with the overall argument of the thesis.

References

Acker, S. (2001). 'In/Out/Side: Positioning the Researcher in Feminist Qualitative Research (1)', *Resources for Feminist Research*, 28(3–4), pp. 153–174. Available at: <https://go.gale.com/ps/i.do?p=AONE&sw=w&issn=07078412&v=2.1&it=r&id=GAL E%7CA81220836&sid=googleScholar&linkaccess=abs> [Accessed: 23 June 2020].

Adagiri, S. (2014). *A Comparative Study of Teachers' Continuing Professional Development (CPD) In Nigeria and England: A Study of Primary Schools in Abuja and Portsmouth*. Ph.D. University of Portsmouth.

Adcroft, Andy & Willis, Robert (2006). *Post-modernism, deprofessionalisation and commodification: the outcomes of performance measurement in higher education*. *Journal of Finance and Management in Public Services*, 6 (1). pp. 43-56.

Admiraal, W. & Wubbels, T. (2005). Multiple voices, multiple realities, what truth? Student teachers' learning to reflect in different paradigms. *Teachers and teaching*, 11(3), pp.315-329.

AfricaNews (2022). *Algeria invests in the English language*, *Africanews*. Available at: <https://www.africanews.com/2022/10/07/algeria-invests-in-the-english-language/#:~:text=The%20Algerian%20government%20is%20investing,Many%20parents%20welcome%20this%20change>. [Accessed: November 5, 2022].

Ahmed, E., Nordin, Z., Shah, S. & Channa, M. (2018). Peer Observation: A Professional Learning Tool for English Language Teachers in an EFL Institute. *World Journal of Education*, 8(2), p.73.

Ait Amar Meziane, O. & Maarfia, N. (2021). Pratiques enseignantes en contexte universitaire algérien: entre le prescrit et la professionnalisation de l'agir professoral, *Journal of Faslo el-khitab*, 10(3), pp, 383- 396.

Åkerlind, G., S. (2005) 'Variation and commonality in phenomenographic research methods', *Higher Education Research & Development*, 24(4), pp. 321–334. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1080/07294360500284672>. [Accessed: 28 June 2022].

Akiba, M. (2017). Editor's Introduction: Understanding Cross-National Differences in Globalized Teacher Reforms. *Educational Researcher*, 46(4), pp.153-168.

Alam, J., Aamir, S. & Shahzad, S. (2020). Continuous Professional Development of Secondary School Teachers through Peer Observation: Implications for Policy & Practice. *Research Journal of Social Sciences and Economics Review (RJSSER)*, 1(1), pp.56-75.

Alastair D. Mcphee & Walter M. Humes (1998). Teacher education and teacher development: a comparative study, *Teacher Development*, 2(2), pp. 165-178.

Alexander, R., J. (2009). Towards a comparative pedagogy. In: Cowen, R. & Kazamias, A. M. (ed) *International Handbook of Comparative Education*, pp 923-942, Springer.

Alexiadou, N. (2016). Equality and education policy in the European Union. An example from the case of Roma. In: Gale T and Gulson K (eds) *Policy and Inequality in Education*. Forthcoming. Springer.

Algeria Encyclopedia (2018). Algeria. [online]. available at: <https://www.encyclopedia.com/places/africa/algerian-political-geography/algeria>. [Accessed: 5th November 2020].

Allison, S. (2014). *Perfect Teacher-Led CPD*. New York: Crown House Publishing.

Al-Makhamreh, S., S., & Lewando-Hundt, G. (2008). Researching “at home” as an insider/outsider: Gender and culture in an ethnographic study of social work practice in an Arab society. *Qualitative Social Work*, 7, 9–23.

Alsalm, M. (2016). *A comparison case study of teachers' perceptions of technology and multimodality in England and Kuwait*. PhD thesis, Manchester Metropolitan University.

Alshaikhi, H. (2018). *English Language Teacher Professional Development in Saudi Arabia: Teachers' Perceptions*. PhD thesis, The University of Exeter.

Alshandudi, H. (2017). *Teachers' self-perceptions of their professional learning in the context of recent educational reforms in Oman*, PhD thesis, University of Reading.

Alshenqeeti, H. (2014). Interviewing as a Data Collection Method: A Critical Review. *English Linguistics Research* 3, 39. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.5430/elr.v3n1p39> [Accessed: 20 June 2020].

Altun, T. (2011). INSET (In-Service Education and Training) and Professional Development of Teachers: A Comparison of British and Turkish Cases. *US-China Education Review A*, 6, pp. 846-858.

Andreassen, R. & Myong, L. (2017). Race, Gender, and Researcher Positionality Analysed Through Memory Work. *Nordic Journal of Migration Research*, 7(2), pp.97-104.

Andrews, J. (2020). Understanding school revenue expenditure | Part 5: Expenditure on teaching assistants, *Education Policy Institute*. Available at: <https://epi.org.uk/publications-and-research/understanding-school-revenue-expenditure-part-5-expenditure-on-teaching-assistants/> [Accessed: 24 June 2020].

Anyan, F., (2013). The influence of power shifts in data collection and analysis stages: a focus on qualitative research interview. *Qualitative Report*, 18, p.36.

Aouali, N. (2021). Formation des enseignants de FLE en Algérie: entre apport universitaire et réalité du terrain. *The Cradle of Languages* 3, م هطللغات (4), pp.57-65.

Appel, M. (2019). Performativity and the demise of the teaching profession: the need for rebalancing in Australia, *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 48(3), pp. 301-315.

Arain, M., Campbell, M., J. Cooper, C., L & Lancaster, G., A. (2010) 'What is a pilot or feasibility study? A review of current practice and editorial policy', *BMC medical research methodology*, 10, p. 67. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2288-10-67>.

Armour, K., Quennerstedt, M., Chambers, F., & Makopoulou, K., (2015). What is 'effective' CPD for contemporary physical education teachers? A Deweyan framework. *Sport, Education and Society*, 22(7), pp.799-811.

Atkins, L., & Flint, K. (2015). Nothing changes: perceptions of vocational education in England. *International Journal of Training Research*, 13(1), pp.35-48.

Atkinson, R. & Flint, J. (2001). Accessing Hidden and Hard-to-Reach Populations: Snowball Research Strategies. *Social Research Update*, 33.

Atwal, K., (2013). Theories of workplace learning in relation to teacher professional learning in UK primary schools. *Research in Teacher Education*, 3(2), pp.22-27.

Atwal, K., (2016). *Developing an understanding of the factors that influence teacher engagement in action research and professional learning activities in two English primary schools*. PhD thesis. University of East London.

Austin, Z. & Sutton, J., (2014). Qualitative Research: Getting Started. *The Canadian Journal of Hospital Pharmacy*, 67(6).

Avalos, B. (2000). Policies for teacher education in developing countries, *International Journal of Educational Research*, 33(5), pp. 457-474.

Bacher, A. (2013). *Investigating teachers' attitudes toward the adequacy of teacher training programs and CBA - related instructional materials: a case study of the Algerian intermediate school teachers of English in the region of Biskra*. PhD thesis, the University of Biskra. Available at: http://thesis.univ-biskra.dz/6/1/investigating_teachers_attitude_toward_adequacy_of_teacher.pdf [Accessed: 14th October 2019].

Bada, S.O. (2015). Constructivism Learning Theory: A Paradigm for Teaching and Learning, *IOSR Journal of Research & Method in Education*, 5(6), pp. 66-70.

Ball, S.J., 2021. *The education debate*. Policy Press.

Bradley, M., D. (1986). 'Economics', *The ANNALS of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 484(1), pp. 185–186. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1177/0002716286484001044>. [Accessed: 9 May 2019].

Bahari, S. F. (2010). "Qualitative versus quantitative research strategies: Contrasting epistemological and ontological assumptions," *Jurnal Teknologi*, 52, pp. 17–28. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.11113/jt.v52.134>. [Accessed on: 13th August 2019].

Baiche, A. (2009). *Innovation and Change in Language Education: A Critical Reflection on the Teaching and Learning of EFL in Secondary Education in Algeria*. PhD thesis, University of Oran.

Bainbridge, A. (2011) Beginning teaching: the theory/practice divide. *Cliopsy*, 6. pp.25-32.

Ball, S. (2016). Neoliberal education? Confronting the slouching beast, *Policy Futures in Education*, vol 14 (8), pp. 1046-1059. Available at: <https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/full/10.1177/1478210316664259> [Accessed 10 January 2020].

Ball, S. J. (1998). Performativity and Fragmentation in postmodern Schooling', in *John Carter*, ed., 'Postmodernity and the Fragmentation of Welfare' , Routledge, London , pp. 187—203.

Ball, S. J. (2003). The teacher's soul and the terrors of performativity, *Journal of Education Policy*, 18(2), pp. 215-228.

Ball, S.J., Maguire, M. & Braun, A. (2011). How schools do policy: Policy enactments in secondary schools. Routledge.

Ball, S.J., Maguire, M., Braun, A. & Hoskins, K. (2011). Policy actors: Doing policy work in schools. *Discourse: Studies in the cultural politics of education*, 32(4), pp.625-639.

Ball, S.J., Maguire, M., Braun, A. & Hoskins, K., (2011). Policy subjects and policy actors in schools: Some necessary but insufficient analyses. *Discourse: studies in the cultural politics of education*, 32(4), pp.611-624.

Banja, K. M. & Mulenga, I. M. (2019). *Teacher Education at the University of Zambia and Teacher Quality with Specific Reference to English Language*. *Makerere Journal of Higher Education*, 10 (2), 171-190.

Barnard R 2004. *A Qualitative Study of Teachers' Perceptions of Staff Development in Three Public North east Tennessee Elementary School Districts*: PhD Thesis, Unpublished. Johnson City: East Tennessee State University.

Barone, T., Berliner, D. C., Blanchard, J., Casanova, U., & McGowan, T. (1996). *A future for teacher education*. In J. Siluka (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teacher education* (2nd edition) (pp. 1108–1149). New York: Macmillan.

Barrow, M. (2013). *Types of schools in Britain*. The Woodlands Resources. Available at: <http://projectbritain.com/education/schools.html> [Accessed: November 8, 2022].

Bartleton, L. (2018). Teachers' Perceptions of the Impact of Continuing Professional Development on Their Professional Practice in a Further Education College in the West Midlands. *the British Education Studies Association*, 9(2), pp. 82-109.

Bartlett, S. (1998). Teacher perceptions of the purposes of staff appraisal: a response to Kyriacou. *Teacher Development*, 2(3), pp.479-491.

Barton, L., Barrett, E., Whitty, G., Miles, S. & Furlong, J. (1994). Teacher education and teacher professionalism in England: Some emerging issues. *British journal of sociology of education*, 15(4), pp.529-543.

Batiche, F. (2020). *Education in Algeria: An Inherited Hybrid System from French Colonialism* [online] Fanack.com. Available at: <https://fanack.com/education-in-the-middle-east-and-north-africa/algeria-inherited-hybrid-education-system/> [Accessed 1 November 2020].

Beauchamp, G., Clarke, L., Hulme, M. & Murray, J. (2015). Teacher education in the United Kingdom post devolution: Convergences and divergences. *Oxford Review of Education*, 41(2), pp.154-170.

Beck, A. & Adams, P. (2020). The Donaldson Report, partnership and teacher education, *Teacher Preparation in Scotland*. Available at: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/345331486_The_Donaldson_Report_Partnership_and_Teacher_Education [Accessed: 9 November 2019].

Bekhouche, R. (2020). *Les Nouveaux enseignants formés à L'ENS entre profils de formation et difficultés du terrain*, MA dissertation, University of Oum El Bouaghi.

Bellalem, F. (2008). *An Exploration of Foreign Language Teachers' Beliefs about Curriculum Innovation in Algeria: A Socio-Political Perspective*. PhD thesis, King' College London.

Bellalem, F. (2012). Political history of foreign language teaching in Algeria (pp. 1-12). *Working papers*.

Bellalem, F. (2012). *Political history of foreign language teaching in Algeria* (pp. 1-12). Working Papers.

Bellalem, F. (2014). "Foreign Language Teachers' Beliefs about School in Algeria within a Context of Curriculum Reforms", *International Journal of Innovation and Scientific Research*, 7(2), pp. 102-110.

Belle, N. (2019). *Education witnesses dramatic changes over the past few decades*. [online] Khaleej Times. Available at: <<https://www.khaleejtimes.com/article/education-witnesses-dramatic-changes-over-the-past-few-decades>> [Accessed 21 February 2022].

Belmihoub, K. (2018). English in a multilingual Algeria. *World Englishes*, 37(2), pp.207-227.

Benadla, L. (2012). The Competency Based Language Teaching in the Algerian Middle School: From EFL Acquisition Planning to its Practical Teaching/Learning. *Arab World English Journal*, 3 (4), pp. 144 -151.

Benrabah, M. (2007a). Language-in-Education Planning in Algeria: Historical Development and Current Issues. *Language Policy* 6 (2): 225–252.

Benrabah, M. (2013). *Language Conflict in Algeria: From Colonialism to Post-Independence*. Bristol, United Kingdom: Channel View Publications. Available at <https://ebookcentral.proquest.com/lib/northampton/reader.action?docID=1192819> [Accessed: 28 November 2021]

- Benson, S. (2009). A Review of “Observation Techniques: Structured to Unstructured”. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 103(1), pp.63-64.
- Bensouiah, A. (2018). *HE system under pressure as student numbers Mount*, *University World News*. The Global Window on Higher Education. Available at: <https://www.universityworldnews.com/post.php?story=20180906124649727> (Accessed: November 10, 2022).
- Benzerroug, S. (2017). Challenges Facing the Algerian Educational System in Teaching English as a Foreign Language, *MÉTHODAL OpenLab*, Available at: <https://methodal.net/Challenges-Facing-the-Algerian-Educational-System-in-Teaching-English-as-a-233> [Accessed: 15 April 2021].
- Beoku-Betts, J. (1994). When black is not enough: Doing field research among Gullah women. *NWSA Journal*, 6, pp. 413–433.
- Berger, A.E. (ed). (2002). *Algeria in others' languages*. Cornell University Press.
- Berger, R. (2015). Now I see it, now I don't: Researcher's position and reflexivity in qualitative research. *Qualitative Research Journal*, 15, 219–234.
- Bishop, K. & Denleg, P. (2006). “Science Learning Centres and governmental policy for continuing professional development (CPD) in England,” *Journal of In-Service Education*, 32(1), pp. 85–102. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1080/13674580500479836>. [Accessed: 17th June 2018].
- Blake, H. (2010). English Baccalaureate to combat drop in academic GCSEs: Telegraph Media Group Limited.
- Bloomberg, L. & Volpe, M. (2012). *Completing your qualitative dissertation: A Roadmap from Beginning to End*. Thousand Oaks, Calif.: SAGE Publications.
- Bogdan, R., & Biklen, S. K. (1982). *Qualitative Research for Education: An introduction to theories and methods*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc.
- Bolitho, R. (2003). Training and applied linguistics. *The Language Teacher* 23, 4–7.

- Borg, S. (Ed.). (2015). *Professional development for English language teachers: Perspectives from higher education in Turkey*. Ankara: British Council.
- Borko, H. (2004). Professional development and teacher learning: Mapping the terrain. *Educational researcher*, 33(8), pp.3-15.
- Borrowman, M, L. (1975). Comparative Education in Teacher Education Programs, *Comparative Education Review*, 19(3), pp. 354-362.
- Bottery M. and Wright N. (2000) 'Teachers and the State: Towards a directed profession'. London: Routledge.
- Boudebba-Baala, A. B. (2012). *L'impact des contextes sociolinguistique et scolaire sur l'enseignement/apprentissage du français dans le Souf à travers l'analyse des représentations comme outil de description*. PhD thesis. Franche-Comté University, France. Available at: <https://tel.archives-ouvertes.fr/tel-00942722> [Accessed: 23 November 2022].
- Boudersa, N. (2016). The Importance of Teachers' Training Programs and Professional Development in the Algerian Educational Context: Toward Informed and Effective Teaching Practices. *Revue en ligne éditée par l'Ecole Normale Supérieure d'Oran*, (1).
- Boudouaia, A. (2021). English as a foreign language teachers' perspective on new curriculum reform at Algerian middle schools. *International Journal of Curriculum and Instruction*, 13(2), pp. 1193-1208.
- Boukadi, S. (2013). Teachers' Perceptions about the Future of English Language Teaching and Learning in Tunisia after the 2011 Revolution, PhD thesis, University of Exeter, UK, available at: <https://ore.exeter.ac.uk/repository/handle/10871/14688> [Accessed: 19 November 2020].
- Bowen, G. (2009). Document Analysis as a Qualitative Research Method. *Qualitative Research Journal*, 9 (2), pp. 27-40.
- Bracey, P., Jackson, D. & Gove-Humphries, A. (2017). Diversity in history education, *Debates in History Teaching*, pp.202-212.

Braun, V., & Clark, V. (2006). Using Thematic Analysis in Psychology, *Qualitative Research in Psychology* 3(2), pp.77–101.

Braun, V., & Clark, V., Hayfield, N., Terry, G. (2019). Thematic Analysis. In: Liamputtong P. (eds) *Handbook of Research Methods in Health Social Sciences*. Spring, Singapore.

Bray, M. & Manzon, M. (2005). Comparative Education and Teacher Education in Singapore and Hong Kong: Comparisons over Time as well as Place. *Comparative Education Bulletin*, pp.13-28.

Bredo, E. (2009). Getting over the methodology wars. *Educational Researcher*, 38(6), pp. 441-448.

Bridges, D. (1999). Educational Research: pursuit of truth or flight into fancy?. *British Educational Research Journal*, 25(5), pp.597-616.

Briggs, A., R., J., Coleman, M., & Morrison, M. (2012). *Research methods in educational leadership and management*. London, Sage.

British Educational Research Association (BERA) (2018). *Ethical guidelines for educational research*. (4th eds). Available at: <https://www.bera.ac.uk/researchers-resources/publications/ethical-guidelines-for-educational-research-2018> [Accessed: 30 November 2019].

Brooks, M. (2016). *By Book and School: The Politics of Educational Reform in France and Algeria during the Early Third Republic*, MA dissertation, University of Central Florida, USA, available at: <https://stars.library.ucf.edu/etd/4909/> [Accessed: 22 September 2021].

Brooks, V., Barker, S., and Swatton, P. (1997). Quid Pro Quo? Initial Teacher Education in Secondary Schools. *British Educational Research Journal*, 23 (2), pp. 163.

Brown, R., B. (2006). *Doing Your Dissertation in Business and Management: The Reality of Research and Writing*. Sage Publications.

Brown, S., Edmonds, S. & Lee, B. (2001) Continuing Professional Development: LEA and school support for teachers, LGA Education Research Programme, Report 23. Slough: NFER.

Brown, T., & McNamara, O. (2001). British research into initial and continuing professional development of teachers. In M. Askew & M. Brown (Eds.), *Teaching and learning: Primary numeracy, practice and effectiveness* (pp. 50–56). Southwell: British Educational Research Association.

Brown, T., Rowley, H. and Smith, K. (2015). *The beginnings of school led teacher training: New challenges for university teacher education*. Other. Manchester Metropolitan University. Available at: <https://e-space.mmu.ac.uk/602385/> [Accessed: 23 January 2021].

Brügelmann H. (2015). Evidence-Based Pedagogy?, *Pädagogik*, 67(10), pp.46– 51.

Bryman, A. (1988). *Quantity and quality in social research*. London, UK: Routledge.

Bryman, A. (2008). *Social Research Methods* (3rd ed.). New York: Oxford University Press.

Bryman, A. 2004. *Social Research Methods*. Second Edition. London: Oxford University Press.

Bubb, S. & Earley, P. (2007) *Leading & Managing Continuing Professional Development*. 2nd edn. London: SAGE Publications.

Building subject-specific CPD opportunities, (2020). *Impact.chartered.college*. Available at: <https://impact.chartered.college/article/building-subject-specific-cpd-opportunities/> [Accessed: 20 April 2020].

Burnell, I. (2013). *Investigating the transition from FE to HE: what are the lived experiences and perspectives of non-traditional learners?* PhD thesis, University of Sheffield.

Burstow, B. (2018). *Effective teacher development*. London, UK: Bloomsbury Academic.

Burstow, B. & Winch, C. (2014). Providing for the professional development of teachers in England: a contemporary account of a government-led intervention. *Professional Development in Education*, 40(2), pp.190-206.

Button, A. (2012). Theories on Teacher Perception and Social Change. Available at: <http://www.the.academia.edu/perrydenbrok/papers/170398htm>. [Accessed on: 2nd February 2018].

Campbell, A. (2003). Teachers' research and professional development in England: Some questions, issues and concerns. *Journal of In-Service Education*, 29(3), pp.375-388.

Carmichael, N. (2017). Recruitment and retention of teachers: Fifth Report of Session 2016–17.

Carmichael, T and Cunningham, N. (2017). Theoretical Data Collection and Data Analysis with Gerunds in a Constructivist Grounded Theory Study. *The Electronic Journal of Business Research Methods*, 15(2), pp. 59-73, Available online at www.ejbrm.com [Accessed : 7 January 2019].

Carter, A. (2015). Carter review of initial teacher training (ITT), London: DfE. Retrieved from: <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/carter-review-of-initial-teacher-training> [Accessed: 18 February 2019].

Cartney, P. (2015). Researching pedagogy in a contested space. *British Journal of Social Work*, 45(4), pp.1137-1154.

Cater, J. (2017). *Whither teacher education and training?*, HEPI Report 95. Available at: <https://www.hepi.ac.uk/2017/04/27/whither-teacher-education-training/> [Accessed: 20 August 2019].

Caulcutt, C. (2022). *Algeria's move to English signals erosion of France's sway*, POLITICO. Available at: <https://www.politico.eu/article/algerias-move-to-english-signals-erosion-of-frances-global-influence/> [Accessed: November 6, 2022].

Caulfield, J. (2019). *How to Do Thematic Analysis | A Step-by-Step Guide & Examples*. [online] Scribbr. Available at: <https://www.scribbr.com/methodology/thematic-analysis/> [Accessed 7 Dec. 2019].

Chacko, E. (2004). 'Positionality and praxis: Fieldwork experiences in rural India.' Singapore. *Journal of Tropical Geography*, 1, pp. 51-63.

Chambers, I. (2013). *Border Dialogues (Routledge Revivals): Journeys in Postmodernity*. London: Routledge. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315849942>. [Accessed: 2nd July 2020].

Chankseliani, M., James Relly, S., & Mayhew, K. (2015). Benefits of Developing Vocational Excellence. A Report to the National Apprenticeship Service of Project 3 (Phase II) of the DUVE suite of projects. Retrieved from University of Oxford website: <https://www.worldskillsuk.org/media/2350/project-3-benefits-04112015.pdf>.

Chankseliani, M., Relly, S., J., & Laczik, A. (2015). Overcoming vocational prejudice: how can skills competitions improve the attractiveness of vocational education and training in the UK?. *British Educational Research Journal*, 42(4), pp.582-599.

Chapman, A., Hadfield, M. & Chapman, C. (2015). Qualitative research in healthcare: an introduction to grounded theory using thematic analysis. *Journal of the Royal College of Physicians of Edinburgh*, 45(3), pp.201-205.

Charmaz, K. (1996). The search for Meanings – Grounded theory. In. J. A. Smith, R. Harré, & L. Van Langenhove (Eds.), *Rethinking Methods in Psychology* (pp. 27-49). London: Sage Publications.

Charmaz, K. (2009). "Grounded Theory." *The SAGE Encyclopaedia of Social Science Research Methods*. 2003. SAGE Publications.

Charmaz, K. (2014). *Constructing grounded theory*. (2nd ed.). London, UK: Sage.

Charmaz, K. (2014). Grounded Theory in Global Perspective. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 20(9), pp. 1074-1084.

Chartered Institute of Ecology and Environment Management (CIEEM) (2019). Continuing Professional Development. Available at: <https://cieem.net/resource/continuing-professional-development-guidance-2019/> [Accessed: 3 May 2019].

Chelli, D. S. (2014). 'Teacher Development: A Necessity in the Algerian Middle School'. Available at: <http://archives.univ-biskra.dz:80/handle/123456789/3573> [Accessed: 2 April 2020].

Chelli, S., & Khouni, W. (2011). The Competency-based Approach in High Education, *تكملة مجلة* 3(2), pp. 91–105. Available at: <https://www.asjp.cerist.dz/en/article/13755> [Accessed: 2 May 2018].

Chemami, M., A. (2011). Discussing plurilingualism in Algeria: The status of French and English Languages through the educational policy. *International Journal of Arts and Science*. Vol 4, p. 227-234, available at: http://www.openaccesslibrary.org/images/0418_Mohamed-Amine_Chemami.pdf [Accessed: 15 February 2018].

Chen, S. (2010). Power Relations Between the Researcher and the Researched: An Analysis of Native and Nonnative Ethnographic Interviews. *Field Methods*, 23(2), pp.119-135.

Chen, S. H. (2011). Power relations between the researcher and the researched: An analysis of native and nonnative ethnographic interviews. *Field Methods*, 23(2), pp.119-135.

Childs, A. (2013). The work of teacher educators: an English policy perspective. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 39(3), pp.314-328.

- Cho, J. & Trent, A. (2006). Validity in qualitative research revisited. *Qualitative research*, 6(3), pp.319-340.
- Chowdhury, M. F. (2015). Coding, sorting and sifting of qualitative data analysis: Debates and discussion. *Quality & Quantity*, 49(3), pp.1135-1143.
- Cirin, R. (2014). Do academies make use of their autonomy. *Department for Education Research Report RR366*.
- Clandinin, D. J. (1995). *Still learning to teach*. In T. Russel & F. Korthagen (Eds), *Teachers who teach teachers* (pp. 25-31). London/Washington: Falmer Press.
- Clark, A. (2006). Anonymising Research Data. *Real Life Methods Working Papers*, p. 2-21.
- Clark, J. (2007). The problem of truth in educational research: The case of the Rigoberta Menchú ‘Controversy’. *The Australian Educational Researcher*, 34(1), pp.1-15.
- Clark, N. (2013). *Education In Algeria*. [online] ELTArticles. Available at: <<https://eltarticles.webs.com/educationinalgeria.htm>> [Accessed 10 October 2020].
- Clarke, M., Liddy, D. Raftery, R. Ferris, & S. Sloan. (2020) ‘Professional learning and development needs of women teachers in the Republic of Pakistan: a social realist perspective’, *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 50(5), pp. 579–595. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1080/0305764X.2020.1749560>.
- Clifford, N., Cope, M., Gillespie, T. & French, S. (2016). *Key Methods in Geography*. 3rd ed. SAGE Publications.
- Clifford, N., Cope, M., Gillespie, T. & French, S. eds., 2016. *Key methods in geography*. Sage.
- Cochran-Smith, M., Stringer Keefe, E. & Carney, M.C., (2018). Teacher educators as reformers: Competing agendas. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 41(5), pp.572-590.
- Coffey, A. (1999). *The Ethnographic Self*: SAGE Publications. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.4135/9780857020048>. [Accessed: 18 February 2018].

Coffield, F. (2000). *The necessity of informal learning* Bristol: Policy Press ESRC Learning Society Programme.

Cohen, M.A., Eliashberg, J. & Ho, T.H., 2000. An analysis of several new product performance metrics. *Manufacturing & Service Operations Management*, 2(4), pp.337-349.

Cohen, D., & Crabtree, B. (2006). Qualitative Research Guidelines Project. Available at: <http://www.qualres.org/HomeOppo-3815.html> [Accessed: 13 June 2020].

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research methods in education* (6th Eds). Routledge: London.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2011). *Research methods in education* (7th Edition). London: Routledge.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2018). *Research methods in education* (8th eds) London: Routledge.

Coldwell, M., & Simkins, T. (2011). Level models of continuing professional development evaluation: a grounded review and critique, *Professional development in education*, 37 (1), 143-157.

Collins, P. H. (1986). Learning from the outsider within: The sociological significance of Black feminist thought. *Social Problems*, 33(6), S14–S32, available at: <https://doi.org/10.1525/sp.1986.33.6.03a00020> [Accessed on: 2 March 2022].

Coleman, J. & Klapper, J. (2005). *Effective Learning & Teaching Modern Languages*. Oxon: Routledge.

Coleman, J.A., Galaczi, Á. & Astruc, L. (2007). Motivation of UK school pupils towards foreign languages: a large-scale survey at Key Stage 3. *Language Learning Journal*, 35(2), pp.245-281.

Collin, J and Smith, E (2021). *Effective Professional Development Guidance Report*. Education Endowment Foundation.

Cordingley P, Greany T, & Crisp. B. (2018). Developing great subject teaching: Rapid evidence review of subject-specific continuing professional development in the UK. Wellcome Trust. Available at: wellcome.ac.uk/sites/default/files/developing-great-subject-teaching.pdf [accessed 23 June 2020].

Cordingley, P., Higgins, S., Greany, T., Buckler, N., Coles-Jordan, D., Crisp, B., Saunders, L., Coe, R. (2015). *Developing Great Teaching: Lessons from the international reviews into effective professional development*. Teacher Development Trust.

Coughlan, A. (2015). The growth in part-time teaching in higher education: the imperative for research in the Irish context. *All Ireland Journal of Higher Education*, 7(1).

Court, D. (2013). What is Truth in Qualitative Research? Why is this Important for Education?. *Educational Practice and Theory*, 35(2), pp.5-14

Cowen, R. (2006) Acting comparatively upon the educational world: puzzles and possibilities In *Oxford Review of Education*, 32(5), pp. 561-573.

Cox, E. (2020). *Education Policy Institute/Wellcome Foundation Report - CPD Training*. [online] Real Training. Available at: <https://realtraining.co.uk/2020/03/education-policy-institute-wellcome-report-demonstrates-effects-of-cpd-on-teachers-and-students> [Accessed 7 April 2022].

Coyne, I. (1997). Sampling in qualitative research. Purposeful and theoretical sampling; merging or clear boundaries?. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 26(3), pp.623-630.

Cresswell, A. (2007). Getting to 'know' connectors? Evaluating data-driven learning in a writing skills course. In *Corpora in the foreign language classroom* (pp. 267-287). Brill.

Cresswell J., W. (2014). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Method*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Creswell, J., W. (2013). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Crossley, M., W. & Watson, K (2009). Comparative and International Education: policy transfer, context sensitivity and professional development, *Oxford Review of Education*, 35(5), pp. 633 - 649.

Crow, G. & Wiles, R. (2008). *Managing anonymity and confidentiality in social research: the case of visual data in Community research*. [online] eprints.ncrm.ac.uk. Available at:
https://www.researchgate.net/publication/279480811_Managing_anonymity_and_confidentiality_in_social_research_the_case_of_visual_data_in_Community_research [Accessed 16 Dec. 2019].

Crowley, S. (2014). *Challenging professional learning*. London & New York: Routledge Taylor and Francis Group.

Cruickshank, J., (2016). *Putting business at the heart of higher education: On neoliberal interventionism and audit culture in UK universities*. Open Library of Humanities, 2(1).

Culyer, L. M., Jatulis, L. L., Cannistraci, P., & Brownell, C. A. (2018). Evidenced-based teaching strategies that facilitate transfer of knowledge between theory and practice: what are nursing faculty using?. *Teaching and Learning in Nursing*, 13(3), 174-179.

Cunningham, M., 2019. Subject-specific CPD. *Seced*, 2019(16), pp.30-31.

Czerniawski, G. (2013). Professional development for professional learners: teachers' experiences in Norway, Germany and England, *Journal of Education for Teaching: International Research and Pedagogy*, 39(4), pp. 383-400.

Czerniawski, G. (2007). *Context, Setting and Teacher Identities: a comparative study of the values of newly qualified teachers in Norway, Germany and England*. PhD thesis. King's College London.

Czerniawski, G. (2015). A longitudinal study of the professional development of teachers - the challenges of comparison. In: Fritzsche B., Huf C. (Eds): *The benefits*,

problems and issues of comparative and cross-sectional research - ethnographic perspectives. London: EE/Tufnell Press.

Czerniawski, G. (2018). *Critical Publishing | Teacher Educators in the Twenty-first Century - Identity, knowledge and research*. 1st edn. Available at: <https://www.criticalpublishing.com/teacher-educators-in-the-twenty-first-century> (Accessed: 12 January 2021).

Czerniawski, G. & Menter, I. (2018). *Teacher Educators in the Twenty-first Century: Identity, knowledge and research*. St Albans, England: Critical Publishing (Critical Guides for Teacher Educators).

Czerniawski, G. & Waren, K. (2011). *Student Voice Handbook*. Available at: https://books.google.com/books/about/Student_Voice_Handbook.html?id=BX34oxL1LpsC (Accessed: 25 January 2019).

Czerniawski, G. (2015). A longitudinal study of the professional development of teachers—the challenges of comparison. E&E Publishing.

Czerniawski, G., Guberman, A. & MacPhail, A. (2016): The professional developmental needs of higher education-based teacher educators: an international comparative needs analysis, *European Journal of Teacher Education*.

Dadds M. (1995). 'Passionate Enquiry and School Development'. London: The Falmer Press.

Dadds M. (2001). 'Continuing Professional Development: Nurturing the Expert Within', in Soler J., Craft A. and Burgess H. (eds.) 'Teacher Development: Exploring our own Practice', Chapter 4, pp 50-56. London: Paul Chapman Publishing Ltd.

Dahlberg, T., Mallat, N., Ondrus, J. & Zmijewska, A. (2008). Past, present and future of mobile payments research: A literature review. *Electronic commerce research and applications*, 7(2), pp.165-181.

Dahoula, S. (2016). Quel dispositif de formation des enseignants du primaire pour quelles compétences?, *IMAGO Interculturalité et Didactique*, 15(1), pp.138-150.

Danaher, P., A, Noble, K., Larkin, K., M, Kawka, M., Van, R., H., Brodie, L., & Rensburg, H. (2015). *Empowering Educators: Proven Principles and Successful Strategies*, Palgrave Macmillan UK, London. Available from: ProQuest Ebook Central. [20 August 2020].

Darling-Hammond, L. (2000). How teacher education matters, *Journal of Teacher Education*, 51, 166-173.

Darling-Hammond, L. (2005). Developing professional development schools: Early lessons, challenge, and promise. In L. Darling-Hammond (Ed.), *Professional development schools: Schools for developing a profession* (pp. 1-27). New York: Teachers College Press.

Darling-Hammond, L. (2013). Teacher preparation and development in the United States: A changing policy landscape. In *Teacher education around the world* (pp. 144-164). Routledge.

Darling-Hammond, L. & Lieberman, A. (Eds.), (2012). *Teacher Education around the World: Changing Policies and Practices*. New York: Routledge.

Darling-Hammond, L., Chung Wei, R., Andree, A., Richardson, N. & Orphanos, S. (2009). *Professional Learning in the Learning Profession: A Status Report on Teacher Development in the United States and Abroad*. NSDC: Stanford.

Darling-Hammond, L., Hyler, M. E., Gardner, M. (2017). *Effective Teacher Professional Development*. Palo Alto, CA: Learning Policy Institute.

Darling-Hammond, L., LaPointe, M., Meyerson, D. & Orr, M.T. (2007) *Preparing School Leaders for a Changing World: Lessons from Exemplary Leadership Development Programs*. Stanford Educational Leadership Institute (SELI).

Davies, P., Connolly, M., Nelson, J., Hulme, M., Kirkman, J. and Greenway, C., (2016). 'Letting the right one in': Provider contexts for recruitment to initial teacher education in the United Kingdom. *Teaching and teacher education*, 60, pp.291-302.

Day, C. (1999). "Professional development and reflective practice: purposes, processes and partnerships", *Pedagogy, Culture and Society*, 7(2): 221–233.

Day, C. (1999). *Developing Teachers: The challenges of Lifelong Learning*. (1st ed). London: Routledge, p. 264.

Day, C. & Gu, Q. (2007) "Variations in the conditions for teachers' professional learning and development: sustaining commitment and effectiveness over a career", *Oxford Review of Education*, 33(4), pp. 423-443. doi: 10.1080/03054980701450746.

Day, C. & Sachs, J. (2004). *International handbook on the continuing professional development of teachers*.

Day, C. & Sachs, J. (2004). *Professionalism, performativity and empowerment: Discourses in the politics, policies and purposes of continuing professional development. International handbook on the continuing professional development of teachers*. Maidenhead: Open University Press.

Day, C. (2017). Revisiting the purposes of continuing professional development. In *Professional development and institutional needs* (pp. 51-77). Routledge

De Swaan, A. (2013). *Words of the world: The global language system*. John Wiley & Sons.

De Vries, S., van de Grift, W. & Jansen, E. (2013). Teachers' beliefs and continuing professional development. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 51(2), pp.213-231.

Deggs, D, M & Hernandez, F (2018). Enhancing the Value of Qualitative Field Notes Through Purposeful Reflection. *The Qualitative Report 2018* Volume 23, 10 (6), pp. 2552-2560.

Denscombe, M. (2010). *Good Research Guide for Small Scale Research Projects*. 4th ed. Berkshire: McGraw-Hill Education.

Denzin, N. & Lincoln, Y. (2018). *The Sage handbook of qualitative research*. Los Angeles: SAGE.

Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2005). Introduction: The discipline and practice of qualitative research. In N. Denzin, & Y. Lincoln (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of qualitative research* (3rd ed., pp. 1-32). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Department for Education (2011). 'Teachers' Standards', Available at: <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/teachers-standards> [Accessed 14 August, 2018].

Department for Education, (2012). Teacher Appraisal and Capability: A Model Policy for Schools. Available at: <https://dera.ioe.ac.uk/13654/> [Accessed on: 4 July 2020].

Dobson, A. (2018). 'Towards "MFL for all" in England: a historical perspective', *The Language Learning Journal*, 46(1), pp. 71–85. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1080/09571736.2017.1382058>. [Accessed: 4ht February 2020].

Donaldson, D., G. (2010). Teaching Scotland's Future. Report of a Review of Teacher Education in Scotland. In Watson, C., & Michael, MK. (2016) Translations of policy and shifting demands of teacher professionalism: from CPD to professional learning. *Journal of Education Policy*, 31 (3), pp. 259-274.

Doody, O. & Noonan, M. (2013). Preparing and conducting interviews to collect data. *Nurse Researcher*, 20(5), pp.28-32.

Drever, E. (1995). *Using Semi-Structured Interviews in Small-Scale Research. a Teacher's Guide*. Edinburgh: Scottish Council for Research in Education.

Dudovskiy, J. (2018). *Research Methodology - Necessary knowledge to conduct a business research*. [online] Research Methodology. Available at: <https://research-methodology.net/> [Accessed 22 Feb. 2018].

Dunham, J. (1992). *Stress in teaching*. New York: Routledge.

Dwyer, S. C. & Buckle, J. L. (2009). 'The space between: on being an insider-outsider in qualitative research.' *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*. 8(1).

Edmonds, S. and Lee, B. (2002). Teacher feelings about continuing professional development. *Education Journal*, 61, 28-29.

Education and Skills Act (2008). Statute Law Database. Available at: <https://www.legislation.gov.uk/ukpga/2008/25/contents> [Accessed: 24 November 2021].

Education Committee Fifth Report of Session (2017). *Recruitment and Retention for Teachers*. House of Commons.

Education for All 2000-2015: Only a Third of Countries Reached Global Education Goals. (2015). *United Nations*. Available at <https://www.un.org/youthenvoy/2015/04/education-2000-2015-third-countries-reached-global-education-goals/> [Accessed: 17 November 2020]

Education for Education (DfE) (2021). Initial teacher training (ITT) market review report, GOV.UK. GOV.UK. Available at: <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/initial-teacher-training-itt-market-review-report> (Accessed: November 11, 2022).

Education Policy Institute, (2016). *Teacher Workload and Professional Development In England'S Secondary Schools: Insights From TALIS*.

Education Policy Institute, (2021). *The effects of high-quality professional development on teachers and students: A cost-benefit analysis*. TEACHING AND LEADERSHIP : SUPPLY AND QUALITY REPORT.

EEF. (2017). *Lesson Study*. [online] Available at: <<https://educationendowmentfoundation.org.uk/projects-and-evaluation/projects/lesson-study>> [Accessed: 2 March 2022].

Ehren, M.C.M. and Visscher, A.J. (2008). 'The relationships between school inspections, school characteristics and school improvement', *British Journal of Educational Studies*, 56(2), pp. 205–227. Available at: <https://discovery.ucl.ac.uk/id/eprint/10023024/> (Accessed: 24 November 2022).

Ehren, M.C.M., Altrichter, H., Mcnamara, G. & O'Hara, J. (2013). 'Impact of school inspections on improvement of schools-describing assumptions on causal mechanisms in six European countries', *Educational Assessment, Evaluation and Accountability*, 25. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11092-012-9156-4>. [Accessed: 5th March 2022]

El Khabar. (05/10/06). *Teachers' Unions Raise their Concerns: "A miserable Teacher Produces a Miserable School"*. www.elkhabar.com/imprime/?=46449 (title translated from Arabic).

El Khabar. (09/10/06). *Teachers Go on Strike in Algiers*. www.elkhabar.com/imprime/?ida=46851 (title translated from Arabic).

Ellis, V., Souto-Manning, M. & Turvey, K. (2019). Innovation in teacher education: Towards a critical re-examination. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 45(1), pp.2-14.

Ellis, V., Steadman, S. & Trippestad, T. A. (2019) 'Teacher education and the GERM: policy entrepreneurship, disruptive innovation and the rhetorics of reform', *Educational Review*, 71(1), pp. 101–121.

Elmore, R. F. (2002). *Bridging the Gap between Standards and Achievement: The Imperative for Professional Development in Education*. Washington DC: Albert Shanker Institute.

Elwood, S. & Martin, D. (2000). "Placing" Interviews: Location and Scales of Power in Qualitative Research, *Professional Geographer*, 52(4):649-657.

Emplit, P (2020). *Evidence-based approaches to learning and teaching*. European University Association.

Eraut, M. (2002). *Developing Professional knowledge and Competence*. (1st ed). London: Routledge, p. 272.

Ergun, A. and A. Erdemir, A. (2010). Negotiating insider and outsider identities in the field: "Insider: In a foreign land; "Outsider" In one's own land, *Field methods*, 22(1), pp. 16-38.

Esser, F., & Vliegthart, R. (2016), 'Comparative research Methods', *International Encyclopedia of Communication Research Methods* (London: Wiley-Blackwell).

European Commission, (2013). *Policies on Teachers' Continuing Professional Development (CPD): Balancing Provision with The Needs Of Individual Teachers, Schools And Education Systems*. Education and Training 2020 programme Thematic

Working Group 'Teacher Professional Development'. Vienna: EUROPEAN COMMISSION Directorate-General for Education and Culture.

European Training Foundation (ETF) (2020) *Algeria*. The European Union Agency Supporting Countries. Available at: <https://www.etf.europa.eu/en/regions-and-countries/countries/algeria> (Accessed: November 11, 2022).

Eurostat (2022). "*Metropolitan Area Populations*". Population on 1 January by broad age group, sex and metropolitan regions. Last updated, 06 October 2022.

Eurydice - European Commission. (2020). *Continuing Professional Development for Teachers Working In Early Childhood And School Education - Eurydice - European Commission*. [online] Available at: <https://eacea.ec.europa.eu/national-policies/eurydice/content/continuing-professional-development-teachers-working-early-childhood-and-school-education-89_en> [Accessed 25 November 2020].

Evans, K., Hodkinson, P., Rainbird, H., & Unwin, L. (2006). *Improving Workplace Learning*. Hoboken: Taylor & Francis.

Evans, L. (2002). What is Teacher Development? *Oxford Review of Education*, 28(1), pp. 123-137.

Evans, L. (2011). "The 'shape' of teacher professionalism in England: professional standards, performance management, professional development and the changes proposed in the 2010 White Paper", *British Educational Research Journal*, 37(5), pp. 851-870.

Evans, M. (2013). *Teacher Education and Pedagogy: Theory, Policy and Practice*. Cambridge University Press.

Exley, S. & Ball, S., J. (2014). Neo-liberalism and English education. Neo-liberal educational reforms: *A critical analysis*, pp.13-31.

Ezzy, D. (2002). *Qualitative Analysis: Practice and innovation*. London: Routledge.

- Fachriyah, E. (2017). The functions of code switching in an English language classroom. *Studies in English Language and Education*, 4(2), p.148.
- Fernald, D. H., Coombs, L., DeAlleaume, L., West, D., & Parnes, B. (2012). ‘An assessment of the Hawthorne Effect in practice-based research’, *Journal of the American Board of Family Medicine: JABFM*, 25(1), pp. 83–86. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.3122/jabfm.2012.01.110019>.
- Fifth Report of Session 2016-17. (2017). Recruitment and Retention of Teachers. *House of Commons Education Committee*. Available at: <https://dera.ioe.ac.uk/28384/1/199.pdf> [Accessed on: 5 April 2021].
- Finding, S. (2013) ‘Gender, education and employment in education in Britain’, *Observatoire de la société britannique*, (14), pp. 173–204.
- Fisher, K. (2014). Positionality, subjectivity, and race in transnational and transcultural geographical research. *Gender, Place & Culture*, 22(4), pp.456-473.
- Flick, U. (2009). *An introduction to qualitative research*. London: Sage.
- Flick, U. ed. (2013). *The SAGE handbook of qualitative data analysis*. Sage.
- Floersch, J., Longhfer, J., Derrick, K., & Townsend, L. (2010). ‘Integrating Thematic, Grounded Theory and Narrative Analysis: A Case Study of Adolescent Psychotropic Treatment’, *Qualitative Social Work*, 9(3), pp. 407–425.
- Flores, D. (2018). *Standing in the Middle: Insider/Outsider Positionality While Conducting Qualitative Research with Opposing Military Veteran Political Groups*. Sage Publications: London.
- Foley, G. & Timonen, V. (2014). Using Grounded Theory Method to Capture and Analyze Health Care Experiences. *Health Services Research*, 50(4), pp.1195-1210.
- Foreman, N. & Gillett, R. (1998). *Handbook of spatial research paradigms and methodologies*. Psychology press.

Fotopoulou, V. & Ifanti, A., 2018. Pre-primary teachers' perceptions about professionalism and professional development through the lens of transformative learning: A case study in Greece. *Global Studies of Childhood*, 8(2), pp.184-194.

Fraser, C, Kennedy, A, Reid, L & Mckinney, S. (2007). 'Teachers' continuing professional development: contested concepts, understandings and models' *Journal of In-Service Education*, vol 33, no. 2, pp. 153- 169.

Friedman, A. & Phillips, M. (2004). 'Continuing professional development: Developing a vision', *Journal of Education and Work*, 17(3), pp. 361–376.

Friedman, A. (2011). *Continuing Professional Development*. Hoboken: Taylor and Francis.

Fullard, J. (2021). Trends in the diversity of teachers in England. *Education Policy Institute*. Available at: <https://epi.org.uk/publications-and-research/diversity-of-teachers/> [Accessed: 9 February 2021].

Fuller, A. & Unwin, L. (2004) "Expansive learning environments: Integrating organizational and personal development", in Fuller, A., Munro, A. and Rainbird, H. *Workplace Learning in Context*, pp. 126-144. Routledge.

Fuller, A. Hodkinson, P. & Unwin, L. (2005). Learning as peripheral participation in communities of practice: A reassessment of key concepts in workplace learning', *British Educational Research Journal*, 31, pp. 49–68. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1080/0141192052000310029>. [Accessed on: 19 March 2022].

Fuller, F. & Brown, O. (1975) Becoming a teacher. In, K. Ryan. *Teacher Education: 74th Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*, part ii (pp,25-52) Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Furlong, J. (1996). Re-defining partnership: Revolution or reform in initial teacher education?. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 22(1), 39-56.

Furlong, J. Griffiths, J., Hanningan-Davies, C. Harris, A. & Jones, M. (2021) "The reform of initial teacher education in Wales: from vision to reality", *Oxford Review of Education*, 47(1), pp. 61-78.

Furlong, J. (2019). The Universities and initial teacher education; challenging the discourse of derision. The case of Wales. *Teachers and Teaching*, 25(5), pp.574-588.

Furlong, J., Barton, L., Miles, S., Whiting, C. & Whitty, G. (2000) *Teacher education in transition: re-forming professionalism?*. Buckingham, Open University Press.

Galdas, P. (2017). Revisiting Bias in Qualitative Research. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 16(1).

Galvin, D. J. (2014) 'Presidents as Agents of Change', *Presidential Studies Quarterly*, 44(1), pp. 95–119. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1111/psq.12089>. [accessed: 8 November 2020].

Gary, B. and Linda, C. (2015) *Teacher Education in Times of Change*. Policy Press.

GASMI, M. (2020). Educational Reforms and EFL Teaching at Algerian Middle and Secondary Schools. *Social Sciences Journal*, 14(2Add), pp.211-217.

Gayton, A.M. (2016). 'Perceptions about the dominance of English as a global language: impact on foreign-language teachers' professional identity', *Journal of Language, Identity and Education*, 15(4), pp. 230–244. Available at: <http://eprints.gla.ac.uk/197057/> [Accessed: 23 November 2022].

Gertz, G., & Kharas, H. (2019). Beyond neoliberalism: insights from emerging markets. Available at <https://apo.org.au/node/232986> [Accessed: 2 December 2021].

Gherzouli, I. (2019). Towards a Democratic Algerian Curriculum Development through Secondary School EFL Teachers' Involvement, *International Journal of Curriculum and Instruction*, 11(1), pp. 1–22.

Gibbs, G. (2011). *Analysing Qualitative Data*. London, UK: Sage Publications

Gibbs, G. R., (2007). Thematic coding and categorizing. *Analyzing Qualitative Data*. London: SAGE Publications.

Given, L. (2019). 'Unstructured Observation' In: L. McKechnie, ed., *The SAGE Encyclopedia of Qualitative Research Methods*. Thousand Oaks Print: SAGE Publications, Inc.

Glark, N. (2013). Education in Algeria. ELT articles. Viewed on 14th of December, available at: <https://eltarticles.webs.com/educationinalgeria.htm> [accessed 1 March 2018].

Glaser, B. (1978). *Theoretical sensitivity*. Mill Valley, CA: Sociology Press.

Glaser, B., & Strauss, A. (1967). *The discovery of grounded theory*. Chicago, IL: Aldine Transaction.

Glavin, C. (2014). *Presidents as agents of change*. Available at: <https://www.k12academics.com/systems-formal-education/primary-education> [Accessed: November 8, 2022].

Goldkuhl, G. & Cronholm, S., (2003). Multi-grounded theory-Adding theoretical grounding to grounded theory. Paper presented at the 2nd European Conference on Research methods in Business and Management (ECRM 2003), UK, 20-21 March, 2003.

Goldstein, H. (2004) Education for all: the globalization of learning targets. *Comparative Education*, 40, 7-14.

Goodley, C., 2018. Reflecting on being an effective teacher in an age of measurement. *Reflective Practice*, 19(2), pp.167-178.

GOV.UK (2013). *National curriculum in England: Languages programmes of study* Available at: <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/national-curriculum-in-england-languages-programmes-of-study/national-curriculum-in-england-languages-programmes-of-study> [Accessed: November 7, 2022].

GOV.UK (2014). *School direct: Guidance for schools* Available at: <https://www.gov.uk/guidance/school-direct-guidance-for-lead-schools> [Accessed: November 11, 2022].

GOV.UK (2020) *Post 16 options, Post 16 options* | *National Careers Service*.
GOV.UK. Available at: <https://nationalcareers.service.gov.uk/careers-advice/career-choices-at-16> (Accessed: November 11, 2022).

GOV.UK (2022) Routes to qualified teacher status (QTS) for teachers and those with teaching experience outside the UK. Available at: <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/apply-for-qualified-teacher-status-qts-if-you-teach-outside-the-uk/routes-to-qualified-teacher-status-qts-for-teachers-and-those-with-teaching-experience-outside-the-uk#qualified-teacher-status-qts> (Accessed: November 10, 2022).

GOV.UK. 2010. *Michael Gove To The National College Annual Conference, Birmingham*. [online] Available at: <https://www.gov.uk/government/speeches/michael-gove-to-the-national-college-annual-conference-birmingham> [Accessed 25 October 2020].

GOV.UK. (2016) *Types of school*. GOV.UK. Available at: <https://www.gov.uk/types-of-school> (Accessed: November 10, 2022).

Gpseducation.oecd.org. (2022). *Review education policies - Education GPS - OECD*. [online] Available at: <https://gpseducation.oecd.org/revieweducationpolicies/#!node=41732&filter=all> [Accessed 16 March 2022].

Grant, C. (2017). *The contribution of education to economic growth*. rep. Brighton: The UK Department for International Development.

Gray, D. (2013). *Doing research in the real world*. 3rd ed. Los Angeles: SAGE.

Gray, S. (2005). *An enquiry into continuing professional development for teachers*. Esmée Fairbairn Foundation; Villiers Park Educational Trust, University of Cambridge.

Green, A. (2003). Education, Globalisation and the Role of Comparative Research. *London Review of Education*, 1(2), pp.84-97.

Green, F., Machin, S., Murphy, R., & Zhu, Y. (2008). Competition for private and state school teachers. *Journal of Education and Work*, 21(5), 383–404.

- Grieve, A. & McGinley, B., 2010. Enhancing professionalism? Teachers' voices on continuing professional development in Scotland. *Teaching Education*, 21(2), pp.171-184.
- GTCNI. (2005). Reviews of Teacher Competences and Continuing Professional Development. Belfast: General Teaching Council for Northern Ireland.
- Guendouz-Benammar, N. (2017). La formation des enseignants de FLE: profils et professionnalisation dans les ENS en Algérie. *La formation initiale des enseignants de français langue étrangère*, p.92.
- Hadjarab, M. (2000). L'Algérie au péril de l'arabisation: Lettres sur la Loi de la généralisation de l'Arabisation (Algeria at the peril of Arabisation. Letters on the Law of the Generalisation of Arabisation). Legisnet Internet Journal, available at: www.legisnet.com [Accessed: 3 July 2019].
- Haig, B. D. (2010), Abductive Research Methods. In: A.S. Bellack Michel Hersen, *International Encyclopedia of Education*, (3rd ed). Baltimore, USA.
- Hall, K., Murphy, R., Rutherford, V., & Áingléis, B. (2018). School placement in initial teacher education. *Dublin: Irish Teaching Council*.
- Hallak, J. (1990). Educational Policies in a Comparative Perspective: Suggestions for a Research Agenda. IIEP Contributions, No. 6.
- Hamdy, A. (2007). Survey of ICT and Education in Africa: Algeria Country Report.
- Hammersley, M and Atkinson, P. (2007). *Ethnography Principles in practice*. (3rd ed) London and New York: Routledge.
- Hamzaoui, C. (2017). From Home to School: A Sociolinguistic Study of Arabic Diglossia and its Effects on Formal Instruction in the Algerian Education System. PhD thesis. Tlemcen University. Algeria.
- Hamzaoui, C. (2017). Multilingualism: A Challenge to the Educational System in Algeria. *International Journal of Humanities, Arts, Medicine and Sciences*, 5(1), pp 75-82.

Haouam, S. (2015). 'Teacher In-Service Training and Re-training The Case of Algeria..docx'. Available at: https://www.academia.edu/33708640/Teacher_In_Service_Training_and_Re_training_The_Case_of_Algeria_docx [Accessed: 28 March 2021].

Harbers, H. (2011). *Strangeness and familiarity*. Utrecht: FORUM.

Hardy, I. J. & Melville, W. (2019). 'Professional learning as policy enactment: The primacy of professionalism', *education policy analysis archives*, 27(0), p. 90.

Hargreaves, A. (1992). *Teacher development and educational change*. London: Falmer Press.

Hargreaves, A. & Goodson, I.F. (1996) Teachers' professional lives: Aspirations and actualities. In Kennedy, A. (2007). Continuing professional development (CPD) policy and the discourse of teacher professionalism in Scotland. *Research Papers in Education*. 22. 95-111.

Harik, E. M. & Schilling, D. G. (1984). *The politics of education in colonial Algeria and Kenya*. Athens, Ohio: Ohio University, Center for International Studies (Papers in international studies, no. 43).

Harrell, M. C. & Bradley, M.A. (2009) *Data Collection Methods: Semi-Structured Interviews and Focus Groups*. RAND Corporation. Available at: https://www.rand.org/pubs/technical_reports/TR718.html [Accessed: 27 November 2021].

Harvey, W., (2011). Strategies for conducting elite interviews. *Qualitative Research*, 11(4), pp.431-441.

Hayes, D. (2014). *Innovations in the continuing professional development of English language teachers*. British Council.

Hayes, D. (2019). Continuing professional development/continuous professional learning for English language teachers. In: S. Walsh and S. Mann, ed., *The Routledge Handbook of English Language Teacher Education*, 1st ed. Routledge.

Heacock, P. Souder, E. & Chastain, J., (1996). Subjects, Data, and Videotapes. *Nursing Research*, 45(6), pp.336-338.

Hedegaard-Soerensen, L. & Grumloese, S., P. (2020). Exclusion: The downside of neoliberal education policy. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 24(6), pp.631-644.

Helgetun, J.B. & Menter, I., (2020). From an age of measurement to an evidence era? Policy-making in teacher education in England. *Journal of Education Policy*, pp.1-18.

Heydarian, N. (2016). *Developing Theory With the Grounded-Theory Approach and Thematic Analysis*. [online] Association for Psychological Science - APS. Available at: <https://www.psychologicalscience.org/observer/developing-theory-with-the-grounded-theory-approach-and-thematic-analysis> [Accessed 4 Nov. 2019].

Hobson, A.J., Malderez, A., Tracey, L. and Pell, G. (2006). Pathways and stepping stones: Student teachers' preconceptions and concerns about initial teacher preparation in England. *Scottish Educational Review*, 37(3), pp.59-78.

Hodkinson , H. & Hodkinson, P. (2005) 'Improving schoolteachers' workplace learning', *Research Papers in Education*, 20(2), pp. 109–131. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1080/02671520500077921> [Accessed: 2 December 2018]

Hodkinson, P. & Hodkinson, H. (2004) *The significance of individuals' dispositions in workplace learning: a case study of two teachers*. *Journal of Education and Work*, 17(2), 167–82.

Holland, M., Evans, A., & Hawsley, F. (2011). International perspectives on the theory - practice divide in secondary initial teacher education. In: Association of Teacher Educators in Europe, Latvia, August 2011. (Unpublished).

Holloway, I. & Todres, L. (2003). 'The Status of Method: Flexibility, Consistency and Coherence', *Qualitative Research*, 3(3), pp. 345–357.

Holt A., (2010). Using the telephone for narrative interviewing: a research note. *Qualitative Research* 10(1), pp. 113–121.

Hopkins, E., Hendry, H., Garrod, F., McClare, S., Pettit, D., Smith, L., Burrell, H. & Temple, J. (2016). Teachers' views of the impact of school evaluation and external inspection processes. *Improving Schools*, 19(1), pp.52-61.

Howe, K. & Moses, M. (1999). Ethics in Educational Research. *Review of Research in Education*, 24, pp. 21-59.

Howell, C. and Sayed, Y. (2018). Improving learning through the CPD of teachers: Mapping the issues in Sub-Saharan Africa. *Continuing Professional Teacher Development in Sub-Saharan Africa: Improving Teaching and Learning*, 15.

Hughes, J., & Jones, S., (2003). Reflections on the use of Grounded Theory in Interpretive Information Systems Research, *Electronic Journal of Information System Evaluation*, issue 1.

Hurd, C., Evans, C. & Renwick, R. (2018). "Having friends is like having marshmallows": Perspectives of transition-aged youths with intellectual and developmental disabilities on friendship. *Journal of Applied Research in Intellectual Disabilities*, 31(6), pp.1186-1196.

Husbands, C., (2016). Teacher education under pressure: Professional learning in an age of global transformation. *International Journal of Continuing Education and Lifelong Learning*, 8(2), p.20.

Hustler, D., McNamara, O., Jarvis, J., Londra, M. & Campbell, A., (2003). Teachers' Perceptions Of Continuing Professional Development. Norwich: DfEE.

Hutchings, M. (2022) *Exam Factories? The impact of accountability measures on children and young people*. The National Union of Teachers.

Imants, J., & Van Veen, K. (2010), Teacher Learning as Workplace Learning. In: Penelope Peterson, Eva Baker, Barry McGaw, (Editors), *International Encyclopedia of Education*. volume 7, pp. 569-574. Oxford: Elsevier.

Irwin, S., Bornat, J. & Winterton, M. (2012). Timescapes secondary analysis: comparison, context and working across data sets. *Qualitative Research*, 12(1), pp.66-80.

Jafari, R., A. & Davatgari, H. (2015) Review of Constructivism and Social Constructivism, *Journal of Social Sciences, Literature and Languages*, 1(1), pp. 9-16.

Johnson, C., Kahle, J. & Fargo, J. (2007). Effective teaching results in increased science achievement for all students. *Science Education*, 91(3), pp.371-383.

Johanson, G. A. & Brooks, G. P. (2010). Initial Scale Development: Sample Size for Pilot Studies, *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 70(3), pp. 394–400. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1177/0013164409355692>.

Jonathan A. Potter (1998). Qualitative and Discourse Analysis. In: N. J. Smelser and P. B. Baltes, ed., *International Encyclopedia of Social & Behavioral Sciences*, (1st ed) Loughborough University, UK, pp.117-138.

Junemann, C. & Ball, S. (2013). "ARK and the revolution of state education in England", *Education Inquiry*, 4(3), p. 22611.

Kadri, N. and Benmouhoub, L. (2019). Training pre-service teachers for professional expertise: A neglected area in the Algerian higher educational system. *Internet Journal for Cultural Studies*, Retrieved September, 15, p.2019.

Kagan, D., M. (1992). Professional growth among preservice and beginning teachers. *Review of Educational Research*, 62, 129-169.

Kaiser, K. (2009). Protecting Respondent Confidentiality in Qualitative Research. *Qualitative Health Research*, 19(11), pp.1632-1641.

Karnieli-Miller, O., Strier, R. & Pessach, L. (2008). Power Relations in Qualitative Research. *Qualitative Health Research*, 19(2), pp.279-289.

Kaseorg, M. (2017). 'Teachers' understanding about education decision-making processes at the macro, meso and micro levels', *New Trends and Issues Proceedings on Humanities and Social Sciences*, 4, p. 169.

Kaseorg, M., (2017). Teachers' understanding about education decision-making processes at the macro, meso and micro levels. *New Trends and Issues Proceedings on Humanities and Social Sciences*, 4(6), pp.169-177.

Kawulich, B. (2004). Data Analysis Techniques in Qualitative Research. In Darla Twale (Ed.), *Journal of Research in Education*, 14(1) p. 96-113. Available at: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/257944757_Kawulich_B_B_2004_Data_Analysis_Techniques_in_Qualitative_Research_In_Darla_Twale_Ed_Journal_of_Research_in_Education_141_p_96-113 [Accessed 1 Nov. 2019].

Kawulich, B., (2012). Collecting data through observation. In: C. Wagner, B. Kawulich and M. Garner, ed., *Doing Social Research: A Global Context*. McGraw Hill.

Keay J., & Lloyd C. (2015). *Empowering Educators through Professional Learning*. In: Larkin K., Kawka M., Noble K., Van Rensburg H., Brodie L., Danher P.A. (eds) *Empowering Educators*. Palgrave Macmillan, London.

Keay, J. & Lloyd, C. (2009) 'High-quality professional development in physical education: the role of a subject association', *Professional Development in Education*, 35(4), pp. 655–676.

Keay, J. (2004). *The Impact Of Continuing Professional Development On Practice: Examining The Induction Experiences Of Newly Qualified Teachers Of Physical Education*. Canterbury Christ Church University.

Kehm, B., M. (2020). Reforms of Doctoral Education in Europe and Diversification of Types. In *Structural and Institutional Transformations in Doctoral Education* (pp. 85-104). Palgrave Macmillan, Cham.

Kelle, U. (2005). "Emergence" vs. "Forcing" of Empirical Data? A Crucial Problem of "Grounded Theory" Reconsidered [52 paragraphs]. *Forum Qualitative Sozialforschung / Forum: Qualitative Social Research*, 6(2), Art. 27, Available at: <http://nbn-resolving.de/urn:nbn:de:0114-fqs0502275>. [Accessed on: 17 May 2019]

Kelly, M., Dowling M, & Miller M. (2018). The Search for Understanding: The Role of Paradigmatic Worldviews. *Nurse Researcher*, 25(4), 9-13

Kennedy, A. (2005). 'Models of Continuing Professional Development: a framework for analysis', *Journal of In-Service Education*, 31(2), pp. 235–250.

Kennedy, A. (2014) 'Understanding continuing professional development: the need for theory to impact on policy and practice', *Professional Development in Education*, 40(5), pp. 688–697.

Kennedy, A., & McKay, J. (2011). "Beyond induction: the continuing professional development needs of early-career teachers in Scotland", *Professional Development in Education*, 37(4), pp. 551-569.

Kennedy, A., 2005. Models of Continuing Professional Development: a framework for analysis. *Journal of In-service Education*, 31(2), pp.235-250.

Kennedy, A., (2014). 'Useful' professional learning ... useful for whom?. *Professional Development in Education*, 41(1), pp.1-4.

Kennedy, A., (2014). Models of Continuing Professional Development: a framework for analysis. *Professional Development in Education*, 40(3), pp.336-351.

Kennedy, A., (2014). What do professional learning policies say about purposes of teacher education?. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 43(3), pp.183-194.

Kennedy, A., (2015). 'Useful' professional learning ... useful for whom?. *Professional development in education*, 41(1), pp.1-4.

Khakpour, A. (2012) 'Methodology of comparative studies in education', *Contemporary Educational Researches Journal*, (2) 1, pp. 20-26. Available at: https://www.academia.edu/42720424/Methodology_of_comparative_studies_in_education [Accessed: 26 January 2022].

Khedri, I. (2020). Le rôle de la formation continue dans le développement professionnel Des enseignants de fle au secondaire, *ASJP Afak des sciences*, 6(1), pp. 416-424.

Khelfaoui, H., 2008. L'enseignement professionnel en Algérie : contraintes institutionnelles et réponses sociales. *Sociologie et sociétés*, 40(1), pp.143-170.

Khosravi Shakib, M. (2011) "The position of language in development of colonization", *Journal of Languages and Culture*, 7(2), pp. 117-123.

King, F. (2019). Professional learning: empowering teachers?. *Professional development in education*, 45(2), 169-172.

King, F., (2016). Teacher professional development to support teacher professional learning: Systemic Factors from Irish case studies. *Teacher Development*, 20(4), pp.574-594.

Kinnucan-Welsch, K. (2007). Reconsidering Teacher Professional Development Through Constructivist Principles. *Teacher Education Faculty Publications*. (9).

Kitto, S., Price, D., Jeong, D., Campbell, C. & Reeves, S., 2019. Continuing Professional Development. In: T. Swwanwick, K. Forrest and B. O'Brien, ed., *Understanding Medical Education: Evidence, Theory, and Practice*, 8th ed. pp.263-274.

Klapper (2001b). 'Introduction: professional development in modern languages' in J. Klapper (ed.) *Teaching Languages in Higher Education: issues in training and continuing professional development*, London: CILT.

Knight, J., Lingard, B. and Bartlett, L. (1994). "Reforming Teacher Education Policy under Labor Governments in Australia 1983—93", *British Journal of Sociology of Education*, 15(4), pp. 451-466. doi: 10.1080/0142569940150401.

Korthagen, F. (2017). "Chapter 30| A Foundation for Effective Teacher Education: Teacher Education Pedagogy Based on Situated Learning", in Clandinin, J. and Husu, J. *The SAGE Handbook of Research on Teacher Education*.

- Korthagen, F. (2017). 'Inconvenient truths about teacher learning: towards professional development 3.0', *Teachers and Teaching*, 23(4), pp. 387–405.
- Kosc-Ryzko, K. (2011). Between strangeness and familiarity. The process of acculturation in the psycho-social approach. *Ukrainian Art Studies: Materials, Research, Reviews, Collection of Scientific Papers*, vol. 11, pp. 302-308.
- Kovács, Z. & Kálmán, C. (2022) "Professional learning in the workplace", *Journal of Adult Learning, Knowledge and Innovation*, 4(2), pp. 41-43.
- Kramersch, C. (2014) "Teaching foreign languages in an era of globalization: Introduction," *The Modern Language Journal*, 98(1), pp. 296–311. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2014.12057.x>. [Accessed: 12 April 2022.
- Kumar, R. (1996). *Research Methodology- A Step-by-step guide for beginners*. London: SAGE Publications Ltd.
- Kvale S. (1996). *Interviews – An introduction to qualitative research interviewing*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications: London.
- Kvale, S. (2013). *Doing interviews*. Los Angeles: Sage.
- Kvale, S., & Brinkmann, S. (2009). *Interviews: Learning the craft of qualitative research interviewing*. London: Sage.
- Kyeongsoon, K. (2013). *Science Teachers' Professional Learning in the Context of a Continuing Professional Development Course*. Ph.D. University of London.
- Lamote, C., & Engels, N. (2010). The development of student teachers' professional identity. *European journal of teacher education*, 33(1), 3-18.

Lanvers, U. & Coleman, J.A. (2013) “The UK language learning crisis in the public media: A critical analysis,” *The Language Learning Journal*, 45(1), pp. 3–25. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1080/09571736.2013.830639>. [Accessed: 8th June 2020].

Lanvers, U., Doughty, H., & Thompson, A. (2018). “Brexit as linguistic symptom of Britain retreating into its shell? Brexit-induced politicization of language learning,” *The Modern Language Journal*, 102(4), pp. 775–796. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12515>. [Accessed: 3rd February 2021].

Larsen-Freeman, D. (1983). Training teachers or educating a teacher. Georgetown University Round Table on Languages and Linguistics, pp.264-274.

Lave, J. & Wenger, E. (1991) *Situated Learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge.

Lavington, D. (2016). *Interview Locations and Power Relations*. [online] Pop and Geog in Accra 2016. Available at: <https://popandgeoginaccra2016.wordpress.com/2016/04/21/interview-locations-and-power-relations/> [Accessed 18 Nov. 2019].

Law No. 14/2008. (2008). *Education System Framework Law*. Available at : <http://www.ilo.org/dyn/natlex/docs/ELECTRONIC/89748/103169/F1608617276/TMP89748.pdf> [Accessed 2 May 2020].

Law, J. (2015). What's wrong with a one-world world?. *Distinktion: Scandinavian Journal of Social Theory*, 16(1), pp.126-139.

Lawrence, J & Tar, U. (2013). “The use of Grounded Theory Technique as a Practical Tool for Qualitative Data Collection and Analysis” *The Electronic Journal of Business Research Methods* 11(1), pp. 29-40.

Lennert da Silva, A.L. and Mølstad, C.E. (2020). Teacher autonomy and teacher agency: A comparative study in Brazilian and Norwegian lower secondary education. *The Curriculum Journal*, 31(1), pp.115-131.

Le Roux, C., S. (2017). 'Language in education in Algeria: a historical vignette of a "most severe" sociolinguistic problem', *Language & History*, 60(2), pp. 112–128. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1080/17597536.2017.1319103>. [Accessed on: 20 July 2021].

Legatum Prosperity Index (2021). Algeria (ranked 107th). Available at: <https://www.prosperity.com/globe/algeria> [Accessed: November 2, 2022].

Leonard, S. (2015). 'Stepping outside: collaborative inquiry-based teacher professional learning in a performative policy environment', *Professional Development in Education*, vol. 41, no. 1, pp. 5-20.

Leonardi, S. (2022) *Meeting the challenge of providing high quality continuing professional development for teachers*. CFE Research.

Levers, M., J., D. (2013) "Philosophical paradigms, grounded theory, and perspectives on emergence," *SAGE Open*, 3(4). Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1177/2158244013517243>. [Accessed 28 March 2021].

Lewis-Beck, M., Bryman, A. & Liao, T. (2004). *The Sage encyclopedia of social science research methods*. Thousand Oaks, Calif.: Sage.

Lieberman, A. and Pointer Mace, D. (2008). 'Teacher Learning: the Key to Educational Reform', *Journal of Teacher Education - J TEACH EDUC*, 59, pp. 226–234.

Lifford, A. (2019). *What CPD am I required to receive as a teacher?*, Edapt. Available at: <https://www.edapt.org.uk/support/knowledge-base/what-cpd-am-i-required-to-receive-as-a-teacher/> [Accessed: 20 February 2021].

Limerick, B., Burgess-Limerick, T. & Grace, M. (1996). The politics of interviewing: power relations and accepting the gift. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, 9(4), pp.449-460.

Lind, M., & Goldkuhl, G. (2006). How to develop a multi-grounded theory: The evolution of business process theory. *Australasian Journal of Information Systems*, 13 (2), pp.1-10.

Ling, L. M., & Mackenzie, N. M. (2015). An Australian perspective on teacher professional development in supercomplex times. *Psychology, Society and Education*, 7(3), 264-278.

Litchman, G. (2022). 'Why, What and How' of Education Transformation in a Rapidly Changing World. [online] edarabia.com. Available at: <<https://www.edarabia.com/why-what-how-education-transformation-rapidly-changing-world/>> [Accessed 21 February 2022].

Liu, F., & Maitlis, S. (2010). Nonparticipant Observation. In Albert J. Mills, G. Durepos, & E. Wiebe (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of Case Study Research*. (pp. 610-612). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.

Livia, A. and Hall, K. (1997). *Queerly phrased*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Livingston, K. (2016). Developing teachers' and teacher educators' professional identity in changing contexts. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 39(4), pp. 401-402.

Long, R. and Danechi, S. (2022). 'Home education in England'. Available at: <https://commonslibrary.parliament.uk/research-briefings/sn05108/> [Accessed: 24 November 2022].

Long, R., & Danechi, S. (2022). Home education in England (Number 05108). *House of Commons Library*.

Loomis, S., Rodriguez, J., & Tillman, R. (2008). Developing into similarity: global teacher education in the twenty-first century. *European journal of teacher education*, 31(3), 233-245.

López-Pastor, V. & Sicilia-Camacho, A., 2017. Formative and shared assessment in higher education. Lessons learned and challenges for the future. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 42(1), pp.77-97.

Loughran, J. (1999). Professional development for teachers: a growing concern. *Journal of In-Service Education*, 25(2), pp.261-273.

Louifi, L. (2021) *Les écoles privées dans le Viseur du Ministère de l'éducation, Le Jeune Indépendant*. Available at: https://www.jeune-independant.net/les-ecoles-privées-dans-le-viseur-du-ministere-de-education/?fbclid=IwAR2b45Xz3NGSvJlbXyaw3Fns-xyM2mWnq2qfS88rRnqxx_KmGhOt3iTrzVs (Accessed: November 10, 2022).

Macaro, E. (2008). The decline in language learning in England: getting the facts right and getting real. *Language Learning Journal*, 36(1), pp.101-108.

Macbeath, J. (2008). Stories of Compliance and Subversion in a Prescriptive Policy Environment. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 36 (1), 123-148.

Madoui, M. (2015). Unemployment among young graduates in Algeria: a sociological reading. *Open Journal of Social Sciences*, 3(11), p.35.

Mahdjoub, R. & Miliani, M. (2017). Education and career guidance in Algeria: Recurrent dysfunctions. In *Career Guidance and Livelihood Planning across the Mediterranean* (pp. 123-137). Brill.

Malm, B. (2009). "Towards a new professionalism: Enhancing personal and professional development in teacher education," *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 35(1), pp. 77–91. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1080/02607470802587160>. [Accessed: 22 May 2022].

Marshall, C., & Rossman, G. B. (2011). *Designing Qualitative Research (5th ed.)*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Mann, S. (2005) 'The language teacher's development', *Language Teaching*, 38(3), pp. 103–118.

Manohar N., Liamputtong P., Bhole S., & Arora, A. (2017). *Researcher Positionality in Cross-Cultural and Sensitive Research*. In: Liamputtong P. (eds) *Handbook of Research Methods in Health Social Sciences*. Springer, Singapore.

Mansour, D. (2022). The Competency-Based Approach to English Language Teaching In Algerian Secondary Schools: Palpable Myths or Disheartening Realities. *Internet journal for cultural studies TRANS*, 23.

Mansour, N. (2007). Grounded Theory and the existing theories: A call for a step further. A paper accepted at The School's Annual Staff Student Research Conference, at Exeter University, UK, May 12.

Mansour, N. (2008). The Experiences and Personal Religious Beliefs of Egyptian Science Teachers as a Framework for Understanding the Shaping and Reshaping of their Beliefs and Practices about Science-Technology-Society (STS). *International Journal of Science Education*, 30(12), pp.1605-1634.

Mansour, N., & Skinner, N. (2008). Multi-Grounded Theory as a research methodology for theory development in education. A paper accepted for presentation at the European Educational Research Association (EERA) annual conference at University of Cöteborg, Sweden, 8th to 12th September.

Marcelo, C (2009). Professional Development of Teachers: past and future. *Sísifo. Educational Sciences Journal*, 8(2), pp. 5-20.

Marynowski, R. Darroch, A., Asta, G., & Molly, J. (2022) 'Theorizing about components of teacher professional development: supports and barriers', *International Journal of Mentoring and Coaching in Education*, 11(1), pp. 104–118. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJMCE-02-2021-0040>. [Accessed: 2 September 2022].

Masters, G. (2018). The role of evidence in teaching and learning. *Teacher columnist – Geoff Masters*. Available at <https://research.acer.edu.au/columnists/39> [Accessed: 2 August 2019].

Mauri, T., Onrubia, J., Colomina, R. & Clarà, M., (2019). Sharing initial teacher education between school and university: participants' perceptions of their roles and learning. *Teachers and Teaching*, 25(4), pp.469-485.

Mavhunga, E. & Van Der Merwe, D. (2020). "Bridging Science Education's Theory–Practice Divide: A Perspective from Teacher Education Through Topic-Specific PCK", *African Journal of Research in Mathematics, Science and Technology Education*, 24(1), pp. 65-80.

Maxwell, J. A. (2012). *Qualitative research design: An interactive approach* (Vol. 41). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Mayer, D. and Mills, M. (2020) "Professionalism and teacher education in Australia and England", *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 44(1), pp. 45-61.

McIntyre, A. Darling-Hammond, L., Burns, D., Campbell, C., Goodwin, A. L., Hammerness, K., Low, E. L., & Zeichner, K. (2017). *Empowered educators: How high-performing systems shape teaching quality around the world*. John Wiley & Sons.

McNamara, G. & O'Hara, J. (2006) 'Workable Compromise or Pointless Exercise?: School-based Evaluation in the Irish Context', *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 34(4), pp. 564–582. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1177/1741143206068218>. [Accessed: 8 May 2018]

McNamara, O. & Murray, J., (2013). The School Direct programme and its implications for research-informed teacher education and teacher educators. *Learning to teach*, 14.

McNamara, O., Jones, M., Murray, J. (2014). Framing Workplace Learning. In: McNamara, O., Murray, J., Jones, M. (eds) *Workplace Learning in Teacher Education. Professional Learning and Development in Schools and Higher Education*, vol 10. Springer, Dordrecht.

McNamara, O., Murray, J., & Phillips, R. (2017). *Policy and research evidence in the 'reform' of primary initial teacher education in England*. Cambridge: Cambridge Primary Review Trust.

Mebtil, N. (2011). *An Exploration of the Main Difficulties, Challenges and Requirements of the ESP Teaching Situation in Algeria: The Case of ESP Teachers at Abou-Bekr Belkaid University, Tlemcen*. Unpublished Magister Thesis. Tlemcen University, Algeria.

Meierdirk, C. (2016). Reflections of the student teacher. *Reflective Practice*, 18(1), pp.23-41.

Mekdad, Y., Dahmani, A., & Louaj, M. (2014). Public spending on education and economic growth in Algeria: Causality test. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 2(3), 55.

Melouka, Z. & Saadia, L. (2020). An investigation of EFL Teachers' Professional Development in Algeria: Practices and Perspectives. *International Journal of Linguistics, Literature and Translation*, 3(11), pp.94-101.

Melville, W., Hardy, I., & Roy, M., (2019). Struggling to 'see the big picture': professional learning, policy and precarious employment. *Teacher Development* 23, 1–18.

Méndez López, M. G. (2017). Labor intensification and emotions of Mexican language teachers: A case study. *Innovación educativa (México, DF)*, 17(75), 31-48.

Menter, I. (2018). Teacher Education in a Crucible of Change. In *Innovation and Accountability in Teacher Education* (pp. 313-325). Springer, Singapore.

Menter, I., Valeeva, R. & Kalimullin, A. (2017) 'A tale of two countries – forty years on: politics and teacher education in Russia and England', *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 40(5), pp. 616–629.

Menter, I., Valeeva, R. & Kalimullin, A., 2017. A tale of two countries—forty years on: politics and teacher education in Russia and England. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 40(5), pp.616-629.

MERIC-Net - Mediterranean Network of National Information Centres on the Recognition of Qualifications, (2019). *Système Éducatif Algérien*. The European Commission.

Merriam, S., J. Johnson-Bailey, Y. Lee My Lee, G. Ntseane & M. Muhamad (2001). "Power and Positionality: Negotiating Insider/Outsider Status Within and Across Cultures. *International Journal of Lifelong Education*, 20(5), pp. 405-416.

Merton, R. K. (1972). Insiders and outsiders: A chapter in the sociology of knowledge. *American Journal of Sociology*, 78, pp. 9-47.

Meyerhoff, M., Schlee, E. & MacKenzie, L. (2015). *Doing sociolinguistics: a practical guide to data collection and analysis*. New York: Routledge.

Migge, B., & Léglise, I (2007). Language and colonialism. Applied linguistics in the context of creole communities. In : M. Hellinger and A. Pauwels, eds., *Language and Communication : Diversity and Change*. Handbook of Applied Linguistics. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter, pp. 297-338.

Migliarini, V., & Stinson, C. (2020). Inclusive education in the (new) era of anti-immigration policy: enacting equity for disabled English language learners. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, 34(1), 72-88.

Miles, M., Huberman, A. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook*. Thousand Oaks, CA.: SAGE Publications.

Miles, M., Huberman, A. and Saldaña, J. (2014). *Qualitative data analysis: A methods sourcebook*. 3rd ed. Los Angeles: Sage.

Miller, R. and Brewer, J. (2003). *The A-Z of social research*. SAGE Publications, pp.2013-217.

Milligan, L. (2016). Insider-outsider-inbetween? Researcher positioning, participative methods and cross-cultural educational research. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education*, 46(2), pp.235-250.

Missoum, M. (2015). Autonomous Continuing Professional Development for Algerian University Teachers of English, *Arab World English Journal*, pp. 164 –179.

Mitchell, D., & Sutherland, D. (2020). What Really Works in Special and Inclusive Education: Using Evidence-Based Teaching Strategies (3rd ed.). Routledge.

Mitchell, R., 2002. Foreign Language Education in an Age of Global English. Occasional Paper.

Moazam, F. (2000). Human subject research, ethics and the developing world', *JPMA. The Journal of the Pakistan Medical Association*, 50(11), pp. 388–393.

Moon, K. and Blackman, D., (2014). A guide to understanding social science research for natural scientists. *Conservation biology*, 28(5), pp.1167-1177.

Moore, C., (2012). The Role of School Environment in Teacher Dissatisfaction Among U.S. Public School Teachers. *SAGE Open*, 2(1), p.215824401243888.

Morris, P. (2015). Comparative education, PISA, politics and educational reform: A cautionary note. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education*, 45(3), 470-474.

Morse, J.M., Barrett, M., Mayan, M., Olson, K. & Spiers, J. (2002). Verification strategies for establishing reliability and validity in qualitative research. *International journal of qualitative methods*, 1(2), pp.13-22.

Mpofu, N. (2019). *What student teachers learn when putting theory into classroom practice*, *Phys.org*. Available at: <https://phys.org/news/2019-08-student-teachers-theory-classroom.html> [Accessed: 11 May 2022].

Mugo, P. & Wolhuter, C. (2013). Definitions and Purpose of Comparative education. In: C. Wolhuter, I. Kamere and K. Biraimah, ed., *A Students Textbook in Comparative Education*. [online] Potchefstroom South Africa: Platinum Press. Available at: <http://.> ISBN: 978-1-86822-638 [Accessed 30 Nov. 2019].

Muijs, D. et al. (2014) "State of the art – teacher effectiveness and professional learning", *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 25(2), pp. 231-256.

Muijs, R., D. & Reynolds, D. (2005). *Effective Teaching. Evidence and Practice*. 2nd ed, Paul Chapman Publishing Ltd, London.

Mulà, I. *et al.* (2017). 'Catalysing Change in Higher Education for Sustainable Development: A review of professional development initiatives for university educators', *International Journal of Sustainability in Higher Education*, 18(5), pp. 798–820.

- Mulenga, I. M. (2020). Teacher Education versus teacher Training: Epistemic Practices and Appropriate Application of both Terminologies, *Journal of Lexicography and Terminology*, 4(1), pp.105-126.
- Mulhall, A. (2003). In the field: notes on observation in qualitative research. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 41(3), pp.306-313.
- Murphy, R. (2013). Testing Teachers: What works best for teacher evaluation and appraisal.
- Murphy, S. & Burke-Tomlinson, H. (2019). *Comparative Literature Research Seminar*.
- Murray, J. & Mutton, T., (2016). Teacher education in England: Change in abundance, continuities in question. *Teacher education in times of change*, pp.57-74.
- Murray, J. & Passy, R. (2014) 'Primary teacher education in England: 40 years on', *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 40, pp. 492–506.
- Murray, J. *et al.* (2020) "Teacher educators and expansive learning in the workplace and beyond," *Frontiers in Education*, 5. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.3389/educ.2020.00084>.
- Murray, J., Czerniawski, G. & Kidd, W. (2017). The Impact of Alternative Routes on the Work and Identities of Teacher Educators. In: S. Feiman-Nemser and M. Ben-Peretz, ed., *Getting the Teachers We Need*. The United States of America: Roman & Littlefield, pp.11-22.
- Murray, J., Swennen, A. and Kosnik, C. (2019) *International research, policy and practice in teacher education*. Cham, Switzerland: Springer Nature Switzerland.
- Musset, P. (2010). "Initial Teacher Education and Continuing Training Policies in a Comparative Perspective: Current Practices in OECD Countries and a Literature

Review on Potential Effects”, OECD Education Working Papers, No. 48, OECD Publishing. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/5kmbphh7s47h-en>

Mutton, T., Burn, K. & Menter, I. (2017). ‘Deconstructing the Carter Review: competing conceptions of quality in England’s “school-led” system of initial teacher education’, *Journal of Education Policy*, 32(1), pp. 14–33. Available at: https://ora.ox.ac.uk/objects/uuid:0781caa3-d60e-41bb-b84a-a54976a1603f/download_file?file_format=pdf&safe_filename=Deconstructing%2Bthe%2BCarter%2BReview.pdf&type_of_work=Journal+article [Accessed 2 February 2020]

Muzata, K. K. & Ndonyo, T.M. (2019). ‘The Practice based Model: A Proposed Training Package for Special Education Trainee Teachers in Zambia’ In: M.K. Banja (ed.). *Selected Readings in Education Volume 2* (pp. 23-41), Lusaka: Marvel Publishers.

Namamba, A & Rao, C. (2017). Preparation and Professional Development of Teacher Educators in Tanzania: Current Practices and Prospects. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 8(8), pp. 136-145.

Nebbou, A. (2018). Evaluation Means Innovation in ELT: The Experience of the Algerian School. *Sino-US English Teaching*, 15(10), pp. 470-477.

Negadi, M. N. (2015). Learning English in Algeria through French-based background proficiency. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 199, pp. 496 – 500

Negadi, M. N. (2015). ‘Learning English in Algeria Through French-based Background Proficiency’, *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 199, pp. 496–500. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.07.537> [Accessed: 3rd January 2022].

Nekkal, F. (2013). Pratiques pédagogiques et réformes éducatives en Algérie: une étude de cas. *Insaniyat. Revue algérienne d'anthropologie et de sciences sociales*, (60-61), 47-63.

NEU (2017). *Teachers' Workload*. [online] Available at: <https://neu.org.uk/policy/teachers-workload> [Accessed 22 August 2020].

Neuman, W. L. (2011) *Social Research Methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*. 7th Edition, Pearson, Boston.

Neuman, W. (2014) *Social Research Methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*. Pearson, Essex, UK.

No'voa, A. & Yariv-Mashal, T. (2003) 'Comparative Research in Education: a mode of governance or a historical journey?', *Comparative Education*, 39(4), pp. 423–438.

Nunan, D. (2003). The impact of English as a global language on educational policies and practices in the Asia-Pacific Region. *TESOL quarterly*, 37(4), pp.589-613.

Oakley, J. G. (1999). 'Leadership Processes in Virtual Teams and Organizations', *Journal of Leadership Studies*, 5(3), pp. 3–17. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1177/107179199900500301>.

O'Brien, J. & Jones, K. (2014) "Professional learning or professional development? or continuing professional learning and development? changing terminology, policy and Practice," *Professional Development in Education*, 40(5), pp. 683–687. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1080/19415257.2014.960688>.

O'Leary, M. (2013). "Expansive and Restrictive Approaches to Professionalism in FE Colleges: The Observation of Teaching and Learning as a Case in Point." *Research in Post-Compulsory Education* 18 (4): 348–364.

O'Sullivan, H., McConnell, B., & McMillan, D. J. (2012). Continuous professional development and its impact on practice: A north-south comparative study of Irish teachers' perceptions, experiences and motivations. *Report to the Standing Committee of Teacher Education North and South (SCoTENS)*. Dostupn na <http://scotens.org/wp-content/uploads/Final-Report1.pdf>.

Obasi, C. (2014). Negotiating the insider/outsider continua: A black female hearing perspective on research with deaf women and black women. *Qualitative Research Journal*, 14, pp. 61–78.

Obiegbu, I. (2015). The English language and sustainable development in Nigeria. *Open Journal of Political Science*, 5(02), p.82.

OECD., (2013). *Education at a Glance 2013: Highlights*, OECD Publishing, Paris, https://doi.org/10.1787/eag_highlights-2013-en.

Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted) (2002). The graduate teacher programme (Manchester, Ofsted). Available online at: <http://dera.ioe.ac.uk/4504/> (Accessed 23 February 2022).

Ogden, R. (2012). Pseudonym. In: L. Given, ed., *The SAGE Encyclopedia of Qualitative Research Methods*. Thousand Oaks: SAGE Publications, Inc.

Ogg, T., Zimdars, A., & Heath, A. (2009). Schooling effects on degree performance: a comparison of the predictive validity of aptitude testing and secondary school grades at Oxford University. *British Educational Research Journal*, 35(5), 781-807.

Olssen, M., (2016). Neoliberal competition in higher education today: Research, accountability and impact. *British Journal of Sociology of Education*, 37(1), pp.129-148.

Opfer, V.D. & Pedder, D. (2010). Benefits, status and effectiveness of continuous professional development for teachers in England. *The curriculum journal*, 21(4), pp.413-431.

Orb, A., Eisenhauer, L. & Wynaden, D. (2001). Ethics in Qualitative Research. *Journal of Nursing Scholarship*, 33(1), pp.93-96.

Orr, K., & Simmons, R. (2010). Dual identities: the in-service teacher trainee experience in the English further education sector. *Journal of Vocational Education & Training*, 62(1), 75-88.

Orr, S., & Shreeve, A. (2017). *Art and design pedagogy in higher education: Knowledge, values and ambiguity in the creative curriculum*. Routledge.

Osborn, M., 2004. New methodologies for comparative research? Establishing 'constants' and 'contexts' in educational experience. *Oxford Review of Education*, 30(2), pp.265-285.

Ouarzeddine, A., Gomatos, L. & Ravanis, K., (2020). étude comparative des systèmes de formation initiale et continue des enseignants en algérie et en grèce/comparative study of initial and continuing education systems for teachers in algeria and greece. *European journal of education studies*.

Ounis, S. & Kaouli, N. (2020). The Inspectors' Attitudes Towards Bridging the Gap Between Teacher Training and Classroom Practices in Algeria. The Case of Khenchela Middle Schools. *مجلة قال لوجيات البحث والدراسات* 13 (1).

Pachler, N. (2002). Foreign language learning in England in the 21st century. *Language Learning Journal*, 25(1), 4-7.

Pachler, N., Evans, M. & Lawes, S. (2007). *Modern foreign languages*. London: Routledge.

Pachler, N., Preston, C., Cuthell, J., Allen, A., & Pinheiro-Torres, C. (2010). *ICT CPD Landscape: Final Report*. Coventry: Becta.

Pais, A. & Costa, M., 2020. An ideology critique of global citizenship education. *Critical Studies in Education*, 61(1), pp.1-16.

Pak Tee Ng (2008). 'Education policy rhetoric and reality gap: a reflection', *International Journal of Educational Management*. Edited by Ka Ho Mok and Pak Tee Ng, 22(6), pp. 595–602.

Papatheodorou, P., Luff, P. & Gill, J. (2013). *Child observation for learning and research*. [Place of publication not identified]: Routledge.

Parfitt, A., (2020). Can the concept of the protean career help us to understand millennial pre-service teacher retention challenges? A study of two pre-service teachers' career pathways in England. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 46(3), pp.324-335.

Parmeshwar Prasad, M., Govinda Ishwar, L. & Deepa Dewali, C. (2017) "A comparative study of rural and urban teachers' perceptions of professional development," *Waikato Journal of Education*, 22(4), pp. 79–87. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.15663/wje.v22i4.352.s18>.

Patton, M. Q. (1990) *Qualitative evaluation and research methods, 2nd ed.* Thousand Oaks, CA, US: Sage Publications, Inc (Qualitative evaluation and research methods, 2nd ed), p. 532.

Patton, M. Q., (2002). *Qualitative research & evaluation methods*. Sage.

Patzer, R., (2022). Effective Teacher CPD: How To Enable Career-long Learning. [Blog] *iRIS*, Available at: <<https://blog.irisconnect.com/uk/effective-cpd-for-teachers>> [Accessed 9 February 2022].

Paul Stephens , Finn Egil tønnessen & Chris Kyriacou (2004) Teacher training and teacher education in England and Norway: a comparative study of policy goals, *Comparative Education*, 40(1), pp. 109-130,

Pawlak, M., (2018). *Tying Micro and Macro*, Peter Lang D. Available at: https://www.peterlang.com/view/9783631710845/xhtml/fm_toc.xhtml [Accessed: 24 April 2021].

Payne, M. (2012). The Challenge for German in English Secondary Schools: A Regional Study. *German as a Foreign Language*, (1). <http://www.gfl-journal.net/1-2012/payne.pdf>

Peel, K., (2019). *Learning to teach in England and the United States: The evolution of policy and practice*: by Maria Teresa Tatto, Katharine Burn, Ian Menter, Trevor Mutton and Ian Thompson, New York, Routledge, 2018, \$77.99 (paperback), ISBN: 978-0-367-36864-7.

Peiser, G., Duncalf, D. and Mallaburn, A., 2019. The role of the mentor in an increasingly school-led English initial teacher education policy context. *Professional Development in Education*, pp.1-18.

Perryman, J. & Calvert, G., (2019). What motivates people to teach, and why do they leave? accountability, performativity and teacher retention. *British Journal of Educational Studies*, 68(1), pp.3-23.

Perryman, J., Maguire, M., Braun, A. & Ball, S., (2018). Surveillance, governmentality and moving the goalposts: The influence of Ofsted on the work of schools in a post-panoptic era. *British journal of educational studies*, 66(2), pp.145-163.

Peters, M. A., Cowie, B., & Menter, I. (Eds.). (2017). *A Companion to Research in Teacher Education*. Springer Singapore.

Peters, M.A. (2004). Educational research: 'games of truth' and the ethics of subjectivity.

Peters, M.A. & Tesar, M., 2016. Bad research, bad education: The contested evidence for evidence-based research, policy and practice in education. In *Practice Theory and Education* (pp. 245-260). Routledge.

Phillippi, J. & Lauderdale, J. (2017). A Guide to Field Notes for Qualitative Research: Context and Conversation. *Qualitative Health Research*, 28(3), pp.381-388.

Phillips V. (2014). Teachers Know Best: Teachers' Views on Professional Development. Impatient Optimists, available at: <http://www.impatientoptimists.org/Posts/2014/12/Teachers-Know-Best-Teachers-Views-on-Professional-Development#comment-1763330432>. [accessed on: 4 August 2019].

Phillips, D., & Schweisfurth, M. (2014). *Comparative and International Education. An Introduction to Theory, Method, and Practics* (2nd ed.). London: Bloomsbury Publishing.

Phothongsunan, S. (2010). Interpretive paradigm in educational research. *SSRN Electronic Journal*.

Pickering, J. (2007). Teachers' Professional Development: Not whether or what, but how. In J. Pickering, C. Daly and N. Pachler (Eds.), *New designs for teachers' Professional Learning* (pp.192-216). London: Institute of Education, University of London.

Pitsoe, V.J. & W.M. Maila. (2012). Towards Constructivist Teacher Professional Development. *Journal of Social Sciences*, 8(3), pp.318-324.

Poplack, S. (1988). Contrasting Patterns of Code Switching in Two Communities, in Heller, M. (ed.), *Codeswitching: Anthropological and Sociolinguistic Perspectives* (pp.180-199). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

Popov, N., Wolhuter, C., Leutwyler, B., Mihova, M. & Ogunleye, J. (2010). *Comparative education, teacher training, education policy, school leadership and social inclusion*. 9th ed. Sofia: Bureau for Educational Services.

Powell, E., Terrell, I., Furey, S. & Scott-Evans, A., (2003). Teachers' perceptions of the impact of cpd: an institutional case study ed. *Journal of In-service Education*, 29(3), pp.389-404.

Power, M., (1997). *The Audit Society: Rituals of Verification*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Prabasha, E. (2012). *Interpretivism and Positivism (Ontological and Epistemological Perspectives)*. [online] Available at: <https://prabash78.wordpress.com/2012/03/14/interpretivism-and-positivism-ontological-and-epistemological-perspectives/> [Accessed 10 Mar. 2018].

Prelovskaja, I. (2013). Functions of code-switching in multilingual student community. master. universidade do algarve.

Price, P., Chiang, I., Jhangiani, R., Leighton, D. & Cuttler, C. (2019). 6.5 *Observational Research – Research Methods in Psychology*. [online]

Opentext.wsu.edu. Available at:
<https://opentext.wsu.edu/carriecuttler/chapter/observational-research/> [Accessed 13 Nov. 2019].

Price, P., Jhangiani, R., Chiang, I., Leighton, D. &Cuttler, C., (2020). 6.5
Observational Research – Research Methods In Psychology. [online]
Opentext.wsu.edu. Available at:
<https://opentext.wsu.edu/carriecuttler/chapter/observational-research/> [Accessed: 12 September 2020].

Proje tablissement (2005). Alger, A rie : CNDP.

Punch, K. F. (1998). *Introduction to Social Research: Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches*. Sage, London.

Purwaningrum, F., & Shtaltovna, A. (2017). Reflections on Fieldwork: A Comparative Study of Positionality in Ethnographic Research across Asia ISA Symposium for Sociology. Available at:
<https://esymposium.isaportal.org/resources/resource/reflections-on-fieldwork/>
[Accessed: 2 April 2021].

Quintelier, A., De Maeyer, S. & Vanhoof, J., (2020). Determinants of teachers' feedback acceptance during a school inspection visit. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 31(4), pp.529-547.

Radcliffe, B. (2022). *How education and training affect the economy*, Investopedia. Available at: <https://www.investopedia.com>. [Accessed: November 2, 2022].

Råheim, M., Magnussen, L., Sekse, R., Lunde, Å., Jacobsen, T. & Blystad, A. (2016). Researcher–researched relationship in qualitative research: Shifts in positions and researcher vulnerability. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies on Health and Well-being*, 11(1), p.30996.

Rajendran, N. (2001). *Dealing with Biases in Qualitative Research: A Balancing Act for Researchers*.

Ravhuhali, F., Kutame, A. P. & Mutshaeni, H. N. (2015) 'Teachers' Perceptions of the Impact of Continuing Professional Development on Promoting Quality Teaching and Learning', *International Journal of Educational Sciences*, 10(1), pp. 1–7.

Ray, A. (2006). School value added measures in England. *A paper for the OECD Project on the Development of Value-Added Models in Education Systems*.

Rebai, N., Ferrah, H.E. & Selougui, S. (2022). In service education and training inset in Algeria.

Rehman, A & Alharthi, K. (2016). An Introduction to Research Paradigms. *International Journal of Educational Investigations*, 3(8), pp. 51-59.

Reid, I., & Caudwell, J. (1997). Why did secondary PGCE students choose teaching as a career?. *Research in Education*, 58(1), 46-58.

Reid, J., Kamler, B., Simpson, A. & Maclean, R. (1996). "Do you see what I see?" Reading a different classroom scene. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, 9(1), pp.87-108.

Rezig, N. (2011). Teaching English in Algeria and Educational Reforms: An Overview on the Factors Entailing Students Failure in Learning Foreign Languages at University. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 29, pp. 1327 – 1333.

Richards, J. (2002). Why teachers resist change (and what principals can do about it). *Principal*, 81, pp. 75-77.

Richards, J., & Rodgers, T. (2001). *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J.C and T.S.C Farell. (2005). Professional Development for Language Teachers: Strategies for Teacher Learning. *ELT Journal*, 60(3):308-309.

Ridley, J. M. (2010) *Directed Routes or Chosen Pathways? Teachers' Views of Continuing Professional Development Within a Group of Rural Primary Schools*. PhD. The Open University.

Ridley, J. M. (2011). National College for School Leadership, 2011. *Teachers' continuing professional development within two clusters of small rural primary schools*.

Riveros, A. and Viczko, M. (2014) "The enactment of professional learning policies: Performativity and multiple ontologies," *Discourse: Studies in the Cultural Politics of Education*, 36(4), pp. 533–547. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1080/01596306.2015.980492>.

Roberts, Leite & Wade (2018), 'Monolingualism is the Illiteracy of the Twenty-First Century', *Hispania*, 100:5 pp. 116–18. 4 British Council (2017), *Languages for the Future*.

Roberts, N. and Foster, D., 2016. Initial teacher training in England.

Robinson, C., & Sebba, J. (2004). A review of research and evaluation to inform the development of the new postgraduate professional development programme. In Rose, J. and Reynolds, D., (2007). *Teachers' continuing professional development: A new approach*. In *20th Annual World International Congress for Effectiveness and Improvement*, pp.219-240.

Robinson, M. and McMillan, W. (2006). Who teaches the teachers? Identity, discourse and policy in teacher education. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 22(3), pp.327-336.

Robson, C. (2011) *Real World Research: A Resource for Social Scientists and Practitioner Researchers*, 3rd ed. Oxford: Blackwell.

Rodriguez, A. & Magill, K.R., 2016. Diversity, neoliberalism and teacher education. *International Journal of Progressive Education*.

Romaissa, B., 2020. Les Nouveaux enseignants formés à L'ENS entre profils de formation et difficultés du terrain.

Rooney, J. (1998) 'Teaching Influence on Life-long Perceptions of Mathematics', *Teaching Mathematics and its Applications* 17(1): 12–18.

Rose, J. & Reynolds, D. (n.d). *Teachers' Continuing Professional Development: A New Approach*. 20th Annual World ICSEI International Congress for Effectiveness and Improvement, pp.219-240.

Rose, J. & Reynolds, D., 2007. Teachers' continuing professional development: A new approach. In *20th Annual World International Congress for Effectiveness and Improvement*.

Rose, J. R. & Reynolds, D. (2007) 'Teachers' perceptions of continuing professional development', *BERA Annual Conference, University of London, UK*. Available at: <https://research-information.bris.ac.uk/en/publications/teachers-perceptions-of-continuing-professional-development> [Accessed: 23 January 2021].

Rouf, A. & Mohamed, A., 2018. Secondary EL Teachers' CPD: Present Practices and Perceived Needs. *Journal of NELTA*, 22(1-2), pp.1-12.

Roulston, K. (2019). *Tips for observing and taking field notes in qualitative studies*. [online] QualPage. Available at: <https://qualpage.com/2017/04/07/tips-for-observing-and-taking-field-notes-in-qualitative-studies/> [Accessed 10 Nov. 2019].

Rout, S. & Kumar Behera, S. (2014). Constructivist Approach in Teacher Professional Development: An Overview. *American Journal of Educational Research*, 2(12A), pp.8-12.

Roux, C. (2017). Language in education in Algeria: a historical vignette of a 'most severe' sociolinguistic problem, *Language and History*, 60(2), pp. 112-128.

Runde, D. F. & Nealer, E. (2017). *English language proficiency and development, English Language Proficiency and Development | Center for Strategic and International Studies*. Available at: <https://www.csis.org/analysis/english-language-proficiency-and-development> (Accessed: November 5, 2022).

Ryan, F., Coughlan, M. and Cronin, P. (2009) "Interviewing in qualitative research: The one-to-one interview", *International Journal of Therapy and Rehabilitation*, 16(6), pp. 309-314. doi: 10.12968/ijtr.2009.16.6.42433.

Sachs, J. (2001). Teacher professional identity: Competing discourses, competing outcomes. *Journal of education policy*, 16(2), 149-161.

Sachs, J. (2003). *The activist teaching profession*. Buckingham: Open University Press.

Sachs, J. (2016) "Teacher professionalism: why are we still talking about it?", *Teachers and Teaching*, 22(4), pp. 413-425. doi: 10.1080/13540602.2015.1082732.

Saint David, T., 2020. 1. Teachers, researchers... and teacher researchers. BERA Bites, p.8.

Salway, S., Higginbottom, G., Reime, B., Bharj, K., Chowbey, P., Foster, C., Friedrich, J., Gerrish, K., Mumtaz, Z. & O'Brien, B. (2011). Contributions and challenges of cross-national comparative research in migration, ethnicity and health: insights from a preliminary study of maternal health in Germany, Canada and the UK. *BMC Public Health*, 11(1).

Sanderse, W. & Cooke, S., (2019). Being Prepared to Become a Moral Teacher: UK Teachers' Experiences of Initial Teacher Education. *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research*, pp.1-14.

Sanif, S., 2015. *Implementation of Peer Observation of Teaching in ELT Tertiary Education System in Malaysia: A Social-constructionism View*. PhD. University of Exeter.

Sanjari, M., Bahramnezhad, F., Khoshnava Fomani, F., Shoghi, M. and Cheraghi, M. (2014). Ethical challenges of researchers in qualitative studies: the necessity to develop a specific guideline. *J Med Ethics Hist Med*, 7(14).

Santiago, P., Levitas, A., Rado, P. & Shewbridge, C. (2016). *OECD reviews of school resources: Estonia 2016. Reviews of School Resources*. Paris, France: OECD Publishing.

- Sapsford, R. & Jupp, V. (1996). *Data collection and analysis*. London: Sage in association with Open University.
- Sarnou, H. Koç, S. Houcine, S. & Bouhadiba, F. (2012). LMD new system in Algerian University. *Arab World English Journal*, 3 (4).
- Sarnou, H., & Ghemmour, R. (2016). Unveiling the Effectiveness of Massive Open Online Courses at Abdelhamidibnbadis University, Algeria. *Arab World English Journal (AWEJ) Special Issue on Call (3)*, pp 246-257.
- Satybaldiyeva, A., 2016. A comparative analysis of the educational systems of kyrgyzstan and malaysia: the similarity and the differences. *Alatoo Academic Studies*, (3), pp.325-329.
- Schatzman L. & Strauss A.L. (1973) *Field Research: Strategies for a Natural Sociology*. Prentice Hall, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey.
- Schinske, J. & Tanner, K., 2014. Teaching more by grading less (or differently). *CBE—Life Sciences Education*, 13(2), pp.159-166.
- Schlicht-Schmälzle, R., Teltemann, J. & Windzio, M. (2011) *Deregulation of education: What does it mean for efficiency and equality?*, *TranState Working Papers*. 157. University of Bremen, Collaborative Research Center 597: Transformations of the State. Available at: <https://ideas.repec.org/p/zbw/sfb597/157.html> [Accessed: 20 March 2021].
- Schutt, R. (2011). Qualitative Data Analysis. In: R. Schutt, ed., *Investigating the Social World: The Process and Practice of Research*, 7th ed. Massachusetts, pp.320-357.
- Scott, S. (2010). *The Theory and Practice Divide in Relation to Teacher Professional Development, Online Learning Communities and Teacher Professional Development: Methods for Improved Education Delivery*. IGI Global.
- Scowcroft, M., khan, s. & khan, s. (2020). *Fanon, Frantz – Postcolonial Studies*. [online] Scholarblogs.emory.edu. Available at:

<https://scholarblogs.emory.edu/postcolonialstudies/2014/06/19/fanon-frantz/>
[Accessed 20 Jan. 2020].

Selama, S. (2018). The Algerian Second Generation Program Consequences on the Learner-Centred Approach: A Comparative Textbooks Analysis', *El-Omda in Linguistics & Discourse Analysis*, 3, pp. 1-14.

Sellar, S., & Lingard, B. (2013). Looking East: Shanghai, PISA 2009 and the reconstitution of reference societies in the global education policy field. *Comparative Education*, 49(4), 464-485.

Serrant, A. (2018) *The languages of London, Museum of London*. Museum of London. Available at: <https://www.museumoflondon.org.uk/discover/languages-london#:~:text=Today%2C%20research%20has%20shown%20there,settle%20in%20London%20from%201675.> (Accessed: November 3, 2022).

Shah, S., R., A. (2016). *Teacher leadership: A case study of teacher leaders' professional development in an EFL institute of a Saudi Arabian University*, PhD thesis, University of Exeter, UK.

Shanks, R, Robson, D & Gray, DS 2012, 'New teachers' individual learning dispositions: a Scottish case study', *International Journal of Training and Development*, vol. 16, no. 3, pp. 183-199.

Shaw, S. (2006). Research governance: regulating risk and reducing harm?. *Journal of the Royal Society of Medicine*, 99(1), pp.14-19.

Shillington, K. (2006) *Encyclopedia of African history*. New York, NY: Fitzroy Dearborn (A-G).

Showkat, N. & Parveen, H. (2017). 'Non-Probability and Probability Sampling', [online] Available at: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/319066480_Non-Probability_and_Probability_Sampling [Accessed 27 June 2020].

Sibieta, L. & Jerrim, J. (2021). *A comparison of school institutions and policies across the UK*. The Nuffield Foundation. The Education Policy Institute.

Silverman, D. (2005). *Doing Qualitative Research: A Practical Handbook*. SAGE Publications.

Singh, K (2016). "Report of the special rapporteur on the right to education".
ohchr.org.

Simões, A. R., Lourenço, M. & Costa, N. (2018) *Teacher Education Policy and Practice in Europe: Challenges and Opportunities for the Future*. Routledge.

Simon, C., A. (2019). 'Diversity in Teacher Education: policy contexts', in N. Sorensen (ed.). London: UCL IOE Press. Available at: <https://www.ucl-ioe-press.com/books/teachers-and-teaching/diversity-in-teacher-education/> [Accessed: 27 November 2022].

Skerritt, C., O'Hara, J., Brown, M., McNamara, G. & O'Brien, S., (2021). Enacting school self-evaluation: the policy actors in Irish schools. *International Studies in Sociology of Education*, pp.1-23.

Slevitch, L. (2011). Qualitative and Quantitative Methodologies Compared: Ontological and Epistemological Perspectives. *Journal of quality assurance in hospitality and tourism*. 12 (1): 73-81. Available at: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/241747589_Qualitative_and_Quantitative_Methodologies_Compared_Ontological_and_Epistemological_Perspectives [Accessed: 27 November 2019].

Slimani-Rolls, A. (2016). 'An Algerian Identity'. *The Linguist*. Chartered Institute of Linguists. 55, 14-15.

Sloan, A. & Bowe, B., (2014). Phenomenology and hermeneutic phenomenology: the philosophy, the methodologies, and using hermeneutic phenomenology to investigate lecturers' experiences of curriculum design. *Quality & Quantity*, 48(3), pp.1291-1303.

Smith J., A. Flowers P. Larkin, M. (2009). *Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis: Theory, Method and Research*. Sage Publications, London.

Smith, J. & Noble, H. (2014). Bias in research: Table 1. *Evidence Based Nursing*, 17(4), pp.100-101.

Smith, J. and Noble, H., 2014. Bias in research. *Evidence-based nursing*, 17(4), pp.100-101.

Smith, L. (2015). Effects of the new GCSE grading and accountability systems.

Smith, W. & Holloway, J., 2020. School testing culture and teacher satisfaction. *Educational Assessment, Evaluation and Accountability*, 32(4), pp.461-479.

Sobe, N. & Kowalczyk, J. (2012) "The Problem of Context in Comparative Education Research", *ECPS - Educational, Cultural and Psychological Studies*, (06), pp. 55-74.

Soguel, L., Vaucher, C., Bengough, T., Burnand, B. & Desroches, S. (2019). Knowledge Translation and Evidence-Based Practice: A Qualitative Study on Clinical Dietitians' Perceptions and Practices in Switzerland. *Journal of the Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics*, 119(11), pp.1882-1889.

Soine, K. & Lumpe, A. (2014). Measuring characteristics of teacher professional development. *Teacher Development*, 18(3), pp.303-333.

Spradley, B.W. (1980). Managing change creatively. *Journal of Nursing Administration*, pp.32-37.

Sprint Education (2019). *A Guide to the UK's Educational Establishment Types The nuts and bolts of every type of school in the UK*, Sprint Education. Available at: <https://sprint-education.co.uk/> [Accessed: November 10, 2022].

Steiner-Khamsi, G. (2016) "New Directions in policy borrowing research," *Asia Pacific Education Review*, 17(3), pp. 381–390. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12564-016-9442-9>.

Stephens, P., Tonnessen, F. & Kyriacou, C. (2004). 'Teacher Training and Teacher Education in England and Norway: a comparative study of policy goals', [http://lst-iiep.iiep-unesco.org/cgi-bin/wwwi32.exe/\[in=epidoc1.in\]/?t2000=019725/\(100\)](http://lst-iiep.iiep-unesco.org/cgi-bin/wwwi32.exe/[in=epidoc1.in]/?t2000=019725/(100)), 40.

Stinkdorn, M., Edgar Hormess, M., Lawrence, A. & Schneider, J. (2016). *This is Service Design Doing: Applying Service Design Thinking in the Real World*. 1st edition. Sebastapol, CA: O'Reilly.

Struthers, D., (2017). The Challenge of School-Led Teacher Education for Those Working within Traditional Teacher Education Partnerships: A Case of Roman Riding. Emerald Group.

Sturt-Schmidt, J. (2020). What are the Current and Future Challenges for MFL?, The Millennial [Online], Available at: [ps://themillennial.home.blog/2021/01/18/what-are-the-current-and-futurechallenges-for-mfl/](https://themillennial.home.blog/2021/01/18/what-are-the-current-and-futurechallenges-for-mfl/) [Accessed 7 May 2022].

Sturt-Schmidt, James (2020). What are the Current and Future Challenges for MFL?, *The Millennial* [Online], Available at: <https://themillennial.home.blog/2021/01/18/what-are-the-current-and-future-challenges-for-mfl/>. [Accessed: 3 September 2018].

Sugrue, C., (2004). Rhetorics and realities of CPD across Europe: From cacophony towards coherence. *International handbook on the continuing professional development of teachers*, pp.67-93.

Sugrue, C. & Mertkan, S. (2016). "Professional responsibility, accountability and performativity among teachers: the leavening influence of CPD?", *Teachers and Teaching*, 23(2), pp. 171-190.

Sułkowski, Ł., (2010). Two paradigms in management epistemology. *Journal of intercultural management*, 2(1).

Swain, W., R. (2022). *Routes into teaching, Prospects.ac.uk*. Available at: [https://www.prospects.ac.uk/jobs-and-work-experience/job-sectors/teacher-training-and-education/routes-into-teaching#:~:text=The%20most%20common%20route%20into,maths%20\(a%20B%20in%20Wales\)](https://www.prospects.ac.uk/jobs-and-work-experience/job-sectors/teacher-training-and-education/routes-into-teaching#:~:text=The%20most%20common%20route%20into,maths%20(a%20B%20in%20Wales)) [Accessed: November 01, 2022].

Swap, R., Annegarn, H., Suttles, T., King, M., Platnick, S., Privette, J. & Scholes, R. (2003) 'Africa Burning: A Thematic Analysis of the Southern African Regional Science initiative', *Journal of Geophysical Research* 108(D13).

Taddese, E.T. and Rao, C., 2022. School-based continuous professional development of teachers: a case study of primary school teachers in Ethiopia. *Education 3-13*, 50(8), pp.1059-1071.

Taylor, A. (2008). Developing understanding about learning to teach in a university-schools partnership in England. *British Educational Research Journal*, 34 (1), pp. 63–90.

NEU, (2018). Teachers' workload, available at: <https://neu.org.uk/policy/teachers-workload> [Accessed: 24 March 2021].

Teague, M., 2016. Probation, people and profits: The impact of neoliberalism. *British Journal of Community Justice*, 14(1), pp.133-138.

Teijlingen, V. E. & Hundley, V. (2001). The importance of pilot studies. *Social research update*, (35), pp.1-4.

Terri, K. (2014) The intellect, mobility and epistemic positioning in doing comparisons and comparative education, *Comparative Education*, 50(1), pp. 58-72.

Thabane, L., Ma, J., Chu, R., Cheng, J., Ismaila, A., Rios, L.P., Robson, R., Thabane, M., Giangregorio, L. & Goldsmith, C.H. (2010). A tutorial on pilot studies: the what, why and how. *BMC medical research methodology*, 10(1), pp.1-10.

Thanh, N. & Thanh, T. (2015). The Interconnection Between Interpretivist Paradigm and Qualitative Methods in Education. *American Journal of Educational Science*, 1(2), pp.24-27.

The British Academy. (2019) *Languages in the UK: A call for action*. London: The British Academy.

The GSS Careers Team. (2018). Continuous Professional Development (CPD) policy for the Government Statistician Group (GSG). <https://gss.civilservice.gov.uk/policy-store/continuous-professional-development-cpd-policy-for-the-government-statistician-group-gsg/> 1/12.

The Independent (2022). *Algeria expands English lessons to primary school students*. Independent Digital News and Media. Available at:

<https://www.independent.co.uk/news/english-ap-french-algeria-abdelmadjid-tebboune-b2172288.html> (Accessed: November 5, 2022).

The National Education Orientation Law n° 08-04 of 23 janvier (2008). La loi d'orientation sur l'éducation nationale. Available at: http://www.ilo.org/dyn/natlex/natlex4.detail?p_lang=en&p_isn=77822&p_country=DZA&p_count=1115 [Accessed: 24 November 2022].

The North Africa Post (2015) *First Independent Mena Newspaper, The North Africa Post.* Available at: <https://northafricapost.com/6977-un-criticizes-the-quality-of-education-in-algeria.html> (Accessed: November 2, 2022).

Theys, S. (2018) *Introducing constructivism in international relations theory, E-INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.* Available at: <https://www.e-ir.info/2018/02/23/introducing-constructivism-in-international-relations-theory/> (Accessed: November 19, 2022).

Thompson, K., 2017. *league tables – ReviseSociology.* [online] ReviseSociology. Available at: <https://revisesociology.com/tag/league-tables/> [Accessed 15 June 2021].

Thomson, P. (2014). *do I have to transcribe the interviews I do?.* [online] pattr. Available at: <https://patthomson.net/2014/02/10/do-i-have-to-transcribe-the-interviews-i-do/> [Accessed 16 Dec. 2019].

Thomson, S., Ansoms, A. & Murison, J. (2013). *Emotional and ethical challenges for field research in Africa.* Houndmills, Basingstoke, Hampshire: Palgrave Macmillan.

Tight, M., (2019). The neoliberal turn in higher education. *Higher Education Quarterly*, 73(3), pp.273-284.

Tillman, L. (2009). The never-ending education science debate: I'm ready to move on. *Educational Researcher*. 38(6), 458-462.

Timperley, H., Wilson, A., Barrar, H. & Fung, I., (2007). Teacher Professional Learning and Development. *Best Evidence Synthesis iteration (BES).*

Timperley, H. (2011). *Realizing the Power of Professional Learning*. Maidenhead: Open University Press.

Timperley, H., Wilson, A., Barrar, H. and Fung, I., 2008. *Teacher professional learning and development* (Vol. 18). International Academy of Education.

Tinsley, T. (2019) *Language Trends 2019: Language Teaching in Primary and secondary Schools in England*. In Sturt-Schmidt, James (2020). *What are the Current and Future Challenges for MFL?*, *The Millennial* [Online], Available at: <https://themillennial.home.blog/2021/01/18/what-are-the-current-and-future-challenges-for-mfl/>.

Tinsley, T. (2019). *Language trends 2019 language teaching in primary and secondary schools in England survey report*. British Council: London.

Tinsley, T., & Board, K. (2016). *Language trends 2015/16: The state of language learning in primary and secondary schools in England*. Reading, UK: CfBT.

Tinsley, T., & Doležal, N. (2018). *Language trends 2018. Language teaching in primary and secondary schools in England. Survey report*.

Tomsett, J. (2020). *Why schools need to put staff first*. Available at: <https://www.sec-ed.co.uk/blog/why-schools-need-to-put-staff-first-teacher-wellbeing-cpd-john-tomsett/> [Accessed: 16 April 2021].

Touahar, K & Hammou, M. (2020). *Investigating the Challenges Facing Novice Teachers in the Algerian EFL Classrooms* (Doctoral dissertation, Université Ibn Khaldoun-Tiaret).

Tounsi, M. (2016). *La scolarité obligatoire en Algérie: ambitions et défis*. *Revue internationale d'éducation de Sèvres*, (73), 47-56.

Towers, E. & Maguire, M. (2022). *Policy Problems: Policy Approaches to Teacher Education Research*. In *The Palgrave Handbook of Teacher Education Research* (pp. 1-19). Palgrave Macmillan.

Tuli, F. (2010). The Basis of Distinction Between Qualitative and Quantitative Research in Social Science: Reflection on Ontological, Epistemological and Methodological Perspectives. *Ethiop. J. Educ. & Sc*, 6(1), pp. 97-108.

Turner, D. (2004) 'Privatisation, Decentralisation and Education in the United Kingdom: The Role of the State', *International Review of Education / Internationale Zeitschrift für Erziehungswissenschaft / Revue Internationale de l'Education*, 50(3/4), pp. 347–357.

UK Population Data (2022). *Population of England*. Available at: <https://populationdata.org.uk/population-of-england/> (Accessed: November 3, 2022).

UNICEF (2014) Out-of-school children in Algeria, UNICEF Middle East and North Africa. Available at: <https://www.unicef.org/mena/reports/out-school-children-algeria> (Accessed: November 24, 2020).

Ushioda, E., (2017). The impact of global English on motivation to learn other languages: Toward an ideal multilingual self. *The Modern Language Journal*, 101(3), pp.469-482.

Üstünlüoğlu, E., 2009. Is appraisal system a threat for teachers?. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 1(1), pp.118-123.

Vähäsantanen, K. & Saarinen, J. (2013) 'The power dance in the research interview: manifesting power and powerlessness', *Qualitative Research*, 13(5), pp. 493–510. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1177/1468794112451036>. [5 January 2021].

Van der, R., M. & Boettiger, M. (2009). "Shifting research dynamics: Addressing power and maximising participation through participatory research techniques in participatory research," *South African Journal of Psychology*, 39(1), pp. 1–18. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1177/008124630903900101>.

Vanclay, F., Baines, J.T. & Taylor, C.N. (2013). Principles for ethical research involving humans: ethical professional practice in impact assessment Part I. *Impact assessment and project appraisal*, 31(4), pp.243-253.

Vermunt, J., D. (2014). Teacher Learning and Professional Development. In: Krolak-Schwerdt, S., Glock, S., Böhmer, M. (eds) Teachers' Professional Development. The Future of Education Research. Sense Publishers, Rotterdam.

Volchenkova, K., (2016). Peer observation as a tool for teacher's professional development and the way to increase the quality of the education process. *Bulletin of the South Ural State University. Series "Education. Educational sciences"*, 8(3), pp.39-43.

Vygotsky L., S. (1978). Mind in society. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Wan, W., Y. (2011). *Teachers' perceptions and experiences of Continuing Professional Development (CPD): Opportunities and needs in Hong Kong primary schools*. dissertation. University of Nottingham.

Webster-Wright, A. (2010). *Authentic professional learning: Making a difference through learning at work*. Dordrecht: Springer Netherlands.

Webster-Wright, A., (2009). Reframing Professional Development Through Understanding Authentic Professional Learning. *Review of Educational Research*, 79(2), pp.702-739.

Whitehead, Jack (2019) Creating a living-educational-theory from questions of the kind, 'how do I improve my practice?' 30 years on with Living Theory research. *Educational Journal of Living Theories*, 12 (2). pp. 1-19.

Whiting, C., Black, P., Hordern, J., Parfitt, A., Reynolds, K., Sorensen, N. & Whitty, G., (2016). Towards a new topography of ITT: a profile of Initial Teacher Training in England 2015-16. An Occasional Paper from the IFE No. 1.

Whiting, C., Whitty, G., Menter, I., Black, P., Hordern, J., Parfitt, A., Reynolds, K. and Sorensen, N., (2018). Diversity and complexity: Becoming a teacher in England in 2015–2016. *Review of Education*, 6(1), pp.69-96.

Whitty, G., (2017). The Marketization of Teacher Education: Threat or Opportunity?. In A companion to research in teacher education (pp. 373-383). Springer, Singapore.

Wiles, R., Crow, G., Heath, S. & Charles, V. (2008). The Management of Confidentiality and Anonymity in Social Research. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, 11(5), pp.417-428.

Willis, J. W. (2007). *Foundations of qualitative research: interpretive and critical approaches*. London: Sage.

Wilson, D, N. (2003). The Future of Comparative and International Education in a Globalised World. *International Review of Education*. 49, (1-2), pp. 15–33.

Wilson, David N. (2003): 'The Future of Comparative and International Education in a Globalised World'. *International Review of Education*, Vol. 49, Nos. 1–2. www.pisa.oecd.org.

Win, Y. M., (2022). Teacher educators' understanding of integrating lesson study into pre-service teacher education. *Journal of Adult Learning, Knowledge and Innovation*, 4(2), pp.52-61.

Woolrych, R., Zecevic, A., Sixsmith, A., Sims-Gould, J., Feldman, F., Chaudhury, H., Symes, B. & Robinovitch, S. (2015). Using Video Capture to Investigate the Causes of Falls in Long-Term Care. *The Gerontologist*, 55(3), pp.483-494.

World Bank (2020). *World Development Report 2020: Trading for Development in the Age of Global Value Chains*, Available at: <https://www.worldbank.org/en/publication/wdr2020> [Accessed: 24 November 2022].

Worldometer (2022). *Algeria population (live)*. Available at: <https://www.worldometers.info/world-population/algeria-population/> (Accessed: November 3, 2022).

Wortham, S. (2006). *Learning identity: The joint emergence of social identification and academic learning*. New York, NY, US: Cambridge University Press (Learning

identity: The joint emergence of social identification and academic learning), pp. ix, 305.

Wyatt, M. and Ončevska Ager, E., 2017. Teachers' cognitions regarding continuing professional development. *Elt Journal*, 71(2), pp.171-185.

Yeigh, T. & Lynch, D. (2017). Reforming Initial Teacher Education: A Call for Innovation. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 42(12), pp.112-127.

Yemini, M., Goren, H. & Maxwell, C. (2018). Global citizenship education in the era of mobility, conflict and globalisation.

You, Y., & Morris, P. (2016). Imagining school autonomy in high-performing education systems: East Asia as a source of policy referencing in England. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education*, 46(6), 882-905.

Yujin, K. (2011). 'The Pilot Study in Qualitative Inquiry: Identifying Issues and Learning Lessons for Culturally Competent Research', *Qualitative Social Work*, 10(2), pp. 190–206. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1177/1473325010362001>.

Zaghlami, L. (2017). *Public Diplomacy and Soft Power in Algeria's Foreign Policy* (pp. 326-337). Abngdon: Routledge.

Zaghlami, L. (2017). *Students As Victims Of A National Language Malaise*. [online] University World News Available at : <<https://www.universityworldnews.com/post.php?story=2017121313330943>> [Accessed 2 November 2020].

Zhang, Y. (2010). *Teachers' Professional Development in the Changing and Challenging Context - A comparative study between Mainland China and Hong Kong*. Master of Philosophy in Comparative and International Education. UNIVERSITETET I OSLO: Institute for Educational Research Faculty of Education.

Zhou, J. (2014) "Teacher education changes in China: 1974–2014", *Journal of Education for Teaching*, pp. 1-17. doi: 10.1080/02607476.2014.956543.

Zohrabi, M. (2013). Mixed method research: Instruments, validity, reliability and reporting findings. *Theory and practice in language studies*, 3(2), p.254.

Zsuzsa Kovacs and Csaba Kalm (2021). Professional learning in the workplace. *Journal of Adult Learning, Knowledge and Innovation*, 4(2), pp. 41-43. DOI: 10.1556/2059.2021.00046

Appendices

Appendix 1: University Research Ethics Committee Approval Forms



8th January 2019

Dear Amina,

Project Title:	Teachers' Continuous Professional Development CPD in Algeria and England: A Comparative Case Study of Secondary Teachers in Medea and London
Principal Investigator:	Professor Gerry Czerniawski
Researcher:	Amina Abdat
Reference Number:	UREC 1819 16

I am writing to confirm the outcome of your application to the Research, Research Degrees and Ethics Subcommittee (RRDE), which was considered by UREC on **Wednesday 19 September 2018**.

The decision made by members of the Committee is **Approved**. The Committee's response is based on the protocol described in the application form and supporting documentation. Your study has received ethical approval from the date of this letter.

Should you wish to make any changes in connection with your research project, this must be reported immediately to RRDE. A Notification of Amendment form should be submitted for approval, accompanied by any additional or amended documents: <http://www.uel.ac.uk/wwwmedia/schools/graduate/documents/Notification-of-Amendment-to-Approved-Ethics-App-150115.doc>

Any adverse events that occur in connection with this research project must be reported immediately to RRDE.

Approved Research Site

I am pleased to confirm that the approval of the proposed research applies to the following research site.

Research Site	Principal Investigator / Local Collaborator
London and Algeria	Professor Gerry Czerniawski

:



Approved Documents

The final list of documents reviewed and approved by the Committee is as follows:

<i>Document</i>	<i>Version</i>	<i>Date</i>
UREC application form	2.0	10 December 2018
Participant Information sheet	6.0	8 January 2019
Consent form	6.0	8 January 2019
Schedule of Interview for Teachers	2.0	18 December 2018
Schedule of Interview for CPD Coordinators	2.0	18 December 2018
School permission to conduct research	1.0	11 December 2018
Email permission from Paul Woods – St John school	1.0	6 December 2018
Email from Warren Kidd – access permission	1.0	12 November 2018

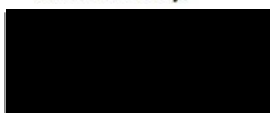
Approval is given on the understanding that the [UEL Code of Practice in Research](#) is adhered to.

The University will periodically audit a random sample of applications for ethical approval, to ensure that the research study is conducted in compliance with the consent given by the ethics Committee and to the highest standards of rigour and integrity.

Please note, it is your responsibility to retain this letter for your records.

With the Committee's best wishes for the success of this project.

Yours sincerely,



Fernanda Silva
Administrative Officer for Research Governance
University Research Ethics Committee (UREC)
Email: researchethics@uel.ac.uk

Dear Amina,

Application ID: ETH2223-0061

Original application ID: ETH1920-0033

Project title: Teachers' Continuous Professional Development CPD in Algeria and England: A Comparative Study of MFL Teachers in Medea and London

Lead researcher: Miss Amina Abdat

Your application to Ethics and Integrity Sub-Committee (EISC) was considered on the 23rd November 2022.

The decision is: **Approved**

The Committee's response is based on the protocol described in the application form and supporting documentation.

Your project has received ethical approval for 4 years from the approval date.

If you have any questions regarding this application please contact your supervisor or the administrator for the Ethics and Integrity Sub-Committee.

Approval has been given for the submitted application only and the research must be conducted accordingly.

Should you wish to make any changes in connection with this research/consultancy project you must complete 'An application for approval of an amendment to an existing application'.

Approval is given on the understanding that the [UEL Code of Practice for Research](#) and the [Code of Practice for Research Ethics](#) is adhered to. ☐☐

Any adverse events or reactions that occur in connection with this research/consultancy project should be reported using the University's form for [Reporting an Adverse/Serious Adverse Event/Reaction](#).

The University will periodically audit a random sample of approved applications for ethical approval, to ensure that the projects are conducted in compliance with the consent given by the Ethics and Integrity Sub-Committee and to the highest standards of rigour and integrity.

Please note, it is your responsibility to retain this letter for your records.

With the Committee's best wishes for the success of the project.

Yours sincerely,

Fernanda Pereira Da Silva

Administrative Officer for Research Governance

Appendix 2: Participant Information Sheet and Consent Form



Annexe 1

University of East London

Water Lane E15 4LZ, Stratford Campus

Research Integrity

The University adheres to its responsibility to promote and support the highest standard of rigor and integrity in all aspects of research, observing the appropriate ethical, legal, and professional frameworks. The University is committed to preserving your dignity, rights, safety, and wellbeing and as such it is a mandatory requirement of the University that formal ethical approval, from the appropriate Research Ethics Committee, is granted before research with human participants or human data commences.

The Principal Investigator/Director of Studies

Gerry Czerniawski

ED 3.03, Stratford Campus

Cass School of Education and Communities

Stratford Campus

Water Lane

London

E15 4LZ

UEL telephone:

0208 223 2221

g.czerniawski@uel.ac.uk

Student researcher

Amina Abdat

u1716664@uel.ac.uk

The Research is fully funded by the Algerian Ministry of Higher Education

Consent to Participate in a Research Study

You are invited to take part in this research study. Before you decide to do so, it is important that you understand the purpose of the research and how it will be carried out. Please take time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. You can also ask the researcher about anything that is not clear that requires clarification and/ or if you wish to know more information. Also, please take the time to decide whether or not you wish to take part in the study. Thank you for reading this

February 2016



Project Title

Teachers' Continuous Professional Development CPD in Algeria and England:
A Comparative Study of MFL Teachers in Medea and London

Project Description

This study is a small-scale comparative exploratory study looking at teachers' Continuous Professional Development (CPD) in Algeria and England. It is interpretive in design using non-participant observations and interviews as the primary research tools. The aim of the study is to explore Foreign Language teachers' engagement with and understanding of Continuous Professional Development CPD in England and Algeria and to compare their perceptions in both countries. A further more specific aim of the study is to explore teachers' beliefs of CPD's impact on their profession and teaching skills.

You have been chosen to take part in this study because of your profession as a teacher at secondary school in Algeria or London, and also because, you have been assigned by either your school or your government to attend initial teacher training and CPD sessions. Regardless of how many years of teaching service you have, your participation in the research is valuable to the extent it will allow me to explore your perceptions of CPD provision, how you engage with the training and what perceived impact you think it has on your teaching skills.

If you agree to participate in this study, you will be invited to an interview in which the researcher will explore your experience of teacher training and, from your own perception, the impact of this training on your teaching skills. Questions will be asked about the kind of activities you have in your formal CPD sessions and to what extent the CPD programme has addressed your professional needs. The design of the individual interview will be semi-structured, making it more like a conversation and giving you opportunity to talk about matters of significance to you.

The individual interviews will be audio recorded so they can be later transcribed and analyzed. It is expected that the interview will take place in your workplace or somewhere else that is suitable and convenient. The duration of the interview will be approximately 30-45 minutes.

February 2016



To ensure the safety of my participants and avoid risks in a hazardous situation, I will inform the school administration of my presence on site for data collection. I will follow all the safety procedures and be cautious. I should be aware of who the first aiders are and how to access Emergency exits points.

It is anticipated that on few occasions, participants might have feelings of discomfort when disclosing sensitive information or concerns about sharing private information of their experiences. To avoid risks of revelation of private information, privacy and safety of participants will be respected and always maintained. During the interview you can give as much or as little information as you wish, and you will have the right to stop the interview at any time for any reason and without any consequence.

Support will be offered to the participants through trained support staff who will be present such as teaching assistants and mentors in case the participants need any assistance.

Information about agencies and support organizations that they may contact will also be available to them and which will be able to support them if needed.

The current research study does not involve any vulnerable groups or participants under the age of 16.

Participants who will take part in the study are not in a dependent relationship with the researcher.

The programme does not provide any kind of treatment to my participants, but it is expected that they will gain some benefits from their participation in the study. Teachers will benefit from my research by giving them a chance to reflect on their CPD training. The research will also allow teachers to voice their opinions regarding their professional development training. Both teachers and CPD coordinators will

February 2016



benefit from knowledge exchange and this will have a beneficial impact on teachers' practices and their training by sharing best practices and good examples of teaching and CPD.

Confidentiality of the Data

Given that the research is a small-scale research study, it would be noteworthy to state that the information you provide will be subject to limitations in the level of anonymity and data confidentiality.

If I feel that a participant is at risk of harm because they report being a victim, for example, I might feel some sort of a moral duty to disclose this information to a high authority. Discussing my concerns aims mainly to assure my participants' safety as I have a professional responsibility towards taking care of them from any hazard or risk.

Your replies to our interview questions will help me to answer the questions I have about the experiences of teachers in their CPD training and the impact it might have on their professionalism.

Concerning your details and the information you will provide, it will be kept securely in a password-protected folder in the researcher's laptop. No person other than the principal investigator will have access to this information. Participant's details will be kept separately from the audio and transcribed data at all times. To ensure complete anonymity, you, and those you may talk about during the interview will not be identified in any way on the audio recording, on any written material resulting from it, or in any of the study reports. Pseudonyms will be used to anonymize the participants.

I will use the information gathered from participants (which we hope will include you) in this project in a number of ways. This might include:

February 2016



1. in the PhD thesis of the researcher
2. in journal articles
3. At UEL seminars/conferences and other conferences.
4. in community events where policymakers and other professionals may attend.

Please remember: your identity will be protected at all times (anonymized).

The processing of the information that will be generated from the study will be handled in accordance with the terms of the General Data Protection Regulation of UEL.

Location

The research will be carried out in one school in Algeria and in four schools in London

Remuneration

No payment will be made to the participants for taking part in the study.

Disclaimer

Your participation in this study is entirely voluntary, and you are free to withdraw at any time during the research. Should you choose to withdraw from the programme you may do so without disadvantage to yourself and without any obligation to give a reason. Please note that your data can be withdrawn up to the point of data analysis – after this point it may not be possible.

University Research Ethics Committee

If you have any concerns regarding the conduct of the research in which you are being asked to participate, please contact:

**Catherine Fieulleateau, Research Integrity and Ethics Manager, Graduate School, EB 1.43
University of East London, Docklands Campus, London E16 2RD
(Telephone: 020 8223 6683, Email: researchethics@uel.ac.uk)**

For general enquiries about the research please contact the Principal Investigator on the contact details at the top of this sheet

February 2016



Annexe 2

UNIVERSITY OF EAST LONDON

Consent to Participate in a Programme Involving the Use of Human Participants.

Title of research:

Teachers' Continuous Professional Development CPD in Algeria and England: A Comparative Study of MFL Teachers in Medea and London

Amina Abdat

Please tick as appropriate:

	YES	NO
I have the read the information leaflet relating to the above programme of research in which I have been asked to participate and have been given a copy to keep. The nature and purposes of the research have been explained to me, and I have had the opportunity to discuss the details and ask questions about this information. I understand what is being proposed and the procedures in which I will be involved have been explained to me.		
If participation is to be audio or video recorded, please state this and ask participants to confirm they consent] I understand that my participation will be audio recorded and I confirm my consent to the researcher to do it.		
I understand that my involvement in this study, and particular data from this research, will remain strictly confidential as far as possible. Only the researchers involved in the study will have access to the data. <i>(Please see below)</i>		
I understand that maintaining strict confidentiality is subject to the following limitations: As the study is a small-scale research study, maintaining confidentiality of the participants		

February 2016



might be subject to certain limitations due to the nature of the study.		
I understand that confidentiality and anonymity will be maintained, and it will not be possible to identify me in any research outputs unless my safety is at risk. Disclosing my information to relevant authority for the sake of addressing concerns might take place.		
I understand that anonymized quotes of my speech will be used in publications.		
I understand that I have the option to choose whether to be named in publications or not.		
Some of the proposed methods of publications where research findings might be disseminated are: the PhD thesis, journal articles, conferences and seminars.		
If appropriate, I understand that the information collected about me will be used to support other research in the future and may be shared anonymously with other researchers.		
Please indicate if you wish to participate in any of the future research studies that may be carried out by the researcher.		
It has been explained to me what will happen once the programme has been completed.		
I understand that my participation in this study is entirely voluntary, and I am free to withdraw at any time during the research without disadvantage to myself and without being obliged to give any reason. I understand that my data can be withdrawn up to the point of data analysis and that after this point it may not be possible.		
I hereby freely and fully consent to participate in the study which has been fully explained to me and for the information obtained to be used in relevant research publications.		

February 2016



Participant's Name (BLOCK CAPITALS)

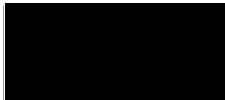
.....

Participant's Signature

.....

Investigator's Name (AMINA ABDAT)

Investigator's Signature



Date:

February 2016

Appendix 3: Interview schedule for MFL teachers

Dear participant, thank you for accepting to take part in this interview.

With your consent, I would like to conduct this interview as part of my PhD research. The interview aims at exploring your perceptions of your experiences and engagement with CPD. **Information provided here will strictly be used confidentially and anonymously for research purposes.**

Part One: Teachers' General Knowledge

1- Have you heard of the term Continuing Professional Development (CPD)?

- Could you give me a short definition about your understanding of the term CPD?
- Could you tell me a little bit about the context in which you use it?
- Which similar terms do you use in your profession as well?

Part Two: Teachers' Formal Experiences with ITE and CPD

2- Could you tell me a little bit about your Initial Teacher Education ITE/ Initial Teacher training ITT?

- What was your initial teacher training/ education based on?
- How does CPD builds on your initial teacher training/education?

3- As a professional teacher, are you entitled to attend any CPD sessions at your school or in another setting?

- If yes, could you tell me a little bit about your experiences with this form of CPD?
- What are the type of activities that you have in your CPD sessions?
- Have you experienced any activity that you found powerful/ memorable?

- Have you experienced any activity that you found inadequate in addressing your needs?

Part Three: Teachers' Informal Experiences with CPD

4- Do you devote time to work on your own professional development?

- If yes, how do you organise your time to do that?
- If no, why?

5. Could you tell me a little bit about any informal CPD that you are or have engaged in?

- How did you come to know about it?
- Do you often look for other opportunities of CPD outside your school?
 - If no, why?

6. Do you attend conferences related to teaching/ subject specific knowledge?

- Would you be interested to attend for a fully-paid conference/ study day if available?

7. Are you involved in staff meetings to discuss your teaching experiences?

8. Do you conduct any lesson observation in your practice?

If yes, could you please tell me about your experience with this practice.

9. Would you be interested in opportunities for collegial professional learning?

Part Four: Teachers' Practices and Beliefs

10. How do you perceive effective CPD?

11. Could you address any limitations to your CPD if there are any?

12. What needs to change for your CPD to become more effective?

10. How do you think your CPD has addressed your professional needs?

- As an MFL teacher, could you identify some of these professional needs that you find worthy to be developed?

11. Could you tell me a little bit about your beliefs of the impact that CPD has had on your practice?

12. Are you using any of the activities that you have been introduced to in your CPD in your practice?

- If yes, could you tell me a little bit about it? How are you using them?
- Have any of these activities helped you in improving your teaching skills?
- Were any of them powerful/ poorly designed? Tell me about it.
- Have you gained any professional learning from this CPD, and which has been reflected on your teaching?

13. Is there anything more that you would like to address in this interview?

Background information:

- Gender
- Diploma/ degree: teaching route
- Type of school
- Teaching subject
- Level of school: middle school or secondary
- Years of teaching service

Appendix 4: Interview schedule for CPD Coordinators

Part One: CPD Coordinators' Knowledge of CPD

- 1- How do you define CPD?
- 2- Have you received any form of training to do this job?
 - Could you tell me a little bit about it?
- 3- Could you tell me a little bit about the provision of CPD for teachers?
 - Who provides CPD sessions for teachers?
 - Where do CPD sessions take place?
 - How many times do teachers have formal CPD sessions per week/ month?
 - Are there any CPD opportunities provided at the workplace of teachers?
 - Are they free of charge/ paid by the school/ paid by the individual?
- 4- To your knowledge, are there any other bodies that provide CPD opportunities for teachers?
 - If yes, could you tell me a little bit about it?
- 5- What are the governmental policies that shape CPD in your context?
 - Would you mind providing me with any documents you may have access to and which relate to CPD Policy?

Part Two: CPD Coordinators' Opinions about CPD

- 6- To what extent do you believe that the government policies related to CPD inform teachers' CPD?
- 7- In your opinion, what is the impact that CPD has had on teachers' practice?
- 8- In your opinion, what are the areas MFL teachers need to develop more in:
- 9- Are the CPD sessions that teachers attend generic or subject specific?

- If the answer is generic CPD: do you believe that teachers need to have subject specific CPD?

10- In your opinion, is time adequate for teachers to engage with CPD?

11- Are there enough opportunities provided to support teachers' CPD?

- If yes, how do you think these opportunities are provided?

- If not why?

12- In your opinion, what is effective CPD?

13- Do you have any suggestion of how can future provision of CPD be improved?

Part Three: CPD Coordinators' Practices

14- Could you tell me a little bit about the formal CPD sessions you coordinate for MFL teachers in terms of the design and the content of the CPD programme?

15- Is there a specific Agenda that you follow in designing the focus of the CPD session?

- To what extent do you agree or disagree with this Agenda?

16- On what basis do you choose the activities of the CPD sessions?

17- Are teachers willing to participate in CPD sessions if it is not compulsory to attend?

- What do you think is the reason?

18- To what extent do you believe that CPD addresses teachers' professional needs?

19- Is there anything more that you would like to address in this interview?

Background Information

- Age
- Gender
- Years of service
- What does the job entail?

Appendix 5: A transcript of an interview with an MFL teacher (Algeria)

Q: Have you heard of the term continuing professional development?

A: Of course, yes.

Q: Could you give me a short definition about your understanding of the term?

A: Continuing professional development is like mandatory for teachers because in such sessions, teachers are learning new things and develop their knowledge related to English teaching as well as their skills. For me, CPD classes are very important, and I have attended many of these CPD classes. Now, I am working on it as a trainer, I am like a teacher assistant more like a trainer assistant, so I sometimes act as a trainer in these CPD classes.

Q: Where does that these sessions take place?

A: In a private language school where I'm working part-time.

Q: where have you heard about it?

A: So, very good question. The first time I have heard of this term was at university when I was studying for the Masters' degree; and I didn't hear such a term in public schools.

Q: Could you tell me a little bit about the context in which you use it?

A: I have heard of this term in private schools for languages like this one. The owner asked for this kind of training to be held here. In our CPD classes, we mainly have games, so for example, in every CPD, teachers are supposed to share games which they have used like Energizers, ice breakers or games that can cover the whole class. We also do sometimes some micro teaching, so in our classes some teachers act and teach us something and we have feedback at the end.

Q: Have you ever experienced this form of CPD in public schools?

A: In public schools, there is a big difference. I forgot to mention that I have taught for 4 years in public schools, but as I got a job offer here in this private school, I take the chance in this interview to highlight the differences of CPD between the two. In public schools, there is lack of understanding of what CPD is supposed to be. What we did mainly is that we talked about how to teach the 4 skills, we talked about that, but it wasn't really practical, it wasn't really interesting, and teachers were really passive participants. It is mainly about the inspector holding a form of a lecture and the teachers are not really engaged. You would feel that they are forced to attend CPD classes.

Q: Could you tell me a little bit about your initial teacher training ITT and how does your CPD now builds on your ITE?

A: Not much, I did Masters in didactics. We were introduced to concepts and ideas related to teaching, but they were very abstract, so there is no practical side to that and we have been introduced to psychology and educational psychology and it was also theoretical mainly. There was no practical side to that.

Q: How would you have preferred your initial training to be based on?

A: Some practical strategies that we can implement and integrate in classes, I mean theory is important but without practice, it is not really helpful. It doesn't help teachers. I don't know, but I guess that teachers didn't really enjoy being trained in public schools with this kind of CPD classes. As I said, they are theoretical, and you can't apply the ideas you are taught. I wish we had had better chances to discuss what we do here, in the language school because teachers find it more useful when they act as participants in these classes more than just listeners to it.

Q: As a professional teacher, are you entitled to attend any CPD sessions at your school?

A: It was like mandatory, but not quite often. In one year, maybe we have attended 3 or 4 sessions only. it was only one for each semester. It was like mandatory for all teachers to attend.

Q: Where does it take place?

A: It took place in different regions in Medea. The inspector chooses where she wants to have it. It was once in BniSliman, it was far from home maybe 1 hour and a half, it was also sometimes in Barouagiya which is not very far.

Q: Was it generic for teachers from different subjects, or just for English teachers?

A: It was only for teachers of English.

Q: Do you have any CPD at the school where you teach?

A: Never happened, I mean we didn't have, we didn't even used to talk about how we can help our students in our schools. The training sessions we had were with our inspectors and were held in other schools in Medea, but we had no sessions in our own schools.

Q: What are the type of activities that you had in the CPD with your inspector?

A: I remember we had some practical games, but they were not really enough some of them, I mean one of them were designed by the inspector herself, but it was very theoretical and without any objectives. I didn't really enjoy it and I never learned anything from that. I remember another CPD class when she asked some teachers to help her with this training, and it was more successful and they were like teachers sharing new ways to teach the English alphabet but it wasn't enough for me because I am involved in online trainings which I have discovered on my own and in those trainings, I have had all kinds of CPD classes for free by 'world learning' and I found that there is a big difference. Online is much better because you can learn much more by yourself.

Q: Have you experienced any kind of activity that you have found powerful or an activity that you have found poor in design?

A: I need time to think about that because there has been now more than 1 year since I didn't attend as we attend training sessions by turn and my turn hadn't come yet.

Q: So, let's talk about the activity that you have referred to earlier, you said that you found it successful

A: Yes, I said that when the teachers were involved in designing the activity, they talked about their experiences, so that one was good, but the one that was poor in my opinion was the one that was theoretical, that's my point!

Q: Do you devote any time to work on your own professional development?

A: Of course! all my time is devoted for that; it is something that is really important for all teachers to do because we need that.

Amina: And how can you organize your time to do that?

A: I try whenever I find opportunities, when I can develop my skills of teaching, I do that, and mainly by myself, by my own willingness. I think the internet is now very easy and free. You can find plenty of information and online platforms where you can develop your skills without the need of your inspector. When we have CPD classes in this school, it is an opportunity for all teachers to share what they have and what they can learn from the internet.

Q: And have you been introduced in the training that you have with your inspector to something similar?

A: No, unfortunately, I have never enjoyed my training with the inspector. I'm not being subjective; I don't know there is no connection to that.

Q: So, how did you become aware of your knowledge on how to teach?

A: It is through the use of internet; the Internet is full of websites.

Amina: So, can you tell me a little bit about the informal CPD that you have or currently engaged in?

A: Yes, basically every week, I meet with other teachers in the language school, I am talking about our private language school. We try to help each other and share

knowledge and practice, by the way, we don't do it only for English teachers, it is for all MFL teachers. For example, in the CPD that we are having now, we have Spanish teachers, Arabic teachers and other teachers of languages. And we have a common language that we all can speak which is Arabic. In the session, we try to speak about our practice, the activities related to teaching, for example now we are working on some energizers that we can use in the classrooms. In the sessions all teachers have to participate and share their own experience

Q: And besides this CPD do you often look for other opportunities like online CPD?

A: Of course, I am involved in online trainings which I have discovered on my own and in those trainings, I have had all kinds of CPD classes for free by world learning.

Q: Do you attend any conferences which are related to your subjects of teaching or teaching in general?

A: You mean...?

Q: I mean conferences related to teaching that is not provided by the state?

A: Yes, I see, well, not much, I am a PhD student at university as well, whenever I hear about such things, I try to participate in them, but I didn't participate enough so far it was just an interest in the thought of it.

Q: What are the reasons why you're not taking part in them?

A: I think there is a lack of conferences where they talk about teaching and so on, I have never heard of a conference for teachers in Medea, but I know of some in my university in Telemcen, in the west of Algeria, but I think it is also about lecturing, it is all about giving PowerPoint presentations. You can learn but it is not enough, as I said, teachers should be engaged or take part in the CPD or conference to benefit from it.

Q: And would you be interested in attending a fully paid conference if available?

A: Of course! without doubt.

Q: Are involved in staff meetings to discuss your teaching experiences and benefit from each other's practices?

A: Yes, we do that, but it is not formal; for example, in our staff room, we tend to discuss such topics but informally, but we do share techniques on how to teach languages. Teachers of languages do help each other.

Q: Do you conduct any lesson observation classes where you attend other teachers' classes?

A: Yes, I do that, we do that a lot here, in the language school.

Q: Sorry, but my question mainly draws on your experience in state schools

A: In state school, I have done just a couple of times, but it wasn't like the teacher didn't accept that, first it wasn't recommended by the head teacher, but I remember I only did the lesson observation I had with my inspector, when she attended my capem, she didn't give me good feedback, I mean she pointed to the problems, but she didn't help me understand better what those problems were, and it wasn't professional at all. When I remember the way, she was speaking to me, it was really with harsh language, she wasn't really professional.